The 20th EASM conference
Sport between business and civil society

ABSTRACT BOOK

The 20th Conference of the European Association for Sport Management (EASM)
Aalborg • Denmark 18 - 21 September 2012
The 20th EASM conference

Sport between business and civil society

Abstract book

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Welcome from the President of EASM

Dear Reader,

We are happy to present the latest edition of abstracts from the 20th EASM Annual Conference held in Aalborg this year from 18-21 September.

On behalf of the European Association for Sports Management I would like to thank everybody who contributed to the book: the authors and their institutions for their efforts in developing knowledge in our field, the Scientific Committee and its team of reviewers for all their support and, finally, the Local Organising Committee for their good job putting all together in time.

Some of the papers will be published, as full articles, in future issues of our official journal, the European Sports Management Quarterly (ESMQ), accepted by the Thomson Social Sciences Index. One of the papers submitted by a new researcher will be awarded the New Researcher’s Award (NRA), sponsored by our publisher, Routledge Journals.

Since the first annual EASM Conference in Groningen in 1993, twenty years ago, we have produced a book of abstracts, available at easm.net, where you can find invaluable information for your research as well as the latest in sport management.

We are confident that the book will provide a useful reference for the study of sport management as well as assisting sport managers to maximise the value of their work.

We look forward to receiving your contributions to the next 21st EASM Conference entitled “Sport Management for Quality of Life” to be held in Istanbul next year, from 11 – 15 September.

Mikel Urdangarin
President of EASM
Vitoria-Gasteiz, Basque Country, Spain
August 2012
Welcome from the chairman of the Scientific Committee

On behalf of the EASM Scientific Committee I welcome you to take part in the 20th EASM conference in Aalborg, Denmark. EASM aims to develop opportunities for teachers, researchers, students, and organizers in the field of sport management to cooperate and enhance effectiveness, creativity, and reflexivity in managing sport. Over the last years EASM has increasingly developed its event “products” to accomplish these aims, and the 20th EASM conference clearly reflects our endeavor to rely on different means in building a viable sport management community. The conference comprises presentations given by keynote speakers, journal editors, new researchers competing for the New Researchers Award, researchers engaging in the special issue invited by our own journal, ESMQ, students from the master seminar, and not to forget you, as a researcher or practitioner presenting and commenting in the many theme sessions and workshops. The conference is the great come together of the sport management academic community in Europe this year.

Prior to the 20th EASM conference 274 abstracts were received for assessment for the workshops, NRA, theme sessions and posters. Although the number is slightly lower than in Madrid 2011 (which attracted a lot of Hispanic delegates from overseas) it is evidence that the EASM conference is keeping its leading position in the field. 84 reviewers, including the workshop conveners and NRA reviewers, have volunteered to assess the abstracts (see the listing of reviewers at page 8). This is more than ever before and the Scientific Committee is very grateful that so many of you have worked so hard to make the 20th EASM conference an inspiring event for all of us. Thank you very much - and enjoy the experience of sharing and increasing knowledge in the friendly context prepared by the Aalborg organizing committee!

Dr. Hallgeir Gammelsæter
Chair of the Scientific Committee
20th EASM Conference
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New Researchers Award

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Maarten van Bottenburg, Jörg Königstorfe, Veerle De Bosscher
Oral presentations
Youth Olympics
The youth Olympic Games: the best of the Olympics or a poor copy? A stakeholder approach

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The Youth Olympic Games (YOG) were hosted for the first time in Singapore in 2010 (summer games) and then Innsbruck, Austria in 2012 (winter), after being approved by the International Olympic Committee (IOC) in 2007. The IOC main objectives for the YOG are to use the event as an arena for a unique and powerful introduction to Olympism, educate the youth on the Olympic values, and have the youth share and celebrate the different worldwide cultures (IOC, 2011). Due to the lack of insight on youth events, we use the “real” Olympic Games (OG) as a basis for comparison when stating the paper’s exploratory research question, which is: 1) What are the similarities and differences between YOG and the Olympic Games from the different stakeholders’ perspectives?

Theoretical framework
Following Parent (2008), we use stakeholder theory to obtain the various stakeholders’ perspective of the YOGs versus the OGs. The stakeholders involved in an OG include the organizing committee staff and volunteers, host governments, the media, the sponsors, international delegations, the community, sport organizations (e.g., federations, other events) and other stakeholders such as regulatory bodies (e.g., WADA) and the United Nations (Chappelet & Kübler-Mabbott, 2008). The network of stakeholders allows for resource exchange and knowledge transfer/learning (cf. Ibarra, 1993). The OG stakeholder relationships have been well defined for the OG (cf. Chappelet & Kübler-Mabbott, 2008); however, they are not so for the YOG, a gap we seek to fill.

Methodology
We used a qualitative approach in this investigation of the first Winter YOG in Innsbruck, Austria (January 13-22, 2012). Observations (all authors were at the YOG), text analyses and interviews with nine athletes, five coaches, 20 volunteers and one IOC representatives. Data were compared through content analysis, a process for systematically analyzing all types of messages, and specifically pattern matching was used.

Results, discussion and conclusion
Much of what characterizes the OG is implemented in the youth festival, for example the opening and closing ceremonies, and the medal ceremonies. Regarding the latter, it was a surprise for the authors that the medallists were celebrated with national hymn and huge attention because the race for gold medals is not supposed to be an issue of the YOG. Other aspects of the OG, such as security and accreditation systems, were implemented – albeit in modified versions or modified service levels.

The stakeholders involved with the YOG include first of all the IOC who is strongly pushing for the YOGs and monitors the preparations and hosting closely. The IF’s were responsible for the competitive program for their respective sports, and the degree of new event formats depended upon them. That resulted in new formats, such as mixed disciplines, mixed-gender and mixed-NOCs. The NOCs as a stakeholder were responsible for sending the athletes in the given age categories. The athletes and their team leaders stayed in an Olympic Village as usual and were transported to the different venues. The athletes enjoyed their Olympic experience, the international flavor and appreciated the Cultural Educational Program (CEP) activities arranged by the host city. But most important for the athletes were still the competitions.

The host governments who have a very significant role to play in funding the event as the TOP sponsors do not provide additional funds for the YOGs, with the sponsors also being limited in number as compared to the OC. The media did not seems convinced either of the event, with only 800 media representatives accredited (compared to over 10,000 for the OG), and it is unlikely that many of these actually showed up. Hence, the IOC provided pictures and broadcast footage to the media in order to promote the event. A final difference was the young age and more inexperienced level of the organizing committee staff and volunteers. One unexpected stakeholder for the YOG is the presence of parents which is far more obvious here than in the OG: They are the main spectators. Activities and information to parents in their own language was requested and needs to be considered for future YOG host cities.

This first winter YOG was met with a “weak” response by media, sponsors, NOCs and IFs, the main drivers of the OG. However, this modified youth event may help smaller cities to become “Olympic cities”, which is a positive aspect for the Olympic legacy from the IOC’s perspective. The YOG are in their infancy, but it may be a fresh opportunity to become an important learning/development arena for athletes and coaches/team officials with Olympic goals and values in mind.

References:
Between institutionalization and authenticity - a theoretical framework for the analysis of young leadership at sport events

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Aim
The aim of this paper is to develop a theoretical framework for the analysis of young leadership at sport events. The point of departure was an empirical study of leadership at Youth Olympic Games (YOG) and World Snowboard Championship (WSC). It is the first step of a larger study of youth Olympic Games (YOG) and World Snowboard Championship (WSC). On the one hand, the two sport events have different institutional affiliations (YOG with the International Olympic Committee; WSC with several non-Olympic organizations); on the other hand, they both have a clear youth profile.

Theory
Neo-institutionalism emphasizes the taken-for-granted as a hidden power for acceptable behavior which leads to homogenization of practice within a field (Meyer and Rowan, 1991). DiMaggio and Powell (1991) sketch how rationalized myths spread through three forms of institutional processes: coercive isomorphism occurs when formal or informal pressure is exerted on an organization by actors upon which they are dependent; mimetic isomorphism emerges as a response to uncertainty, where organizations resemble actors which are perceived as successful; normative isomorphism develops by the mechanisms of filtering personnel to certain jobs in the field. Neo-institutionalism is criticized focusing on the unreflected routine; thus - among other replies - institutional entrepreneurship is launched to reintroduce ‘considerations of agency, power and interests into analyses of institutional fields’ (Hardy and Maguire, 2008, p. 198). Institutional entrepreneurship is defined as ‘activities of actors who have interest in particular institutional arrangements and who leverage resources to create new institutions or to transform existing ones’ (Maguire et al., 2004, p. 657).

Despite efforts to allow more agency within institutions, neo-institutionalism lacks a leadership perspective. Thus, authentic leadership theory is chosen as a supplement. Authentic leadership is defined as a pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internal moral perspective, balanced processing of information and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development (Walumbwa et al., 2008, p. 94).

Methods
Two approaches were employed in order to develop a theoretical framework: first, we based on former theoretical approaches used by two of the authors (neo-institutionalism); second, we searched the sport management literature to add a leadership perspective.

Discussion and conclusion
The rationale for our choice of theories is based on Yukl’s (2002) identification of four ‘levels of conceptualization for leadership processes’ (p. 14): individual, dyadic, group and organization. The individual level focuses on intrapersonal processes of one single individual at a time. The dyadic level focuses on the relationship between the leader and any other single individual in the organization. The group level focuses on how leadership contributes to make a group of people work efficiently together. And the organization level, it is acknowledged that the efficiency of groups has to be seen in relation to the larger system of which the group forms a part.

The organization and partly the group levels are covered theoretically by neo-institutionalism, which focuses on organizations’ (external) dependency as well as (internal) strategy, and merges rather contradicting but not mutually exclusive perspectives (DiMaggio and Powell, 1991; Meyer and Rowan, 1991). Moreover, after critique of the theory, stating that reproduction is prioritized instead of change, later developments offer new perspectives. One example of later development is institutional entrepreneurship (Hardy and Maguire, 2008; Maguire et al., 2004). However, although agency is launched or admitted in later institutional theory, leadership perspectives that cover the inner levels of Yukl’s (2002) model are still missing.

The dyadic and individual levels are covered theoretically by authentic leadership theory. Authentic leadership theory focuses on the leader’s (i) self-awareness, (ii) relational transparency, (iii) balanced processing, and (iv) internalized moral perspective (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008). The point is that, where institutionalism focuses on the taken-for-granted or “invisible” elements of an organization, authentic leadership theory refers to explicit or more “visible” elements of the leader and the leader processes that take place in an organization. Although newer perspectives of neo-institutionalism allows for more agency among organizational members than classic versions did, the inclusion of authentic leadership theory in our theoretical framework will move that perspective even one step further, with the authentic leadership theory’s focus upon the more positive sides of members of institutions and organizations.

Taken together, it is believed that the respective theories - one which stems from a focus upon reproductive and “invisible” power elements, and one that focus explicitly on transparency and being oneself, can “weigh out” each other’s weaknesses.

This framework for the study of young leadership at sport events, gives some practical implications for the empirical investigation. The construction of an interview guide takes into account both how institutional loyalty and organizational framework influences young leaders’ perception of their own
leadership, and how self-awareness as well as open and balanced processes are parts (or not) of young leaders’ leadership. After doing observations and interviews among young leaders at sport events (so far at the YOG 2012 in Innsbruck and the WSC 2012 in Oslo), the experiences of applying a combination of institutional and authentic leadership theories are promising.

References


Institutionalism in Organizational Analysis. Chicago: The University of Chicago press.
Stuck in structure – how young leaders perceived the institutional frames at the youth Olympic Games in Innsbruck 2012

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Aim
The aim of this paper is to create understanding about the institutional influence on young leadership at sport events. It thus adds a contribution to the study of young leadership at major sport events. Based on the theoretical framework developed by Skille, Bodemar and Hanstad (2012) the institutional framework of youth leadership at Youth Olympic Games (YOG) in Innsbruck 2012 is analyzed. No previous studies have addressed this topic.

Theoretical background
Within the neo-institutional theory the concept of translation provides a framework for analyzing institutional change in organizations. New ideas are combined with existing institutional practices and translated into new practices to varying degrees (Campbell, 2004). YOG is a new concept and the organizing committee consisted of young people with experiences from the event industry. This could result in greater pressure to introduce new institutional solutions to the field. In this context, it’s interesting to see how YOG leaders solve tasks within an organization as IOC with strong institutional frames.

Methodology, research design and data analyses
At YOG 2012, observation for 8 days resulted in 12 pages of field notes. Six leaders between 24 and 34 years old (average age 29 years) were interviewed. In addition, five interviews with youth volunteer leaders’ experiences with leadership were conducted. These results will be analyzed and added as a contribution to the institutional perception of the young leaders.

All interviews were conducted during the event and lasted between 31 and 67 minutes. The interviews were thematically coded, broadly into three topics: leader’s general background, experiences with the leadership and institutional frame. The citations coded as institutional frames will be presented here.

Results, discussion and conclusions
Preliminary analysis indicates a series of tensions between the institutional frames given by IOC and the leaders perceptions of appropriate measures.

For the majority of the leaders (5 out of 6), cooperation directly with IOC was a new experience. All the leaders had earlier experiences with event organizing and had to learn how to work in the new institutional frame where they perceived that it was difficult to implement changes. Where I came from before starting at YOG, we had a quite small organization. When we wanted to change […] something, we could just do it. We didn’t have to ask 100 different parts. I started here and I thought, it’s the same. Then I learned it’s not. We cannot just decide something, and just do it like that. First we have to discuss it with the International Federations, with the IOC, with everybody. We just try to accept that and live with that. We have no choice (Innsbruck interview 4).

The young leaders refers to examples where ideas went in totally different direction (Innsbruck interview 3), but the respondents also describe the cooperation with IOC as good. The leaders felt that IOC appreciated what they had done within a small organizing committee (Innsbruck interview 3). The results indicate that there exists a tension between IOC and the young leaders’ ways to solve tasks in the IOC given frames. There were mentioned examples where the cooperation became accentuated, and where the young leaders experienced difficulties to argue and to implement tasks in the direction they wanted. Despite this there were ideas translated and interpreted in the YOG, which also resulted in a new practice on solutions that had not been intended and implemented in an IOC events before. At the same time the young leaders report that structure in IOC limited the possibilities.

They [IOC] did youth games, but at least we were not allowed to post there video which they have done in their own web site because of the rights. They want to do youth games, but they cannot because of the strong regulations and all structures. So I think they really have to fight also in the IOC to change. We think they have really good ideas, but they are “stuck” in the structure. (Innsbruck interview 3).

The results of this study indicate that the institutional frame limits the capabilities for the young leaders to implement a youth event in the current IOC structure. The power structure designate IOC as the heaviest ruler, but the young leaders have had an impact due to they are the ones who best knows the youth culture. To utilize the potential of the young leadership it may be necessary for the IOC to dissociate themself from some of the structures that have its origin in the Olympic Games. Due to that rule changes take time, this should be a priority for IOC and future organizers.

Reference List
Organisational Development at major sport events – the example of the Winter Youth Olympic Games 2012 in Innsbruck

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Abstract keywords
Organisational Development – major sport events – YOG – Venuisation

Aim of abstract/paper – research question
The paper analyses the changes Organising Committees of major sports events face during their lifecycle. In other words, the transition from operational planning into Games Time also referred to as “Venuisation.” So far Organising Committees paid insufficient attention to this exceptional phase in their lifecycle, since no particular research was made in this field. The results will assist future Organising Committees in planning the change in a transparent way which will help employees to manage this significant transformation in the best way.

Theoretical background / literature review
The transformation process during the Venuisation from the employees’ point of view is not yet analysed in detail in the respective literature. Based on a theoretical framework developed by Demschar in 2005, three different change types should be determined: organizational, physical and psychological change. The three major changes influence not only the social structure in the overall organisation but especially also the processes within the Organising Committee. Therefore, the changes which the Organising Committee has to face during this special part of the lifecycle are highly complex. The restricted resources concerning time, scope and budget even multiply the complexity of this transformation which affects in particular the Organising Committees employees.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
Based on a sample of 76 persons, two quantitative surveys based on the tool “Limesurvey” were carried out in order to analyse the expectations of the employees BEFORE and AFTER Games Time. The sample consisted of full-time and part-time employees, interns and long-term volunteers working for the YOG at a given time. A responserate of 81% and just under 70% could be accomplished. Up until now, hardly any research was made in terms of organising committees; however, a number of volunteer surveys exist on this specific topic. Therefore, we emphasised on the above mentioned sample, due to the fact that the venuisation process is considered as one of the most difficult and challenging transition in their workcycle. The evaluation and interpretation were conducted with the statistics program SPSS as well as Microsoft Excel. Four different dimensions of expectations were analysed. Additionally, the Sinus-Milieu-Concept was implemented in order to figure out the relationship among the personality structure and the reaction of Innsbruck 2012 employees.

Results, discussion and implications / conclusion
We tried to identify the predominant reaction of Innsbruck 2012 employees, as well as the differences among the pregame and the postgame survey. Furthermore, we tried to identify factors which can be held responsible for the individual reactions of Innsbruck 2012 employees.

The survey produced four different dimensions of reactions: pleasure and enjoyment, excessive demand, concernment as well as uncertainty. We identified the predominant reaction of Innsbruck 2012 employees. Before Games Time employees felt pleasure and enjoyment because of the upcoming changes in their professional career. However, During the Post-Games survey employees indicated significantly less pleasure and enjoyment. 66% of all employees indicated a high level of enthusiasm at the pregame survey, however only 42% were as enthusiastic about their work at the postgame survey. No significant discrepancy could be measured within the dimensions “excessive demand” and “concernment”. The dimension “uncertainty” decreased at the POST-GAMES survey significantly.

It became clear that a range of factors were responsible for the individual reactions and expectations of Innsbruck Youth Olympic Games employees, i.e. age, duration of employment and sex. All of them had a significant impact on the reaction; however, an interaction of all of them led to the reaction of the Innsbruck 2012 employees. Women are, for example, experienced the transformation more intense other than their male peers. It is recommended to treat and train employees on an individual basis, in order to implement successful change. Future Organising Committees should especially focus on employees without any experience in event management. Furthermore, it became clear Innsbruck 2012 employees possessed a similar personality structure. Almost 70% of all employees could be assigned to two quite similar Sinus Milieus. The Milieus are characterized by flexibility, creativity and adaptability. This outcome could support future Organising Committees by recruiting the right employees.

On this account, future organising committees are able to use the findings made to precisely plan and conduct this transitional part of their life cycle. It is recommended to implement appraisal interviews, informative meetings as well as adequate job trainings.

References
Young Norwegian Olympians’ experiences from the 2012 youth Olympic Games

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Elite youth sport is a rather unexplored research field, and the young Olympians’ experiences are hardly documented. The vision of the Youth Olympic Games (YOG) is to inspire young people around the world to participate in sport and adopt and live by the Olympic values. Moreover, this new International Olympic Committee (IOC) innovation is supposed to be much more than just another competition where the aim is to win; equally important is the YOG as a learning arena for education on the Olympic values, sharing and celebrating the cultures, and learning to become role models for the future (IOC, 2011). The introduction to the Olympic values is done in part through the athlete-focused mandatory Cultural Education Program (CEP) which includes activities like an arts project, competence projects, meet the role models panel sessions, and sustainability projects. As a result of the IOC’s approach to the Games, no records are to be kept, and the young athletes are all seen as winners if they behave like Olympians. But what do these young elite athletes think of the Games; what are their experiences, thoughts on the YOGs?

The purpose of this investigation was to examine how the Norwegian Youth Olympic Team experienced the combination of Olympic competition and the CEP of the first winter Youth Olympic Games in Innsbruck, January 2012.

Theoretical framework
In a competitive event, an athlete may face both competitive and organizational stressors that they have to cope with using a variety of coping strategies (Nicholls & Polman, 2007). Organizational stressors (e.g., sport organization politics, selection of coaches, selection criteria for participation, housing, busses and planning) can disrupt athletic performance (Gould et al., 1999). Therefore, the YOG as a new competition, with the CEP as an important aspect, is an interesting arena to gain more knowledge about how adolescents perceive major competitions using the transactional model framework of Lazarus and Folkman (1984).

Methods
Participants were the Norwegian national team that consisted of 28 athletes (14 men and 14 women aged 15-18) who qualified for competition in luge, alpine skiing, cross-country skiing, biathlon, curling, ski jumping, freestyle skiing, Nordic combined and speed skating. Altogether this team won 2 gold, 6 silver and 2 bronze medals. Qualitative methodologies were used such as semi-structured phone interviews (n=9) and observations (several competitions sites, Congress centre, Opening ceremony etc.) The interviews started with: (a) General questions about their own previous experiences with major competition (b) expectations and experiences with the combination of competition and CEP, (c) whether they experienced stress of any kind; and (d) if so, how they coped with the different stressors. Data from the observations and interviews were compared through content analysis, specifically pattern matching (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Results and discussion
The young Norwegian Olympians came to the YOG in order to do their best: “we are elite athletes; of course we take the competition seriously” (Man, age 17). They perceived the competition as bigger due to the size, and there were many new issues to adapt to like security, the Olympic Village and travel distance to venues and food. In order to cope with the new situation (perceived as additional stressors), the athletes used social support from team officials, each other and their parents (95% of the athletes had their parents present at YOG – and some also had grandparents, siblings, aunts and uncles).

The official CEP was optimal for the athletes who only had one or two days of competitions, as they had to stay for the entire period the Games lasted. As a result, the Norwegian athletes enjoyed the CEP after, in between, or if they had some extra time to spend at the Congress Centre in Innsbruck (where the CEP was located), a 10-minute bus ride away from the Olympic Village. To be enrolled in the Olympic atmosphere was harder for the athletes whose sports had several competitions and organized practices every day. Instead, recovery was prioritized when facing a tough competitive schedule.

In conclusion, it seems that the young Olympians are curious, enjoy the learning element of the competition, but for many, the unstructured and spontaneous meetings made a greater impression than the organized cultural program. The CEP may easily be perceived as an extra organizational stressor for the athletes that already had several new issues or stressors to cope with. If the YOG are to be a development-based event, organizers will need to consider the young athletes’ perceptions of stressors and adapt the program accordingly.

References
Leadership Issues in Sport Organisations
Natural leadership in sport

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Aim
This research is part of a comprehensive PhD research project that focuses on the existence and development of leadership in sport management practices. The underpinning factors that are associated with successfully leading top teams in sport are often used as an example in regard to being successful in non sport business (Westerbeek & Smith, 2005). This paper aims to identify what are specific qualities of leadership as exhibited by sport team captains making use of leadership profiles derived from the evolutionary theory by Van Vugt and Ahuja (2011). The following research question was designed for this research: What kind of leadership characteristics do sport team captains show in the age group of fifteen years and older?

Theoretical Background
A theory of leadership called natural leadership has its origins in evolutionary theory and takes the unique human phenomenon of complex cooperation as response to the need for collective action (Van Vugt, 2008). Natural leadership starts with individuals taking initiative and providing guidance while others agree to follow. Human beings include in their leadership expression specialised mental mechanisms for planning, communication, group decision-making, competence recognition, social learning and conflict management. Although such traits are generally associated with higher reasoning, cognitive pre-adaptations for leadership probably evolved long before modern humans ever appeared on the scene (Van Vugt and Ahuja, 2011). Human leadership can also be explained by dominance through hierarchy. Simply stated, the alpha male is at the top of tree. This example does not completely apply to human beings as human followers (can choose to democratically) decide who can be the boss and who can stay the boss (Wildschut, 2009). The so called ‘big men’ are able to have influence by making use of their personal qualities and not because of divine or inherited right to rule. To lead, they have to show that they are of additional value and not of restriction to the group (Greenleaf, 2002).

It is a misunderstanding that a real leader is able to lead in all circumstances. According to the evolutionary theory leadership is determined by situation. Different leadership is required in peace compared to war or less extreme circumstances. Depending on the situation, human beings focus automatically, by instinct, on a certain type of leader. Van Vugt and Ahuja (2011) typify the following cognitive ancestral leader prototypes that will be used in this paper to analyze leadership as shown by youth sport team captains. The distinguish between the warrior (necessary when the team is in danger and necessity of defence exists), the diplomat (maintenance of alliances), the peace founder (re-establishment and guard of harmony), the scout (specialized in creating new opportunities and finding new resources), the controller (in case of challenges of planning and coordination) and the teacher (when development is necessary for success).

Methodology
Next to conceptualizing the phenomenon of leadership through literature review, empirical data has been collected to explore the concept of natural leadership in sports. Central starting point is the theory of natural leadership with its evolutionary underpinnings as explained by Van Vugt and Ahuja (2011). Respondents in this research were the members of eight male youth soccer teams, eight female youth soccer teams and eight mixed gender youth korfbball teams and their coaches and team captains. Respondents were in the age of fifteen years and older. The data is used to provide an insight into which leadership profile is dominantly used by youth sport team captains and to compare the dominant leadership profiles of male, female and mixed gender teams. The data has been statistically analysed making use of SPSS. First of all the standard error is determined. Further Cronbach’s Alpa (homogeneity) and Chi square test (significant difference) is measured. Level of the competition in which the teams participate or ranking were not taken into account for this research.

Results
As data collecting took place in March and April of this year results were not yet available at the time of abstract submission. Meanwhile all data is collected. First results will be presented at the conference. Implications of the study can have major influence how leadership in sport can be identified and developed.

References
Becoming a leader: a study of aspirant football club managers

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Few professionals perform their jobs in an environment as public, as pressurised, as short-termist and as unforgiving of mistakes, as that which exists for football club managers. Early academic studies on the subject of leadership focused initially on attempts to define and analyse leadership effectiveness. More recently research has focused on the importance of leadership on business performance (e.g. financial performance; productivity) and behaviour (e.g. employee satisfaction/well-being; recruitment/retention). Some prior studies have combined sport and leadership/management; for example, Chelladurai (2006), who developed a US Leadership Scale for Sport. Aspects of football management and the role of the manager have been researched, in particular by Kelly (see, for example, Kelly and Waddington, 2006; Kelly, 2008; Kelly and Harris, 2010) and by Bridgewater (2010). The focus of this study, however, is on providing insight into what aspirant professional football managers understand about leadership and management philosophies within the specific context that is football. Specifically, the aims of this study are to: a) understand aspirant football managers’ views on leadership, management and authority; b) investigate what they perceive to be the main challenges they will face as new managers; c) investigate their motivations for becoming managers; and d) over time, to contrast managers’ prior perception with subsequent experience.

As in other countries, the Scottish Football Association (SFA) offers a Pro-Licence course as part of the UEFA accreditation scheme for managers. The SFA’s coaching schemes are highly regarded, attracting interests not just from managers and prospective managers in Scotland and elsewhere in the UK, but from other European countries. One element of the Pro-Licence course is a residential workshop, Management for Football Managers, at the University of Stirling. Following on from the Pro-Licence workshop, agreement was given to undertake a series of semi-structured, qualitative interviews (n=18) with the majority of candidates on the 2011/12 UEFA/SFA Pro-Licence course. The interviews were taped and transcribed and analysed using content analysis in order to identify key themes. These initial interviews will also act as the baseline for an ongoing longitudinal study into the differences between perceptions and experience as these candidates take up full managerial positions. Agreement has also been offered to track this cohort in the short- and medium-term as their career develops into managerial positions and beyond.

A response rate of 85% suggested key themes: leadership was identified most regularly as providing a consistency of direction and message and the willingness to make decisions; key characteristics of football leaders and managers identified by interviewees were honesty, trustworthiness and perceptiveness; and the importance of developing and maintaining relationships with key personnel in the club. In addition, from the leadership theory, it has been argued that decision-makers themselves are active in the social construction of the context and problem which in turn legitimises their behaviour (Grint, 2005). The evidence from this study reinforces this finding, with the types of authority advocated (or expected by the interviewees) being legitimised by the ways in which the problems they faced, or expected to face, as a football manager, were constructed by them in their specific football context.

The aims of this presentation are:

- To detail why this study is important; for example, as the changing nature of the football management profession was recognised by many participants, there is a need for new tools and approaches to help them survive and/or flourish. In addition, it is hoped that a body of knowledge will be developed which will give considerable insight into leadership and management practice within professional football that can also be shared among other disciplines, which will contribute further to the academic and practitioner literature.
- To present the results in greater detail; for example, the types of problems are facing, how these problems may be dealt with, and suggestions for further research and practical tools which may be required.

References

Value management in Russian sport organisations

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Aim
The study of core values in sport organisations is a very important field of analysis. The aim of this abstract is to report empirical findings and present the analyses of core personal values in Russian sport organisations. The objectives of the study were to: specify the core values of sport organisations using M. Rokeach’s questionnaires; determine the value parity between sport organisations’ management and personnel on the ground of comparative analysis of the managers and personnel responses; identify the working behavior stereotype in sport organisations; identify the specific character of value system and relationships in sport organisations through the comparative analysis in sport organisations, educational institutions and companies.

Theoretical background
Both Russian and foreign scholars examine the role of value parity as one of the most significant determinant of effective management (Rokeach, Garanina). The Russian sport system belongs to the state one. This fact has a great impact on the set of terminal and instrumental values, which determines the formation of a certain working behavior stereotype in sport companies. Thus suggests a functional stereotype of working behavior. For managers job performance and following for the instructions are the most important. In this regard, the nature of management in sport organisations is related to the concept of management by instructions. It stands to mention that such values as self-confidence and creativity are not shown in this study as core values. This situation characterizes the Russian sport organisations as having autocratic managerial style, one-man management and lack of staff involvement in managerial processes.

Methodology
For research and analysis different methods were used: interviews, questionnaires, comparative and statistical methods. In order to specify the human values of sport management and personnel in Russian sports organizations the survey of more than 100 St. Petersburg organizations was conducted. The study covered personnel of public and private sport organizations such as sport clubs (“Spartak” Moscow, “Dynamo” Moscow, “Zenit” St. Petersburg), schools of Olympic Reserve, Sport Dance Association, Billiard Association, St. Petersburg fitness clubs and centers (“Worldclass”, “Fitnessgroup”, “FitnessHaus”). In general 287 respondents were interviewed.

During the study presented below data were obtained.

Human values of sport managers:
- the highest importance (more than 70 points out of 100) take “discipline”, “loyalty” and “health”;
- high importance (from 50 to 70 points out of 100) take “professional skills”, “self-confidence” and “professional results”;
- low importance (less than 50 points out of 100) take “creativity”, “wealth” and “problem-solving skills”.

Thus suggests a functional stereotype of working behavior. For managers job performance and following for the instructions are the most important. This stands to mention that such values as self-confidence and creativity are not shown in this study as core values. This situation characterizes the Russian sport organisations as having autocratic managerial style, one-man management and lack of staff involvement in managerial processes.

Results
In summary, the comparative analysis of the core human values of management and personnel of Russian sport organisations demonstrated values parity violation and organizational values imbalance. Manager motivates personnel to perform functional duties and neither encourages their activism nor creativity. But for personnel in sport organisations the status, achievement and communication needs have the most relevance. As a result the study found interdependence between a level of sport managers’ professional preparation and mismatch of managers and personnel values. Knowledge and competences that can affect this contradiction is the subject of further consideration. We also plan to investigate the influence of other factors such as size of an organisation, type of entity, kind of sport and business, country, etc.
Another direction for further research is connected with the elaboration of recommendations for sport organisations and approbation of suggested guidelines.

References

Psychological contract fulfillment in youth coaches of the J League

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Aim
One of the pillars of success in the development of professional football in Japan has been the involvement of clubs with their local communities as well as the promotion of youth football (Light & Yasaki, 2002). Membership rules in the J League mandate that clubs in divisions J1 and J2 have youth teams within their structures. Within this scheme, the role played by youth coaches becomes undeniable as they are responsible to not only coach the future star players, but also and perhaps more critically, help to sustain the overall business of football as youth coaches are critical in engaging hometown communities and promoting the love for football within the younger generations. O’Connor and Bennie (2006) noted that youth coaches who are supported, valued, and rewarded for their efforts are less likely to withdraw from their jobs. Despite the critical role played by youth teams within the overall structure of the J League, no previous studies have examined the working conditions of youth football coaches. Moreover, no studies have examined the role of the psychological contract in these coaches. This study examines the extent of psychological contract fulfillment (PCF) on professional youth coaches working in the J League. The psychological contract at work posits that implicit exchange relationships exist between employers and employees in regards to belief of agreements made on each side (Rousseau, 1995). While the psychological contract is essentially subjective, its effects are real, and the breach can create adverse results for both the organization and their employees.

From a sample frame of 607 youth football coaches working in clubs affiliated with the J League, 200 of them responded to the questionnaire that addressed five dimensions of the PCF (Robinson & Morrison, 1995) over a series of work-related outcomes. Of the total responses, 152 (76%) were fully completed. Dimensions of the PCF included: transactional, relational, training, generic, and resource support. Work-related outcomes included: job satisfaction (Dunham & Smith, 1979), affective commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991), trust (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994), and turnover intention (Cohen, 1998). The factor structure of the PCF dimensions and four outcome variables was examined using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Results indicate that the proposed measurement model was an acceptable fit to the data (chi-square/df = 1.80, p < .01; CFI = .93; NNFI = .92; RMSEA = .07). All factor loadings exceeded .50 (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988) confirming convergent validity. Comparing the average variance extracted (AVE) value for each construct with the squared correlations between the respective constructs, none of the squared correlations exceeded the AVE values for the proposed constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Therefore, discriminant validity was indicated.

The effects of the PCF dimensions on employee-related outcomes were examined. A series of hierarchical regression analyses with three control variables (age, gender, and organizational tenure), five PCF dimensions, and four outcome variables (job satisfaction, affective commitment, trust, and turnover intention) were employed. In Model 1, age and organizational tenure had significant effects only on affective commitment (β = - .19, p < .05; β = .19, p < .05), and these control variables explained a small amount of variance in job satisfaction (R² = .02), affective commitment (R² = .06), trust (R² = .03), and turnover intention (R² = .01). In Model 2, relational contract had positive effects on job satisfaction (β = .46, p < .01), affective commitment (β = .35, p < .01), and trust (β = .47, p < .01) and a negative impact on turnover intention (β = -.38, p < .01). The dimension of generic contract also had a positive effect on trust (β = .36, p < .01). Conversely, the dimensions of transactional contract and training had adverse influences on trust (β = -.33, p < .01; β = -.28, p < .01) and turnover intention (β = -.27, p < .05). The inclusion of the five PCF dimensions significantly increased the variances in the dependent variables (job satisfaction, R² = .18, p < .01; affective commitment, R² = .18, p < .01; trust, R² = .27, p < .01, and turnover intention, R² = .14, p < .01), indicating that the outcome variables are primarily a function of the PCF dimensions, not the demographic characteristics of the respondents. Based on the measurement model implications were drawn concerning construct and predictive validity.

Results
Results of this study highlight the importance of the PCF in working relationships, particularly the role of the relational contract. In this study, the relational dimension showed a significant effect on all of the four employee-related outcomes. The importance of the relational contract suggests that youth coaches working at the J League not only care about their salaries, their promotion, and other material rewards (transactional dimension of PC) that they can get from their clubs, but also about the human side and the socio-emotional interactions they establish with their employers. This means that their job satisfaction, trust, commitment to their clubs, and their intention to stay in their current jobs is significantly explained by the quality of these socio-emotional relationships. Considering that youth coaches represent an important pillar within the J League, and that the majority of these coaches do not receive big salaries, one critical managerial implication would be to strengthen the quality of the working environment between coaches and club administrators. The ultimate goal would be to create enduring and trustful relationships to keep these coaches on the job.

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The impact of sports leadership training and engagement on youth development

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Abstract keywords  
Sports leadership; youth development, programme evaluation.

Aim of abstract/paper - research question  
The aim of this paper is to investigate the impact of two sports leadership programmes on youth development. It assesses what impact sports leadership training and engagement in delivering sport had on the leadership skills, effectiveness skills, self-efficacy and self-esteem of the young people involved.

Theoretical background or literature review*  
While volunteering in sport has become an increasingly important area of enquiry, little is known about the particular contribution sports leadership can make to youth development and helping young people make the transition from adolescence to adulthood (Ministry of Development, 2009). Young people are often portrayed as a public nuisance and a problem to be dealt with (Jones, 2009), however, those involved in youth development argue that youth leadership can be utilised as a tool to affect positive changes in local communities and society more broadly (Kress, 2006). Due to its appeal, sport has the capacity to attract young people into leadership roles and to provide opportunities for other young people to be engaged in what are considered positive and constructive activities.

Recognising the potential of leadership training to develop the personal skills of young people and for community development reasons, The Robertson Trust, in partnership with the Scottish Government, Youth Scotland and Sports Leaders UK, funded and supported two programmes that utilised a range of nationally recognised sports and dance leadership courses to train young people. Using the evaluation findings of these two programmes this presentation focuses on the impact of the programmes on the personal and social development of young leaders.

Methodology, research design and data analysis  
Quantitative and qualitative data were collected from c.400 course participants and other stakeholders across the two programmes. Most of the young people were physically active with some having previous experience leading sport and physical activities. Through the use of pre-course and 6-month follow-up surveys (paired data were obtained from a total of 74 young people), it was possible to assess the impact of the courses and leadership activities on the personal development of the course participants. Measures used in the surveys included eight effectiveness skills included in the Life Effectiveness Questionnaire (LEQ) (e.g. time management, self-confidence, task leadership), and measures of self-efficacy (General Self-Efficacy Scale) and global self-esteem (Rosenberg Scale). Interviews and group discussions explored the importance of the training to the young leaders and assessed the longer term-impacts of participants’ motivations and commitments.

The evaluation of one of the programmes is complete (‘Girls on the Move’ Programme), with the other (Sports Leaders UK Project in Scotland) in the latter stages of data collection and analysis and is due to be completed in the summer of 2012.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions**  
The findings demonstrate the sports leadership programmes challenged the young participants and impacted on their personal development. Positive changes were recorded in the young people’s effectiveness skills, self-efficacy and self-esteem, some of which were statistically significant. While these changes cannot be attributed to their leadership experiences alone (e.g. family, school, work and peer groups will all have impacted on the young people during this time) the findings support a position that sports leadership can contribute to key elements of youth development. While engagement in the courses showed positive outcomes, it was active engagement as a leader that contributed most to the young people’s self-concept. Increases in self-efficacy and self-esteem were greater in those that took on leadership roles. The leaders’ feelings of self-worth were enhanced by appreciation received from local sports managers and from the young people that took part in the activities they were delivering. In addition, the programmes influenced leaders’ decisions on future career options, with some electing to take part in training and education that will further develop their involvement as leaders in sport and dance.

Sports leadership opportunities have the potential to impact positively on young people, helping them develop the skills, attitudes, competencies and values that are considered important in helping young people make the transition from adolescence to adulthood. The findings demonstrate the value of youth leadership and provide a rationale for organisations and sport managers to introduce, or build on existing, youth leadership opportunities. However, sport managers need to ensure that opportunities are available for young leaders to practice their skills, as it is in the act of leading that the benefits for youth development are most pronounced.

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The relationship between human resource empowerment and organizational performance in municipal sport organizations

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Aim
The purpose of this study was to examine: (a) the extent to which human resource empowerment is applied to Greek Municipal sport organizations, and (b) the relationship between human resource empowerment used by Greek Municipal sport organizations and organizational performance (well executed budget, perceived service quality, participants’ satisfaction and employees’ satisfaction).

In particular, the questions this research wants to address are:
1. To what extent is the human resource empowerment process being used in Greek Municipal sport organizations?
2. Is there a relationship between the key factors of empowerment and performance of Greek Municipal sport organizations?

Theoretical background
The heightened levels of global competitiveness have alerted all organizations to the fact that all their resources must be utilized well. Nowadays, HRM has received great attention because of the recognition that much more could be gained from a better handling of this resource. Consequently, academicians and HRM professionals have begun to devote more attention in this field and have identified several human resource (HR) activities that are critical for the survival of the organization (Rangriz, 2010). In literature as well as in practice, human resource empowerment is most often considered to be a viable means to increase the effectiveness of an organization, as well as to improve the quality of working life for employees (Manz, 1992).

Methodology, research design and data analysis
Participants of the particular research project was a random sample of 91 managerial and technical directors of 6 Greek Municipal sport organizations in Attica. For the purpose of this study a survey instrument was used (developed by Vogt & Murrell, 1990), in order to provide information on how managerial and technical directors see themselves in terms of the empowerment process and demographic characteristics using a five point Likert scale. The scales represented three different managerial styles which were: (a) the “empowering style” of management, (b) the “middle-ground style” of management and (c) the “controlling style” of management. In the first case the director has a managerial style that reflects the director who creates and shares power. In the second case the director has a managerial style that combines the two styles of controlling and empowering in equal proportions, and in the third case, the director is concerned with control or seldom shares, creates or empowers subordinates. The reliability of the scale was found to be: α = .78. Also, the particular research used the subjective way of measuring performance. This means that managerial and technical directors were asked to evaluate the performance of their Municipal sport organizations in relation to their current years’ objectives, on a five-point Likert scale. Performance was judged against four criteria (well executed budget, perceived service quality, participants’ satisfaction and employees’ satisfaction). The study was a quantitative design. Descriptive statistics and Spearman correlation was performed to examine variables relationship using SPSS software (version 16).

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
From the analysis it is shown that the directors of Municipal sport organizations used 62.6% “empowering style” of management and 37.4% “middle-ground style” of management in the six key factors of human resource empowerment (Total of all Managerial functions). Also, there were significant relationships between the key factors of human resource empowerment and performance of Municipal sport organizations. More specifically, there was a significant and positive relationship between perceived service quality and the key factor of human resource empowerment: management information/communication system skills with a correlation of r = .216, df = 89, p = .040. Furthermore, there was a significant and positive relationship between participants’ satisfaction and the key factor of human resource empowerment: decision-making and action-taking skills with a correlation of r = .243, df = 89, p = .020. No significant relationships were found between the key factors of human resource empowerment and the other two performance criteria which were: well executed budget and employees’ satisfaction. The results of the study indicated that there were significant and positive relationships between human resource empowerment and performance of Municipal sport organizations. These findings are consistent with previous studies on human resource empowerment and organizational performance in sport sector (Papaioannou, Kriemadis, Alexopoulos, Vrondou, & Kartakoullis, 2009), and show that the level of empowering style which directors exercised in Municipal sport organizations is related to the organizations’ performance. The present findings add credence to the argument that today’s organizations need to provide better quality service in order to be more efficient and more profitable. Thus, it is essential the existence of an empowered and proactive workforce which is able to meet the requirements of business competitive strategy, so that organizational goals and missions will be met with success (Huang, 2001).
References

Tourism and Leisure Sport Management
Investigation and evaluation of sport tourist’s profile and main human needs

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Sports tourism is any type of sporting activity or athletic event in which someone either participates as an athlete, or as a passive spectator. The characteristics of sport tourists are: 1) the active / passive involvement in sporting activities, 2) Participation in casual or in organized activities, 3) experiences for non-commercial, or for business / commercial reasons, 4) recreational trips away from home and work. (Standeven, De Knop, 1999). Human needs, as portrayed in Mashlow’s hierarchy of needs fall into five basic categories, these being self-esteem; home and family; security; companionship; and care. The purpose of this study was to document the profile and the main human needs of sports tourists. The sample was comprised 352 sport tourists who had visited both Greece and Cyprus. To successfully carry out the survey, the Tourist Role Preference Scale (TRPS) questionnaire of Gibson and Yiannakis (2002) was used. The aforementioned questionnaire was translated into Greek by Yfantidou, Costa and Michalopoulou (2007) and was deemed valid and reliable. The questionnaires were answered before or after a race or workout. To analyse the test data, a reliability test was performed, as well as a descriptive analysis, a factor analysis, cross tabs and 2-way Anova regarding gender and age. The results showed that most were Greek men, aged between 17-39 years of age, graduates of higher education and OF full employment, with an annual income of € 20.000-60.000. On average, the main human need, presented by the largest percentage, which requires the most fulfilment is health and well-being and also the need for a high level of self-esteem. In the analysis of the main components, the total variance for human needs was 61.74%. The survey also considered the possible relationship between the factors in Maslow’s hierarchy needs. The inference was that only in the factor of social needs, was there a difference based on various age and gender. All other factors were the same for different ages and gender. Also, as far as the need for safety is concerned, a major statistical difference was observed between various age groups and genders. Finally, concerning the factor of need for motivation and exploration, the major statistical difference was observed between age groups. Throughout this study, it has been concluded that Maslow’s hierarchy of needs are indeed accurate. Sports tourists have presented the need for a high self-esteem, freedom, and creativity.

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Consuming indoor climbing: Principal results of a customer satisfaction study in a private artificial climbing centre in France

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Abstract keywords: Customer satisfaction study, Expectations, Indoor Climbing, Sociodemography

Aims
In the last decades, one of the main changes in the mass participation sports activities is the growth of indoor sports, especially due to a phenomenon of "indoorisation of outdoor sports" (Salome, 2010). The first and most important case of this artificialisation trend is the development of urban climbing walls, all-over the world and especially in France. Since the 1980s, indoor climbing has become a very popular activity and the number of artificial centres has considerably increased. A recent review counted more than 2,000 artificial climbing walls in France (Mao & Bourdeau, 2008). Most of them are public centres subsidized by local communities and managed by clubs and associations but private climbing centres have been recently expanding. Surprisingly, contrasting with the knowledge on other indoor activities such as fitness, there is no scientific study about who are indoor climbers, and what are they indeed doing. In this context, we have been commissioned by the management of the biggest French indoor climbing centre to conduct a sociological and marketing customer study. Based on the results of this survey, the purpose of this presentation is double. On the one hand, the description of this audience and this particular market will question certain consequences of the "indoorisation" of climbing. On the other hand, through the report of the methodology used, it will be possible to show the fruitful contributions of a socio-cultural approach for studying marketing problems.

Theoretical background
If the climbing population is hard to identify in general survey on sport activities (INSEP/MEOS 2010, MJS/INSEP 2000), some particular sociological studies analysed the motivations of climbers and the social composition of this group in specific field (licence-holders of sports federations, users of notorious sites: Fontainebleau, Chamonix…) In the continuity of Pociello (1995), they observed the link between social variables, social logics and style of practices and emphasized some traditional division of the social space of sports, showing that outdoor associative climbing appears as a relative elective activity (Corneloup, 2004; Lefèvre, 2004). Do the "indoorisation" and the commercialisation of climbing change the motivations and appreciation of this sport or the social aspects of this group?

Methodology and data analysis
This research is based on a socio-cultural approach focused on sociodemographic characteristics, sporting objectives of climbers, forms of their sporting practices, expectations and satisfaction on 25 attributes (primary and secondary services, service quality, atmosphere) in the observed indoor climbing centre. It is carried out mainly by questionnaires (n=921) but also by direct and participant observations, and by semi-structured interviews (n=15). The fieldwork began in September 2011 and the questionnaire has been completed in November 2011, using a census method during a complete week.

Classical descriptive univariate statistics and tabular analyses were used to describe the sociodemographic features of this sample. Furthermore, we propose here an innovative graphical display – called plotciello (based on Pociello's use of the concepts of cultural and economic capital) – that could be used to depict the influence of occupation on other variables (expectations, forms of practice). Finally, an underestimated multivariate technique, co-inertia analysis, allowed to study the relationship between sporting objectives and customer expectations.

Results
Despite a hypothesis that "indoorisation" could open the choices of actors, the results show that indoor climbing remains significantly influenced by social determination and still represents a distinctive practice: over-representation of men (66%, increasing with intensity of practice), of upper classes and much more of high educational level (55% of the active climbers have at least a Master degree)… If the majority of indoor climbers have indeed small or middle level of practice, we will measure and describe stylisation effect with the help of customer profiles related to these traditionally observed in outdoor climbing: the novicer-tourist, the hedonistic, the mountaineer and the performer-competitive. We will then expose how these characteristics are related to specific expectations about indoor climbing. It will be suggested that the commercialisation of climbing doesn’t mean a revolution in motivations still focused on a hard-core sportive demand (ex: quality, variety and renewal of the routes). To conclude, we will underline the practical applications of these pieces of information for the survey sponsor (ex: refocusing on the ordinary indoor climbers or the core expectations).

References
Participation constraints in ski: measurement model validation

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Aim of abstract/paper - research question
Sport Participation (SP) is one of the most studied subjects among the available leisure and sport literature. SP has been studied from different perspectives. In this context, constraints represent a large proportion of the adopted approaches. Although these have been indiscriminately adopted, constraints approaches are particularly relevant in studies that focus on the general population or in non participants samples. This wide range of works opens the door to the identification of the main constraints and consequent suggestion of possible propositions to facilitate the overcoming of these barriers.

The Spanish and Portuguese ski industries are at their early stages of development, due to the fact that these two countries are considered as popular tourism destination for mass summer vacation or as well known golf destinations. However, developments in the technology of the artificial snow production associated with the growing number of skiers, allowed the development of ski resorts in these countries. These ski centers could be the vehicle for economic development and prosperity for mountain areas, therefore contributing to the reduction of tourism seasonality, to the development of vast mountain areas and to the creation of employment, halting or slowing the migration flows.

Despite the existence of several studies about leisure constraints, the studies about SP in ski, among non participants, are still scarce. Therefore, the main goal of the current study is to explore the constraints related to recreational ski participation, using the hierarchical model initially proposed by Crawford & Godbey, (1987). More specifically, as part of the ongoing investigation, at this stage to test the factorial structure of the measurement model proposed by Gilbert & Hudson (2000).

Theoretical background or literature review
Crawford, et al., (1991) proposed that leisure constraints are categorized into three hierarchically organized levels: intrapersonal, interpersonal, and structural. This is the most widely accepted theoretical framework for leisure constraints. However, works about ski participation do not fully support this model. Gilbert & Hudson (2000) and Andronikidis, Vassiliadis, Priporas, & Kamenidou (2007) suggest the existence of two factors or constraints categories (intrapersonal and structural constraints).

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The questionnaire, proposed by Gilbert & Hudson (2000), was translated into Portuguese and pre-tested. The 30 items questionnaire contained an explanation of the study’s purpose, along with the statements on constraints, the instrument asked about skiing experience, likelihood of skiing in the future, and general demographics. An invitation to participate in the study was emailed to 1000 member of the local academia of a small city located in the north of Portugal. This community was chosen due to its closeness to seven ski resorts, at a range of 300 Km (6 in Spain and one in Portugal). Data was collected from September 2011 until June 2012 and, at the moment, 207 answers were received. In this sample, 53% are male, age ranges from 19 to 62 (M=30,2), 69% are single, and 18% reported previous ski/snowboard participation. Collected data was analyzed through factor analysis using maximum likelihood estimation and varimax rotation.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
Goodness of fit results did not confirm none of the previously mentioned models [χ²=1354(403df) p=0,000; CFI=0,582; RMSA=0,103]. Consequently, the relational structure of the variables was evaluated by an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). EFA validity was considered good [KMO=0,821] and revealed three factors. Two factors perfectly match the structure proposed by Crawford, et al. (1991) and Andronikidis, et al. (2007). These were labeled accordingly as “intrapersonal” and “structural”. The third and new factor (that represented four items, all of them related to price) was labeled as “price”.

Confirmatory factor analysis indicates that the Measurement Model (MM), in which all concepts are represented by four or more items, revealed itself as over-identified and displays acceptable goodness of fit values [χ²=165 (87df) p=0,000; CFI=0,93; RMSA=0,063].

Summing up, the analysis partially supports the works by Crawford, et al. (1991) and Andronikidis, et al. (2007), identifying intrapersonal and structural constraints. Our results differ from previous studies in the identification of the additional factor “price”. From our point of view, this can result from several context specificities. The absence of the interpersonal constraints may result from a collectivistic local culture as in the case of Portugal and other Latin countries (Iesusino, 2002). Lastly, constraints related to price may possibly result from the fact that 60% of the sample is a student. Another possible contributor for the price dimension is the present European economical context which, in the case of Portugal, has caused the decrease of the average family total income. These conclusions demand additional theory tests in order to verify these results and sustain upcoming research questions.

References


In awarding the 2018 and 2022 World Cups to Russia and Qatar, FIFA confirmed the long-held suspicion that host status of the greatest show on earth was no longer recognition for excellence and experience in staging a sporting event. Instead, it had come to assume something else: a largely undefined role as agent for wider socio-economic-cultural change within a host nation.

The 2018/2022 host decisions followed the pattern set by award of the 2010 finals to South Africa as well as a succession of development tournaments to territories as diverse as Nigeria, the UAE and Trinidad. FIFA’s boldness in awarding South Africa the World Cup has since been replicated by UEFA (Poland-Ukraine 2012) and, more particularly, the IOC (Sochi 2014, Rio de Janeiro 2016 over Chicago), which may even follow football’s governing body in handing Qatar hosting rights to its premium event, the 2020 Olympics.

By choosing Russia as 2018 host, FIFA overlooked the bids of established European football powers - England, Holland-Belgium and Spain-Portugal - that could deliver ‘safe’ tournaments that would utilize existing infrastructure, excellence in security, transport, transit, and reward vibrant and safe fan cultures. FIFA’s own inspectors highlighted as ‘high risk’ Russia’s air transport infrastructure and its inadequacy in dealing with the long distances between host cities. The endemic racism, hooliganism and match-fixing that blight the country’s domestic game were frequent targets for its bid rivals. Many of these criticisms have since been born out, with repeated instances of racism involving high-profile players, such as Roberto Carlos and Christopher Samba, while the country’s leading ice hockey team, Yaroslal Lokomotiv, was wiped out in a terrible air accident in September 2011.

Russia touted a different concept to their rivals in bidding for the tournament, seeking virtue in their status as a new World Cup territory and offering an ambitious domestic legacy focused on building new stadiums and extensive football and civil infrastructure. Its bid chief executive, Alexey Sorokin, was always open about the challenges facing Russian football. He said that Russia needed the World Cup in order to transform itself. “Right now we have come to the point where we are impeded by our own infrastructure and it needs to be modernized,” he told me in December 2009. “We think that if we have good stadiums, more people will come and there will be a better climate for matches. Our football will benefit better stadiums for sure.”

But if Russia’s election to host status was perplexing, FIFA’s decision to overlook football’s next superpower, the United States, in favour of Qatar was stunning. A tiny desert emirate with little discernable football heritage and sweltering summer temperatures its victory was greeted with a chorus of horror and shock. Brian Glanville described it as a ‘wretched little anonymity of a football country’ and the Australian broadcaster and FIFA ethics committee member Les Murray added that it was ‘ludicrous’. ‘FIFA is in big trouble,’ he warned. ‘Nobody will believe that Qatar won this process legitimately.’

In the period that has passed since Qatar’s win, many troubling questions have been asked about the nature of its victory. But the answers that are most conspicuous by their absence are those of the 14 FIFA Exco members and why they voted for Qatar ahead of the US, Australia, Japan and Korea.

This paper traces the evolution of the World Cup bid process from the 1966 FIFA Congress in London – which simultaneously made host announcements for the 1974, 1978, 1982 and 1986 finals – to its most recent, dual process. It questions what the World Cup has come to mean as an event and the point at which the football element became a secondary consideration for FIFA. It assess the lack of guidance from the FIFA administration about what should be demanded from a host nation, and the lack of transparency from those who are supposed to make that decision. Crucially, as FIFA returns to a broader electorate for future host decisions, it asks whether, in a competitive bidding environment, the World Cup will ever again be a reward for excellence, rather than merely a catalyst to achieve it.
Does soft power matter in hosting global sporting events?: The case of the Olympic Games bids, 1990-2011

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Soft power, a term initially coined by Joseph Nye, is the ability of a country to exert its influence on the actions of another through non-military means such as persuasion or attraction, rather than coercion (Nye, 1990). Nye (2004) has envisioned a country’s soft power, as opposed to its hard power (i.e. military and economic power), to be a new rule of the game in international politics after the demise of the Cold War. However, specifically, does a country’s soft power matter in hosting global sporting events? This paper aims to address this research question by statistically estimating soft power’s impact on the result of the host city selection in the Olympic Games bids.

There might be several hypotheses explaining the IOC’s voting behavior with regard to preference for soft power of a country. The idea of the Olympic movement, i.e. “Olympism” could influence the IOC’s preference for a country, observing the universal values such as humane ethics, environmental efforts and a certain philosophy of sport. For example, principles for Olympic governance contain transparency, democracy, accountability, autonomy and social responsibility (Chappelet, 2008a). In a soft power context, good image or reputation of a country could attract and persuade the IOC into being in favor of the country. Regarding ecological concerns, in 1994, the IOC adopted the environment as the ‘third pillar’ of the Olympic ideology and, five years later, an Agenda 21 for the Olympic Movement, that is, a series of sustainable development principles (Chappelet, 2008b). Based on the theoretical and historical background as discussed above, the main hypothesis of the paper is constructed as follows:

Given a country’s hard power, its soft power can affect the result of bidding for the Olympic Games.

The proposed econometric model is articulated below:

\[
\text{Host Success}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Transparency}_i + \beta_2 \text{CO2Emissions}_i + \beta_3 \text{Particulate Emissions}_i + \beta_4 \text{Sporting Superiority}_i + \beta_5 \text{GDP}_i + \beta_6 \text{GDP Growth}_i + \beta_7 \text{Military Expenditure}_i + \beta_8 \text{Continental Rotation}_i + \epsilon_i
\]

where \(i\) denotes each bidding country for \(t\) which is the number of year when the IOC’s voting for the host country took place. The dependent variable, the IOC’s preference for the desirable candidate, is measured by Host Success which represents the IOC’s final decision of the host sites and IOC Ranks which stands for the IOC’s ranking of the bidding countries in the year \(t\). The explanatory variables related to soft power are defined in ethical, environmental and sporting dimensions: Transparency is measured by the Corruption Perceptions Index produced by Transparency International. In order to measure environmental sustainability, CO2 and Particulate Emissions are collected from the World Development Indicators of the World Bank. Sporting Superiority represents each country’s sporting power, counting the number of gold medals won in the last Summer and Winter Olympic Games. As control variables, the models include hard power factors comprising GDP, GDP Growth and Military Expenditure as well as Continental Rotation which is a dummy variable assigning a value of 1 if a bidding country is located on the same continent as the host country of the preceding Summer and Winter Olympics, 0 if not. The data set is constructed from all bidding countries for the Olympic Summer and Winter Games in the post-cold war era (between 1990 and 2011). The data grouped by overall and each seasonal model are regressed respectively by panel data estimation methods using both fixed-effects and random-effects models. To choose a data-corresponding model from the two, the Hausman (1978) specification test is performed.

The empirical results suggest higher sporting superiority and ethical transparency, and lower CO2 and particulate emissions are likely to increase the probability of the successful bids. These results lead to several implications regarding soft power’s impact on the Olympic host city choice. Firstly, higher national Olympics records, which means, for instance, world-popular sports stars who have won gold medals in the Games, could attract the IOC members and influence their decision-making concerning the host country. Secondly, a country’s ethical reputation is likely to persuade the IOC to choose it as the rightful host country. Thirdly, environmental efforts of a country could also be appreciated as a desirable value by the IOC preferring an ecological legacy of the Olympic Games.

References
Olympics and FIFA world cup sponsors’ social responsibility: relationship between corporate and sports environment

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Aim
This research aims to discuss the relationship of the sponsors for the Olympic Games and FIFA World Cup with the social responsibility of all stakeholders: enterprises, IOC and FIFA, trying to understand whether there is synergy between FIFA, IOC and their sponsors and whether these companies communicate their social responsibility associated with the message of sport, football and olympism.

Theoretical background
There is a similarity of Olympic ideals with the issues of social responsibility because it evokes concepts like education, society and peace (Chappelet, 2009, p. 17). Sport offers a link with social and economic concepts. It is like an opportunity to improve life quality of people and a motivation for big companies to share a little bit of their profits (Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). Sport can be considered an important vehicle for companies to implement social responsibility for the community, facilitating and focusing its activities to cover more people, and provide significant visibility for its brands (Westerbeek & Smith, 2007; Godfrey, 2009; Walters, 2009).

To some extent, sport is an important powerful to better expose the actions of corporate social responsibility. When sports and social responsibility are together, the positive impact for businesses tends to be magnified.

In the corporate environment, one of the most important parameters used to measure the social responsibility performance is based on GRI Guidelines. The GRI Guidelines (2011) lends itself to guide and analyze the way in which organizations express their social responsibility through the Social Report and/or Company’s Annual Report. A CSR report can be delivered in several formats: printed or displayed on the Internet, separate or combined with the Annual Report or Financial Report, featuring six dimensions linked to social responsibility: (1) Economic; (2) Environment; (3) Social – linked with Labor Practices and Decent Work; (4) Human Rights; (5) Society; and (6) Product Responsibility.

The approach of the Corporate Social Responsibility with sport is related with the improvement of enterprises brand image (Walker & Kent, 2009). So, Westerbeek & Smith (2007) propose seven unique features of sport’s social responsibility: (1) media distribution and power, (2) approach with young people, (3) positive impact on health, (4) social interaction, (5) awareness of sustainability, (6) integration and cultural awareness among people, (7) immediate gratification of their benefits.

These connections between sport and corporate social responsibility can bring positive benefits for both companies and for sport. Companies may be associated with a cultural manifestation of great appeal and, therefore, with great visibility for their brands. Sport’s organizations may be able to develop and implement more broadly integrating its mission in society.

Methodology
The seven unique features of sport’s social responsibility (Westerbeek & Smith, 2007) may be “the heart” of this study, that elaborated a cross comparative analysis of these interpretations upon the Social Report and/or Annual Report of the sponsors of these two mega-events in order to identify similarities and convergences between them. It means that the seven features of Westerbeek & Smith (2007) was the main reference to make a qualitative analysis of the actions and programs from sponsors before their investment on Olympic Games and/or World Cup FIFA, with a vision on sport behavior and, in a parallel review, “The GRI Guidelines”, that is one of the most respected parameter from corporate social responsibility valuation, was used to interpret social actions and programs from companies.

So, the qualitative analysis take the issues of Westerbeek & Smith seven unique features associated with GRI Guidelines, creating five categories of review: (1) economic and sport issue – the interest of companies to position themselves through sports market; (2) environment and sport issue – relationship of companies with actions or projects of FIFA or the IOC linked to concerns about the environment; (3) social and sport issue – related with labor practices and encouragement to employees to have an approach to the sport; (4) human rights and sport issue – social actions to benefit society with sport message; (5) products development and sport issue – to develop products and services that meet sustainability criteria and contribute to the practice and/or promotion of sport.

Results
The large majority of the investigated companies not detail or present clear projects on their Annual Report and/or Social Report that show the relationship between social responsibility with sport. When they present, the companies do not exploit the fullest understanding of the potential that sport has for social development linked to the FIFA World Cup or Olympics and their positive intrinsic message.

The human rights and sport issue was the most cited by companies in their reports. 68% of the companies mentioned projects or actions related to benefit the society through...
sport. Despite this, only 18% of the companies signaled that have some projects or actions related with environment and sport issue, showing a significant gap to explore in the relation between corporative world and sport’s organizations.

The other issues analyzed feature the low affinity of FIFA World Cup and Olympics sponsors to the sport social responsibility: only 27% of enterprises mentioned some relation with economic and sport issue; 36% presented actions or projects related with social and sport issue; and just 32% of companies bring out worry about products development and sport issue.

There are therefore significant repercussions, not part of corporate strategy to communicate on the adoption of social responsibility. It is followed to some extent, the main initiatives promoted by FIFA or the IOC, followed by shy works of their own initiative. It was finally assumed that there is a lack of indicators able to address the two issues together, making it difficult to find differentiations from other actions of corporate social responsibility.

We suggest for others study in this line to conduct longitudinal studies on the bias on the social responsibility linked to the sport for the identification of changes and different approaches over time, gradually forming indicators for measuring performance of organizations in this area of research.

References

Leveraging the 2012 London Olympic and Paralympic Games for organisational capacity building: the case of the UK national governing bodies of sport

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Leveraging mega sporting events for capacity building has been enjoying a growing academic interest. National Governing Bodies of sport (NGB) play a multifaceted and crucial role in the delivery of a successful Olympic Games. NGBs are also central to the governance of sport in each country as they constitute the backbone of National Olympic Committees who are responsible for entering athletes in the Games. Increasingly, NGBs have been under pressure to modernise and become more professionalised through building their organisational capacities (Houlihan and Green, 2009, UK Sport, 2003). In the context of the UK sport system, NGBs have a wider sports development role to grow and sustain participation in their sport and to deliver a community sport participation legacy that draws on the inspirational effect of the London Games.

Between 2009 and 2013 Sport England invests £4.50 million through 46 NGBs to deliver its strategy Growth, Sustain, Excel. Further £3 million are distributed for improving their governance and £1.6 million for coaching development. In relation to London 2012, in 2007 UK Sport established ‘Mission 2012’, which focuses on the performance of Olympic sport NGBs in three dimensions: athlete (e.g., athletes’ performances, development, health and well-being); system (e.g., staff, structures, facilities and processes); and climate (e.g., culture, feel and day-to-day operation of the training environment).

However, very little is known about how the host NGBs has been using the Olympics to build their organisational capacities. Mega sporting events present NGBs with unique opportunities to capitalise on their symbolic and material powers. Strengthening the work of NGBs is of strategic importance as they have been entrusted with managing significant public funds and with providing services to a vast network of sport clubs, members and millions of participants.

Aim
To establish how NGBs have utilized the 2012 Games for capacity development by strengthening a range of core capabilities in an interconnected and holistic manner and who were the main beneficiaries.

Theoretical background
This study defines organisational capacity as an emergent combination of attributes, assets, capabilities and relationships that enable a NGB and its members to perform, develop and self-renew. It builds on the work of Walters (2007) and MacKinsey (2001) and studies seven core aspects of organisational capacity including:

i. Organisational skills development (i.e. the capability to act)
ii. Organisational structure development (i.e. the capability to adapt, self-renew and relate)
iii. Systems and infrastructure building (i.e. the capability to generate development results)
iv. Knowledge creation (i.e. the capability to adapt, self-renew and relate)
v. Human resources development (i.e. the capability to act)
vi. Governance (i.e. the capability to achieve coherence)
vii. Aspirations creation (i.e. the capability to generate development results)

Method
Following the conceptualisation of organisational capacity, 43 item online survey with 54 Sport England funded and other organisations of Olympic, Paralympic and non-Olympic sports was carried out. In total, 25 sports on the Games programme and 14 non-Olympic sports, including 3 Winter Olympic and one disability sports, responded. The survey is being complemented by three in-depth case studies the results of which will be reported at EASM.

Results
The link between the Olympic Games and NGBs is not straightforward because of different sports’ histories, size, turnover, organisational structure, clubs network and contribution to the Games. NGBs differ markedly in their approach to leveraging the Games. Eighteen out of 25 Olympic NGBs saw this as a central part of their overall sport strategy. No NGB of non-Olympic sport considered this to be a strategic issue and only three NGBs have taken a more holistic view of the Olympic Games by incorporating their potential into organisations’ Whole Sport Plans. The rest of the NGBs have been using mainly single programmes and initiatives to engage with the Olympic Games on a more tactical basis. Although involvement in any programme is better than non-involvement, a fragmented approach limits the possibilities for organisational capacity building. A better understanding of how to leverage mega events such as the Olympic Games will allow sport managers to successfully plan and implement coherent strategies for organisational capacity building.

References
Political support for the 2016 Summer Olympic Games in Rio de Janeiro

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Aim
The objective of the current research is to explore and describe relationships among evaluations of the work of the organizers, perceptions of legacy, and political support to host the 2016 Olympic Games (OG) in Rio. Specifically for this paper, Brazilian politicians will be surveyed. However, this research is part of a larger investigation where different strata of Brazilian population were/will be surveyed. In a previous stage, Brazilian students were surveyed. In the final stage of this investigation, the author intends to survey a random sample of Rio’s population.

Theoretical background
Sport governing bodies responsible for sport mega-events usually look for strong popular and political support before granting countries/cities the right to host (Preuss, 2004). Sport mega-event organizers have to know not only the level of support, but also the reasons for such support (Ritchie et al., 2009). Two sociological theories could explain the reasons why people support sport mega-events in their regions. Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960) proposes that individuals interact with other individuals (or organizations, Levine & White, 1961) because they expect to receive some benefits from this relationship. Theory of social representation (Moscovici, 1981) suggests that individuals create representations about everything based on the interaction between received information from outside means (e.g., media) and their own values. Based on social exchange theory, perceptions of legacy should affect support for the event. Based on social representation theory, evaluations of the work of the organizers (government and organizing committees) should also affect support.

Methodology
Considering the population of interest, political affiliation (right-wing vs. left-wing parties) of the respondent will be considered as a control variable. Questionnaires will be sent to all Brazilian national congressmen (n=513) and senators (n=80), Rio state representatives (n=70), and Rio city councilors (n=50), to get information from three different political levels – country, state, and city. Data collection will happen during April/May 2012.

Scales of this study were previously submitted to a panel of experts for content validity analysis. Evaluation of the work of the organizers is a second-order latent variable, represented by five first-order variables (facilities, transports, communication, security, and personnel), and three manifest variables each. Perception of legacy is a second-order latent variable, represented by seven first-order manifest variables (economic, tourism, environmental, infrastructural, social, cultural, and psychological legacy) and four manifest variables each. Support is a first-order latent variable represented by three items. All items have the response format of a 7-point Likert scale. Data will be analyzed using Anderson and Gerbing’s (1988) two step approach. Three structural models (fully mediated, partially mediated, and direct effects models) will be compared using SEM technique via Mplus.

Results
Results of this second stage (sample of politicians) will be compared to the results of the first stage of the investigation for the oral presentation. In the first stage (sample of 446 students), measurement model showed good fit indices (CFI = .948; TLI = .940; RMSEA = .059). All scales presented good internal consistency (Cronbach’s alpha varying from .717 to .908). All models had similar fit indices. The total variance explained in the dependent variable in the fully mediated model (R² = 44%) was larger than that explained in the partially mediated (R² = 41%) and in the direct effects (R² = 44%) models. Descriptive statistics showed that Brazilians students (a) do not strongly support the country to host the Olympic games (M = 4.8; SD= 1.7), (b) do not believe the organizers have done a great job (means varying from 3.6 to 4.4), and (c) do not have a highly positive legacy expectation (means varying from 3.1 to 5.2).

From a theoretical point of view, the current investigation extended the literature by examining the mediational role of perception of legacy between evaluation of the organizers and intention to support a mega-event. Legacy is a far distant expectation of reality. People might use tangible clues (such as the work done so far) to express support. From a practical point of view, many important aspects, such as budgeting for construction of venues and infrastructure improvement, recruitment of volunteers, and people displacement, depend on support of politicians and society as a whole. Therefore, knowing the level of support from different strata of the hosting society in advance can help organizers to manage this support while preparing to host the event.

References
A lasting legacy or a sporting failure? The legacy of stadiums after a major international sporting event

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Aim of abstract/paper - research question

Previous research has shown that several major sporting events do generate revenue in the area(s) in which they are staged, but they also result in major costs for the host cities and countries and the public expenditure on sports facilities for major events rarely creates a stimulus and/or a net impact on the overall economy. But do the new stadiums result in a lasting sports legacy?

Since major international sporting events have evolved over the last two decades to become more globalised, commercialised and commoditised, these events are now no longer only a matter for Western countries. Several countries and cities around the globe are applying to host a major event in the hope of getting economic, political and social benefits. But instead of examining such effects, we turn our focus to whether there is an existing internal sports legacy and a local sporting need for a brand new stadium.

Do stadiums get utilised after the event and is there a need for international sports federations to improve stadium requirements for major events?

The aim of this study is to examine whether stadiums built for a major international or continental sporting event are utilised after the event and to what extent. It is crucial and of interest to obtain this knowledge as billions of public funds is spent on these events and stadiums, but we are not certain whether the invested money is well spent or results in positive sports legacy.

Theoretical background

Several scholars have been studying the stadium phenomenon and the legacy of major sporting events in terms of economic effects, among them John Siegfried and Andrew Zimbalist, who find that public subsidies for sports facilities do not result in an economic boost or lead to a more vibrant local economy (Siegfried & Zimbalist 2007: 420-427). Victor Matheson states that public expenditures on sports-related construction or operation have, at best, zero net impact on local economies and that the investment on sports projects results, at worst, in true costs (Andreff & Szymanski 2006: 138), while Harry Arne Solberg and Holger Preuss have showed that major sporting events do generate revenue, but only revenue that covers the operating costs and not the investment costs (Solberg & Preuss 2007: 217). The sport legacies have, however, not been examined or discussed by way of attendance to the same extent as in relation to economic issues and there is therefore a need for an additional perspective. This paper will contribute to the legacy and stadium discussion.

Methodology

The Danish Institute for Sports Studies/Play the Game used an index to study the extent to which stadiums built for major international sporting events are utilised. ‘The World Stadium Index’, which is based on the relation between attendance figures and the stadium’s capacity, has made it possible visualise the utilisation of stadiums and look beyond construction costs when comparing stadiums. Based on major international and continental sporting events such as the Olympics, Football World Cup and European Football Championship, 75 stadiums in 24 countries were included in the study. After the initial desk research, a questionnaire with questions mainly concerning attendance figures and numbers of events held after the major event was sent out to stadium owners and operators. Due to a low response rate (18.6%), qualitative questions and external sources were included in addition to the quantitative questionnaire.

Results, discussion and conclusions

The results of the study show that numerous stadiums have had major legacy problems after hosting a major international or continental sporting event. Several stadiums have had poor attendance figures resulting in a low index and external needs and requirements, which are temporary, are often prioritised over local sporting needs. There is an obvious need for a revision of stadium requirements in relation to hosting a major event. The international sports federations have to decrease stadium capacity requirements and be more observant of legacy issues when awarding a country and city an event. Due to present stadium requirements, only a few countries have the ability to host an event without making substantial investments in sports facilities, and it is neither sustainable from a sports nor an economic point of view for cities to have empty stadiums. It must be in the interest of both international sports federations and host countries and cities to create a lasting sports legacy.

References

A step out of the shadow of men’s football? Early findings on the event tourism at the FIFA Women’s World Cup 2011

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Abstract keywords
Women’s football, major sport events, event tourism, FIFA Women’s World Cup, consumer behaviour, economic impact

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
Given the demand uncertainty [4] in the run-up to the 2011 FIFA Women’s World Cup (WWC) in Germany, both the attendance in the stadia of over 845,000 and the worldwide TV viewership of nearly 250 million have to be seen as a success [2, 3]. As a result, the Local Organising Committee (LOC) generated a respectable surplus before taxes of 10.6 million Euros [1]. Actually, the considerable media coverage at moderate public expenditures for WWC stadia suggests a high efficiency of the event in terms of place marketing. However and above all, the question for the host cities is raised to what extent the event tourism at the WWC contributed to a tangible impact on the local economy. Therefore measuring key indicators of the event tourism at the WWC 2011 is the major aim of this study reporting early findings of the comprehensive data analysis.

Theoretical background or literature review
There is no economic literature yet on the WWC. But many major sport events have been investigated in diverse respects on their economic impacts. Those approaches – in particular, from comparable events and/or in similar structural environments – can be applied of course. Especially, Preuß, Kurscheidt and Schütte [5] did a relevant in-depth study on the FIFA Men’s World Cup 2006 in Germany.

Relying on earlier work, the authors argued that, first, the overall attendance has to be differentiated in residents and incoming visitors from outside the analysed hosting region and particularly from abroad. The event-related spending of both visitor groups represents an influx of purchasing power while the consumption of residents might have largely happened in the local economy anyway (substitution effect). Moreover, the visiting intention and traveling behaviour are decisive since only the very event-induced money flows are attributable in a proper economic impact study. That is, just those visitors who would not have come to the host region had the event not taken place are “event visitors” in a narrow sense.

Second, the spending patterns of the different visitor groups have to be measured with regard to the size of the incoming funds. Yet, this theoretical requirement for an accurate estimation of the primary impulse of visitors’ consumption is often problematic in practice. The authors however provided a tested survey instrument producing sufficiently reliable outcomes.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The outlined approach to an economic evaluation of the event tourism requires direct surveying of event visitors to distinguish the travel intention and behaviour as well as the spending patterns. Since the distribution of these characteristics in the population is unknown, the suitable procedure is a multi-step cluster sampling using a priori information, among other things, on the 9 WWC hosting venues, to avoid cluster biases. A large sample of sensibly distributed clusters, then, is an approximation of a representative sample. Using a modified version of the four-page questionnaire of Preuß et al. (paper-pencil, assisted self-administered), local clusters in the surroundings of the stadia and on the so-called “Fanfests” (fan sites with large screens) were randomly interviewed (currently: N=7,867 from 28 clusters with N=281 on average from Berlin, Bochum, Frankfurt/M, Leverkusen and Mönchengladbach, 55.4% of which were stadium visitors and 44.6% “Fanfest” visitors; further 10 clusters from Augsburg, Dresden and Sinsheim are to be included).

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
First, the preliminary results confirm the anecdotal evidence of an unusual football spectatorship. 20% of the ticket holders benefitted from free tickets and only 64% bought their tickets at regular outlets. This reflects the generous discount policy of the LOC as one instrument to solve the strategic conflict between financial security (budget constraints) and promotion goals (demand stimulation, media impact). Likewise the much lesser “euphoria effect” compared to the Men’s World Cup 2006 is evidenced by the fact that 42.6% of the event visitors just went to the stadia and ignored the “Fanfests”. On the other hand, the ratios of over 6.5% of foreign visitors and roughly 20% of visitors from outside of the Federal State of the match venue is fairly comparable to earlier men’s team sport world cups in Germany (e.g., handball and ice hockey). The same applies to the average spending of about 150 Euros per person and match visit.

Overall, it can be concluded that the audience at women’s football events is still particular and special efforts have to be made to attract substantial crowds. But once that goal is achieved, the consumption impact is comparable to men’s sports which suggests a considerable economic potential of hosting major women’s sports events.

References

Psychic income and social capital among residents: a pre-post exploratory analysis of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa

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Purpose
Researchers have noted a heightened sense of excitement from hosting mega sport events (i.e., psychic income) among residents of host nations (Burgan & Mules, 1992). However, the idea that psychic income translates into longer-term benefits, such as increased social capital (Misener & Mason, 2006), has not been tested. This study investigated the change in psychic income and social capital among South African residents prior to and after the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Two research questions were posed: (1a) did psychic income differ pre- and post-WC; (1b) were there differences by gender, age, and race; (2a) did social capital differ pre- and post-WC; (2b) were there differences gender, age, and race?

Literature review
Ritchie (1984) identified several social impacts associated with hosting events including increased community spirit and pride. Kim and Patrick (2005) found that the social benefits of hosting the 2002 FIFA World Cup were highest among women and older residents. However, while continued support for the existence of psychic income exists (e.g., Gursoy et al., 2011), questions still linger regarding the long-term influence of specific social legacies (e.g., Smith, 2009). One direction for social legacy research may be the translation of psychic income into social capital (Misener & Mason, 2006). Putnam’s (2000) ideas about building social networks, trust, reciprocity and civic engagement through community participation provides the conceptual support for such a link. This idea is especially germane to the South African context, since an important goal for hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup was nation building (Van Der Mierwe, 2007).

Method
A one group-pretest-post-test pre-experimental trend design (Gursoy et al., 2011) was employed to examine resident perceptions of psychic income and social capital in five of the nine host cities, three months prior and eight months post-event. Respondents were selected using systematic random sampling in high traffic city areas. The questionnaire contained four measures of psychic income (Fredline, 2006), five dimensions of social capital (Onyx & Bullen, 2000), and demographics. Data were analyzed using frequencies, ANOVA, MANOVA, and MANCOVA. The pre-event n=1,749 and post-event n=2,020 samples were demographically comparable. Pre-event: mean age 29.7 years; 58% male and 42% female; 82% Black and 10% White. Postevent: mean age 30.1 years; 55% male and 45% female; 79% Black and 12% White.

Results
Before the WC, psychic income was high: increased community spirit (M=4.11/5.00), increased national pride and patriotism (M=4.08/5.00), feeling good about self and community (M=4.18/5.00), and bringing people together in celebration (M=4.31/5.00). The four items were aggregated (α = .79) and a one-way ANOVA revealed that psychic income significantly increased post WC (F=2.89.4 p<.001). Examining the effect of demographics on psychic income (i.e., with pre and postevent as the covariate), the overall MANCOVA model test was significant (F=1.56, p<.001, η=1%). Univariate tests revealed that residents differed on gender (F=1. 91, p<.05, η= 9%), race (F=2.16, p<.05, η=1% and age (F=1.82, p<.05, η=8%). However, the effect sizes are small (Cohen, 1988). For social capital, the MANOVA revealed an overall significant change in social capital pre and post the WC (F=31.38, p<.001, η=5%). The effect size for this change was small. Univariate tests revealed that the social capital dimensions of Collective Action (F=139.75, p<.001, η=3%), Social Connections (F=43.69, p<.001, η=1%), Tolerance of Diversity (F=17.34, p<.001, η=5%) significantly decreased post WC; and no significant change was found for Trust and Safety (F=1.10, p=.29) or Value of Life (F=1.16, p=.28). When social capital was examined by demographics (i.e., with prepost as the covariate), the overall MANCOVA model was significant (F=28.51, p<.05, η=5%). Univariate tests revealed racial differences for all social capital dimensions with Black South Africans reporting the highest means.

Discussion
Psychic income was high before the WC (Burgan & Mules, 1992). Interestingly, eight months following the event, psychic income had increased somewhat counter to warnings about postevent “let-down” (Ritchie, 1999). Regarding social capital, levels changed, but not always in the desired direction with some dimensions decreasing. Also notably, Black South Africans tended to perceive higher levels of social capital than other racial groups. Perceptions about social connections, tolerances of diversity and collective action decreased, while trust and safety and value of life remained constant. Perhaps Black South Africans have a closer connection to football than rugby or cricket the sports of previous world cups hosted by South Africa (Van Der Mierwe, 2007). Although, with moderately high means and low effect sizes, the practical value of these differences should be viewed cautiously. Overall, while the event raised psychic income, the long-term contribution of improved social capital appears negligible. Perhaps this is another case of not leveraging the WC for longer-term social benefits (Chalip, 2006). Alternatively, perhaps the excitement generated by these events lasts longer than generally thought and it is psychic income that needs to be harnessed for longer term benefits for the host country.
A Football Club’s Regional Economic Impact Depending on the League

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Theoretical background
Corresponding to the research on sporting mega-events (e.g., Preuß, 1999; Brill et al., 2002; Ruetter/Popp/Busin, 2008; Preuß et al., 2010) a model had been developed for calculating the exogenous impact of a club on a region of interest (e.g. a city or state). This exogenous shock would not be generated for the region if the club did not exist or not compete at this particular league. Based on Keynesian theory, the actual impact of the football club was measured by considering all relevant financial flows into and also out of the region(s) which have to be attributed to the club being a Bundesliga-participant. The two main contributors to the impact are spectator spending at home and away matches and the financial flows (revenues and spending) of the club itself.

Methodology
To capture spectator spending, a paper and pencil questionnaire based on ones used at many other spectator events (e.g., Preuß, 1999; Preuß et al., 2010) had been adapted and used in 2009. Based on the knowledge gained then, this questionnaire was again refined and used during four home matches at Kaiserslautern in April and May 2011. A total of 1,664 questionnaires could be used for the analysis of spectator spending during home and away games.

Furthermore, the club’s cash flows were analysed concerning their primary economic impact on the two regions at hand. Thus, the accounting department of the 1. FC Kaiserslautern was instructed to “regionalize” the club’s cash flows concerning their respective origins (in the case of monetary flows into the club) and their destinations (in the case of monetary flows out of the club).

When calculating the total primary impact of the club on a particular region, it was important to avoid double counting. If, for instance, the club receives money from ticketing or merchandise, it has to be taken into account that these revenues are also part of the consumption pattern of the spectators and only have to be considered for either the club or the spectators.

When calculating the impact on the city and on the state, two distinct calculations were necessary.

Results and implications
The calculation of the primary impact of the club’s participation in the First Bundesliga during the 2010/11 season will be finished during June, since some of the accounting and ticketing data could not be provided in time for the deadline of this abstract. Consequently, the total calculation will be finished in July 2012. This enables a comparison with the impact calculated for the 2009/10 season and will provide insights on the importance of the league as a whole.

Generally, it has to be pointed out that the primary economic impact calculated here does not consider any indirect, induced, or intangible effects. These effects could not be calculated due to lack of data. As a result and also due to the conservative approach applied, the real economic impact of the club was most likely (much) greater than will be pointed out here, which is true for both, the period in the First as well as the Second Bundesliga.

References (max. 5)
Economic importance of sport-related household consumption for Germany

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Abstract
Economic importance of sport; Sport consumption;

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
What is the overall consumption of German households over one year for active sport participation and for the consumption on just being interested in sport?

Theoretical background or literature review*
Sport is everywhere in our life and it is not only lifestyle and fun. Sport also creates jobs, GDP and a significant turnover. In general, politicians accept that sport contributes to the overall welfare and economic development of a country. However, this fact is generally not based on grounded evidence. In Germany, the last serious overall scientific evaluation of the economic importance was in 2000 (Meyer & Ahlert, 2000; Weber et al., 1995). During the past ten years media interest in sport changed and professionalization of sport increased. The overall change towards a leisure-centred society has become visible and demographic changes have developed – all of this calls for a new evaluation on today’s importance of sport for Germany. However, this research can be of basic interest for many other European nations. The EU “white book” on sport claims evidence based political decision making and wants a satellite account sport in each member nation (Commission of the European Communities, 2007).

This study is based on consumption theory and consumer behaviour.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
In 2009, n=7,031 persons were interviewed using CATI (Computer Assisted Telephone Interviews) based on the Rösch telephone sample system in order to secure a representative and randomized selection of citizens in Germany. The interview intended to determine the quantitative number of persons in Germany towards their sport consumption behaviour to participate in sport and to just consume sport passively. After the evaluation of the quantities, we conducted in 2010 10,500 CAWI (Computer Assisted Web Interview) (randomized selection from a panel-provider representing Germanys consumers). These interviews intended to identify the consumption pattern behind a particular sport. Overall 71 different sports were analysed and by multiplication of the quantity with the consumption pattern we were able to determine the consumption of German households within the economy in 2010. We worked with two models to reduce the risk of misinterpretations, a “conservative model” and a “realistic model”.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
The German households spent in 2010 for active sport participation 83.4 bill. € (conservative model) / 112.6 bill. € (realistic model). The sport interested persons spent another 18.9 bill € (conservative model) / 26 billion € (realistic model). For the presentation at the conference, further and more detailed results will be provided. The expenditures on the different sports will be shown, split up into categories. Beyond that, an analysis of the socio-demographics of the respective target groups will also be presented.

References
A study of sustainable indicators for sports mega-events in Taiwan

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Over the last 10 years, Taiwan has won the right to host mega sports events such as the 2009 World Games, the 2009 Dearlympics, and the 2017 Universiade. Notwithstanding these achievements, the potentially huge impacts in terms of the sustainable development of not only the host city, but also the entire country, have been neglected. This study therefore aims to establish indicators of sustainability for the hosting of mega sports events in Taiwan with a view to assessing the evaluation of future events and policymaking. Although the increasing need for studies of sustainable mega sport events is widely recognized (Griffin, 2009; Ma et al., 2011; The University of British Columbia, 2009), to date no empirical study has focused on the sustainability issues to assess the extent to which staging such events impacts Taiwan’s sustainable development. Sustainability is defined by the Brundtland Commission as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.” In terms of its application in sports megaevent research, sustainability entails the management of the economic, social, and environmental impacts and the leveraging of benefits to ensure the games leave positive legacies for the host destinations. The International Olympic Committee has acknowledged the importance of sustainable development and social responsibility by initiating the Olympic Games Impact program (study) [OGI] to measure the global impact of the Olympic Games. It aims to assist host cities to identify potential legacies and to maximize the Games’ benefits and minimize negative impacts. This has meant that the sustainability issue is increasingly becoming the core of mega events in terms of planning and research. However, there are some challenges to the OGI approach. First, there is no precise way of determining the total number of indicators to be included in each assessment stage and from case to case (e.g., Vancouver 2010 and London 2012). It is also difficult to decide whether the 120 defined indicators of OGI amount to a one-size-fits-all solution. This concern is addressed here to reflect the fact that the establishment of OGI indicators is entirely based on the experiences of previous and current host cities (i.e., Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games, London 2012 Olympic Games), which are highly developed and mature destinations. However, the development stages of a country or city have been neglected, which might create difficulties with respect to the collection of data that are sufficiently consistent and comprehensive. Ideally, data should be collected annually and then compiled adequately to ensure its ready accessibility. However, in many instances this is not the case. Consequently, there is a risk that indicators pertaining to the problem will be omitted and that a comparison between different host cities might not come to fruition. Therefore, in addition to the OGI, much attention will need to be paid to the development of local indicators to provide baselines throughout the pre-, during, and post-Games periods. Given the gaps that can be identified in research and in practice, this study will address the need to establish sustainability indicators for the specific evaluation of mega sports events in Taiwan. The preliminary selected indicators will be established by referring to the relevant literature and the OGI technical manual (obtained from the IOC Research Center). The study aims to (1) establish indicators and an assessment methodology that can be applied to the sustainability of mega sports events in Taiwan and to (2) facilitate a more strategic approach to the sustainable development of the host destination through the events. The intention is for the sustainability indicators to assist the evaluation before, during, and after the sports events.

The research methods in this study are a literature review, the Delphi Technique, and the Analytical Hierarchy Process [Saaty, 1977]. A literature review (e.g., OGI, Olympic Movement’s Agenda 21, and Taiwan Agenda 21) will identify the preliminary criteria indicators (30 indicators) (i.e., environmental, social, and economic sustainability indicators) and build a hierarchical structure. The AHP method will be applied to the design of the questionnaire and the examination of the relative weights of the indicators. The Delphi technique will be applied to reach consensus and to determine the sustainable indicators for mega sports events in Taiwan. The method is composed of sequential questionnaires that will be answered anonymously by a panel of experts in relevant areas. Participants in the Delphi study will not directly interact, to avoid situations where senior individuals might dominate panel members. The data will be processed using Microsoft Excel 2010 and Power Choice 2.0. The findings should assist the cross-validation of investigations of different sports events in Taiwan and around the world (e.g., 2010 Olympics and Paralympics Winter Games; 2012 London Olympic Games) and facilitate the development of a future assessment system to formulate sustainable development strategies for the hosting of mega sports events in Taiwan.

References

Host Residents’ Reactions to the Staging of the Tour de Taiwan 2012: Comparisons of Pre- and Postevent

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The establishment of effective strategies to assess community impacts has become important because many cities are now reliant on the hosting of major events to catalyze their redevelopment (Ma et al., 2006). This article uses the Tour de Taiwan (TDT) cycle race as an example of how major sporting events are staged to generate publicity and destination branding. It is noted how a cycle race may have only a minimal impact on the host area due to a time limitation effect on its daily operations (Balduck, Maes, & Buelens, 2011), whereas another study (Othmann, Jones and Wilkes, 2006) has highlighted a need for impact studies at a variety of events and locations to identify patterns and trends. A well-known major sporting event, the Tour de France (TDF), has received much attention in the literature (Balduck et al., 2011; Bull & Lovell, 2007; Smith, 2009). In contrast, no empirical studies have attempted to situate the TDT in the Asian context (Taiwan). This article therefore investigates impact issues by using a logistic regression technique to examine the before and after periods of the TDT. First, the framework developed by Ma et al. (2011) is adopted to provide a benchmark to compare different sporting events in Taiwan. Second, the TDF and the TDT are compared to identify strategies for the long-term management of future events. Reference is also made to how the Tour de Taiwan differs from events such as the Olympics and the World Games because it does not leave a physical legacy of benefit to the host residents once the event is over. Noteworthy in this context is how mega sports events have negative side effects (increased garbage on the streets, congestion, disruption of community life, etc.) that can influence residents’ attitudes toward other sporting events. The Tour de Taiwan is described in these terms, even though it is not on the same scale as the Olympic Games, owing to disruptions such as road closures. The uniqueness of cycle racing highlights a need for this study to contribute a better understanding of a sporting event—the Tour de Taiwan—that does not feature in the literature. Established in 1978, the TDT has been part of the Union Cycliste Internationale (UCI) Asia Tour since 2005, and was classed 2.1 for the first time in 2012. It is also integrated with the Taipei Cycle Show, which has been organized by the Taiwan External Trade Development Council since 2006. In 2012, the event consisted of 7 separate stages, and covered approximately 870 km of closed public roads, with 19 teams and 95 riders competing from 22 countries. The total cost of hosting the Tour de Taiwan in 2012 is approximately USD$2.7 million.

Data was collected from the host communities of three selected stages (i.e., Taipei City, Changhua County, and Kaohsiung City) located close to either the start or the finish lines of the TDT. The selected three stages were located in northern, central, and southern Taiwan, which is good geographical coverage. Five hundred face-to-face questionnaires were conducted either on the date of, or after the events, and 482 usable questionnaires were obtained from each survey. The tool for data collection was composed of 23 Likert-type items based on the Verified Tourism Impact Attitude Scale (VTIAS) developed by Ma et al. (2011), as well as previous studies of the impacts of events (Lankford & Howard, 1994; Shultis, Johnson, & Twynam, 1996, Twynam & Johnston, 2004). A number of questions deemed essential were included: sources of information about the Tour de Taiwan, level of interest in event, plan to watch the event, and attend the event. A series of statistical techniques were used (an exploratory factor analysis, and a reliability analysis) to test and refine the VTIAS. A repeated measure MANOVA was performed to examine any changes in the host residents’ perceptions of the impact of the event. Logistic regression was used to assess the relationship between the residents’ willingness to support the staging of the TDT, the impact factors, event-related behavior, and socio-demographic variables. Exploratory factor analysis revealed four impact factors. A repeated measure MANOVA indicated a significant change in residents’ perceptions over time [F (4, 235) = 3.69, p< .01; Wilk’s lambda= .94, partial eta squared= .06]. The results of logistic regression showed that the impact factor “general perceptions” and the event-related behaviors (“level of interest in the event”, and “attend the event”) were significant predictors of residents’ willingness to support the hosting of the TDT. Overall, our research findings are similar to previous studies of the TDF (Balduck et al., 2011; Bull, & Lovell, 2007), which have suggested that residents anticipated or perceived more temporary and intangible (e.g., promoting tourism, cultural interest, etc.) than tangible benefits (e.g., full-time jobs provided). Clearly, the main objective of this kind of major sporting event, both TDT and TDF, is to promote the host destination to the world. However, there is no research to date that reveals the extent to which this has been translated into long-term economic returns. As this type of major sporting event can leave a very limited physical legacy to the host destinations, the host residents certainly will anticipate something more directly related to their daily lives in the future. What event organizers and managers therefore need in the future is a general strategy that encompasses more than the scope of the event and destination branding, by generating long-lasting legacies such as a local volunteering system, the integration of smaller affiliated events into a combined event to leverage benefits internationally, and so forth. The scope of the study is productive because its results may have practical import for the greater success of future events.

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References

Sport fans
What brings people into the stadium?
A cross cultural comparison between Portugal and Belgium about the motives that influence the attendance to soccer games

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Aim
The main objective of this research is to find out what brings people into the stadium of the main soccer club in the city where they live, by exploring various aspects of the consumer decision-making process. We want to investigate the relative weight of multiple predictors of live attendance, including team identification (TI), place/stadium attachment (PA), sportscape, socio-psychological factors, economical factors, club’s marketing decisions, duration of involvement with the club as a fan, sex, sports participation, and residence.

Theoretical background
Wann and Branscombe (1993) refer to the concept of TI as the extent to which a fan feels psychologically connected, is involved with and has invested in the team and sees the team as an extension of the self. The authors elaborated a scale to study TI, the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS). TI and attendance have been found to be positively and strongly correlated.

PA refers to the emotional, functional and symbolic relationships that individuals create with a particular recreational setting (Williams & Vaske, 2003). Carvalho and colleagues (2011) were the first to use the concept of PA in professional team sports.

Findings from Hill and Green (2000) show that stadium factors (i.e., the sportscape) can enhance the likelihood that supporters of the home team will attend future games. Fink and Parker also studied the socio-psychological motives to attend games of other teams than the favourite (2009), and found that socialization (related with being with family and friends at the stadium), physical skill (related to the performance of the players and teams), and drama, were rated the highest in both game types (favourite teams or not).

The following hypotheses are being tested:
- H1 – Fans and non-fans attendance’s major predictor is socialization;
- H2 – Compared with local club’s fans, non-fans and fans of other teams’ attendance is more influenced by a) sportscape factors, b) entertainment and c) marketing strategies, like promotions or special prices;
- H3 – Compared with highly identified fans, the lowly identified fans’ attendance is more influenced by a) sportscape factors and b) entertainment;
- H4 – Compared with fans with a higher PA, the attendance of the fans with a lower PA is more influenced by sportscape.

Methodology
To compare motives that influence live soccer attendance in Portugal and Belgium, two similar cities were selected: Aveiro and Leuven, respectively. These are university cities of intermediate dimension (78000 and 97000 inhabitants) with one medium level soccer club playing in the first league. Participants in this study are 2 last years’ high school students (16-18 years old) from both public and private schools with scientific and technical education. In this manner, the sample is constituted by the same kind of population in both cities and, therefore, they can be compared.

A 20minutes on-line survey was conducted. Fans and non-fans were addressed at the schools, with a brief explanation about the content of the study and a request to fill it out voluntarily during their free time. As an extra motivation, a lottery of a prize was announced.

The questionnaire is constituted by three parts: the first part examines the person as a soccer fan (or not), containing consumption behavior items, the SSIS, PA (Carvalho, 2011) and socio-psychological items; the second part investigates, using a likert-scale, the reasons of the respondents to attend to games of SC Beira-Mar or Oud-Heverlee Leuven, whether they are fans or not of that club – sportscape perception (i.e. stadium aesthetics, crowding, parking, accessibility, hygiene, quality of food and drinks), game and management related issues, marketing actions and economical factors; the third part consists of socio-demographic questions (sex: age, sex, residence).

Descriptive and multilevel analyse will be carried out using SPSS19.

Results
Data is being collected. A minimum of 300 respondents in each city are expected. Further conclusions will be presented.

References


Factors influencing stadium attendance in Norwegian football

Introduction
This paper aims to analyse factors that influence the stadium attendance in the Norwegian elite football league in the period 2005 - 2011.

Analysis of demand for professional team sports has a long tradition in sports economics. In their overview, Borland and Macdonald (2003) divide variables investigated from previous studies into the categories consumer preferences, economic factors, quality of viewing, factors related to the sporting contest, and supply capacity. Several studies have investigated to what degree football fans prefer watching the match on TV instead of attending the stadium. Baimbridge, Cameron, and Dawson (1996) document some reduction in attendance in cases when matches are shown on TV. This applies particularly to midweek matches. Garcia and Rodrigues (2002) find a significant reduction in spectator attendance in televised matches in Spain, with a more pronounced effect for matches shown on free-to-air. Additionally, Forest and Simmons (2006) show that televised matches from UEFA’s Champions League had a negative effect on concurrent matches in division level three and four in English Football. Further, Allan and Roy (2008) document a reduction by 30% among pay-at-the-gate home team supporters in the Scottish Premier League when matches were broadcasted live.

The analysis is based on three OLS-regressions on the attendance for the Norwegian elite football league (currently called the Tippeliga after its main sponsor) for the period 2005 to 2011. In addition to investigating all teams, we also conducted a specific regression for the historically dominating team Rosenborg because of their special situation, and a regression only involving teams with less than four seasons in the elite league. The dependent variable is the number of tickets sold at the matches.

Stadium attendance involves potential substitution effects in case the match was shown on free-to-air TV. Because Norwegian football fans have traditionally been very interested in English football, a substitution effect might also appear from TV matches from the English Premier League (these matches were only shown on pay TV). Additionally, we investigate variables such as quality (in this context the ranking of the two teams prior to the match), the geographical distance between the teams and matches between historical rivals. Furthermore, preferences for specific days and/or periods of the year are also analysed. This involve May 16 (the day before the Constitution Day), which in Norway has been “the day of football” comparable to Boxing Day in England. Finally, we analyse whether Rosenborg attracts more spectators as an away team compared to other teams. Rosenborg has been the most successful team over the last 25 years, including a period with regular participation in UEFA’s Champions League.

Results
The higher the teams were ranked on the league table before the game, the more attendance the match attracted, a correlation that both applied to the home team and away team. These results support the significant attractiveness of sporting success. If the geographical distance between the two teams was less than 120 km, this had a positive effect. Matches between historical rivals also attracted more attendance.

Surprisingly, matches shown on free-to-air TV had higher attendance than those on pay TV or those that were not on TV. This pattern particularly applied to the home matches of teams with less than four seasons in the elite league. The only team loosing spectators when their home matches were shown on free-to-air TV was Rosenborg. No such effects (either ways) were registered for the majority of teams that had been in the elite league for four seasons or more. Live matches on TV from the English Premier League did not affect attendance in Norwegian elite football.

All teams experienced significantly higher attendance on matches that were played on May 16. Sunday is the regular day for elite football matches in Norway. The majority of teams experienced lower attendance on Monday matches. As for other days, some clubs attracted more spectators on Saturdays, while other had the opposite experience. Some clubs experienced lower attendance in March/November than in other months, but this was not a general pattern. The regressions confirmed Rosenborg’s special popularity as the away team.

References
Predictors of team identification in Belgian and Portuguese soccer fans

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Keywords
Soccer fans, Team identification, Predictors, Belgium, Portugal, Socio-psychological factors, Socialization agents

Theoretical background
Team identification is defined as the psychological connection a fan feels to a team (Wann & Branscombe, 1993), and has its foundations in the Social Identity Theory (Haslam, 2004; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Being a sport fan is considered to be a part of an individual’s identity and being a fan of a particular team is an extension of his own identity. SIT states that people identify themselves with a successful group to increase their self-esteem. They need a way of positive distinctiveness in their life (Haslam, 2004). On the basis of this identification concept, sport marketers and social scientists are able to predict whether or not individuals attend games. Although the major part of the investigations treated team identification as a predictor of sport consumption behavior, some researchers recently became interested in which motives determine the identification level of sport fans (Wann, Tucker, & Schrader, 1996). This field still remains quite limited, but we build on existing work by giving a succinct overview of what is known so far about which factors have an influence on team identification.

Wann et al. (1996) reported over 40 different reasons to identify with a team. Three of them, namely the team’s success, geographical concerns and group affiliation (i.e. attending games to spend time with friends) were designated the most. Besides, socialization agents like parents, peers and friends seem to have a strong influence on the individual’s team identification level (Melnick & Wann, 2011).

Methodology
We created a validated online questionnaire in Dutch and in Portuguese. Items emerge to draft a profile of the person as a soccer fan. Loyalty related questions, as well as a version of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (Wann & Branscombe, 1993) were incorporated, mostly using a Likert scale or an opened-ended question. Socio-demographical information (sex, age, residence, education, sports participation, and others) was also collected. The target population consisted of pupils attending the last two years of high school at public and private schools in and around the cities of Leuven (Belgium) and Aveiro (Portugal). We selected these two cities, because they have a lot in common. More specifically, Leuven and Aveiro share approximately the same amount of inhabitants (97,000 and 78,000 respectively), and their main soccer clubs (i.e. OHLeuven and SC Beira-Mar in Aveiro) usually end on an average position of the first league ranking in their respective countries. Sixteen- to eighteen-year-olds were addressed, because they are approaching an independent living in this stage of their life. In that respect, this study is able to compare and provide insights in the psychology of the main future soccer fan.

The following hypotheses are being investigated:

- H1: The longer someone is a fan of a particular team, the higher his/her team identification level will be;
- H2: The team’s success, in order to increase someone’s self-esteem, will be the strongest predictor for team identification both in Belgium and Portugal;
- H3: The father will be designated more than any other socialization agent to become a fan of a particular soccer team; moreover, the individual’s team identification level will be higher in this case;

Descriptive and inductive statistics (regression analyses, separately for Belgium and Portugal) will be applied using SPSS19.

Results
Results are not yet available at this moment. Around 450 respondents have filled out the questionnaire so far. At least 300 respondents are being expected for each city. Further analyses and conclusions will be elaborated.

References

Sports fans’ psychological ownership: the team as a cultural institution

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Key words
Sports fan, psychological ownership, fan-identity, an anthropological perspective, the meaning transfer model, in-depth interview

Aim of paper
Drawing from an anthropological perspective, the purpose of this paper is to illustrate fans’ psychological ownership of sports teams. Fans have been viewed as customers from exchange relationship viewpoints or members of a team from social psychological viewpoints. However, we also propose that fans see their teams as valued possessions as actually they say, “It’s my team!” Effectively a sports team becomes culturally shared with fans and fan-identity is shaped within relationships to a team. Thus unlike the extant psychological concepts applied to fandom, psychological ownership enables the shape of fan-identity to be addressed within cultural framework and we introduce an ownership viewpoint. This paper investigates the nexus between spectatorship as a set of cultural practices and the team as an ‘owned’ cultural institution.

Theoretical background
Psychological ownership is that state in which individuals feel as though the target of ownership or a piece of it is ‘theirs’ (Pierce, Kostova & Dirks, 2001, p. 299). Presumably sports fans hold their possessive feelings to a team and this allows them to establish reciprocal relationships to it. Sports fans seem to experience cultural consumption and then such experience is gradually accumulated as individual memories (Fay, 2006). Through such consumption practices, a sports team becomes a part of fans’-selves (Belk, 1988). Thus ownership is a way in which sports fans shape their fan-identity, besides the membership viewpoint.

Facilitators of psychological ownership are cultural meanings relevant to a sports team. McCracken (1986) illuminates that how cultural meanings transfer to material possessions. Adapting the meaning transfer model, meanings relevant to a team transfer through four phases. First, meanings relevant to a sports team exist in a cultural framework and we introduce an ownership viewpoint. This paper investigates the nexus between spectatorship as a set of cultural practices and the team as an ‘owned’ cultural institution.

Methodology
In-depth interviews were conducted with 16 Japanese sports fans categorized into two groups, supporters (n=9) and members of organized groups (n=7). Interviewees were purposefully selected based on two criteria. First they were season ticket holders for the 2011 season (one interviewee did not purchase a season ticket but he purchased every game ticket in advance). Second, regarding members of organized groups, interviewees were leaders or vice of their groups or recommended members by leaders, because we anticipated that such interviewees would clearly answer our research questions as not only individual opinions but also group opinions. The interview protocol was semi-structured, following the two research questions. The team investigated in this study was Sagan-Tosu located on Tosu city and the team is a professional soccer team was in the division 2 (J2) of the Japanese professional soccer league. The data were analysed, referring to Derbaix and Decrop’s (2011) study.

Findings and Conclusion
RQ1: Cultural and individual meanings were transferred to the team brands such as players and colours. Locality and individual memories with their families or friends were particularly prominent meanings transferring to team brands.

RQ2: Spectator sports rituals were undertaken differently in the each category. Almost all interviewees of the supporters category eagerly activated their fan-identity, wearing replicas in the stadium or decorating replicas and towel-scarves in his room, that is, they were willing to connect marketised meanings. In contrast, members of organised groups created their original T-shirts to differentiate them from other ordinary spectators. Because they dedicatedly cheered up aloud in the stadium, they refused to be seen as a part of ordinary supporters. Taking advantage of meanings embedded in the team brands, they manipulated such meanings to express their distinctiveness.

Compared to existing research, emphasis of this study on sports fans’ psychological ownership allows us to introduce an anthropological perspective to sport marketing and to gain two particular understandings of fans. First, this study illuminates how meanings relevant to a team are contained in a team’s brands and its brands are valued for fans. The second understanding is that fans individually interpret meaningful values of a team’s brands and attempt to connect meanings, through the undertaking of diverse rituals.

References


Fay, M. (2006). My Special Possessions that I don’t own (and one we had that was stolen from us). In M. Layton, R. Layton,
Exploring the stability of sport team brand associations

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Aim

This research aims to add to sport team brand association knowledge by assessing the stability of the associations linked to a new professional sport team.

Literature review

Brand associations represent anything linked to a brand in the mind of a consumer (Aaker, 1991). Associations form a key component to customer-based brand equity and overall brand perceptions (Gladden & Funk, 2002). Therefore, marketers should be aware of brand association perceptions and how these may be impacted by environmental factors. Sport team brand associations represent the attributes and benefits linked to a team, and can be used to understand attitudinal outcomes provided by team support (Gladden & Funk, 2002). To date, sport team brand association research has focused on determining the range of associations linked to teams (Gladden & Funk, 2001, Ross, James, & Vargas, 2006), with no work yet evaluating the stability or fluidity of associations. Given the sport product is intangible and unpredictable, team brand associations would likely be fluid and constantly reassessed. This research aims to add to team brand association knowledge by assessing the stability of associations linked to a new sport team, determining how quickly durable associations may take to form.

Method and analysis

Longitudinal quantitative data were gathered from fans of a new professional sport team located in Australia. Three online surveys tested the stability of brand associations linked to the team. The first survey was administered in October 2010 and collected data prior to the team’s inaugural season. The second survey collected data six months later (April 2011), after the team had played three matches, all heavy losses. A third survey gathered information in April 2012, prior to the upcoming season. A total of 96 fans were matched across all three surveys, forming our sample. Eleven single-item Likert scale measures taken from the most cited team brand association scale (Gladden & Funk, 2001) were evaluated. Items represented the associations; Head Coach, Logo, Management, Peer Group Pressure, Pride in Place, Product Delivery, Stadium, Star Players, Success, Coach, Logo, Management, Peer Group Pressure, Success, Escape and Fan Identification. Tradition and Nostalgia were not measured due to the team being a new entity. Paired-samples t-tests were chosen to determine if any of the associations reported significant mean score changes across measurement points.

Results

Paired-samples t-tests revealed four brand association mean scores were significantly different (p < .05) from October 2010 to April 2012, with seven remaining stable between measurements. Those that did not change significantly were; Head Coach, Escape, Peer Group Acceptance, Pride in Place, Star Players, Success and Fan Identification. Of the associations that did change significantly, Logo (M=4.98; M=5.52), Product Delivery (M=4.76; M=5.38) and Stadium (M=5.16; M=5.93) reported increases. Management (M=5.51; M=5.18) reported a reduced mean score. Analyses including the April 2011 data suggested the associations displayed more volatility between the October 2010 and April 2011 measurements (four significant differences) and between the April 2011 and April 2012 measurements (seven significant differences).

Discussion

This study explored the stability of brand associations linked to sport teams and how these may change based on consumer experiences with the team. Such experiential factors include any new information the consumer links to the team. Despite temporal fluctuations, team associations displayed a pattern of stability across the long term suggesting consumers develop established association perceptions quickly. The long term reduction in Management can be explained by dealings with player indiscretions. The associations Logo, Stadium and Product Delivery likely increased given the greater opportunities to attend live team games, interact with other fans, and the team’s attractive style of play (Gladden & Funk, 2001). As indicated above, associations were fluid and influenced by experiential factors during the season (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000), however not all associations changed and over the long term most remained stable.

Implications

Sport marketers can use this information to understand their brands, and how perceptions may change over time. Though brand association perceptions may fluctuate temporarily, this study suggests initial impressions are important and durable over time. Thus, teams should focus early marketing efforts to highlight the positive characteristics of all associations and build a strong brand image as early as possible. Failure to do so may result in a poorly viewed brand, which may be hard to salvage. Results should be treated as exploratory given the small mean score changes reported and short assessment period. Future research should observe the associations over a longer period of time to account for a greater range of experiential factors.

References

Profiling visitors of non-hallmark events: three stages of the 2012 Giro d’Italia in Denmark

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Aim and research question
Sport events might act as a catalyst for regional economies (Wilson, 2006) but not always and not with the same significance in all settings. Research related to (sport) event impact studies has increased noticeably in recent years (Getz 2008). However, the vast majority of literature refer to major (hallmark) events, particularly taking place outside Europe and dealing with Olympic Games, the FIFA World Cup, and the Commonwealth Games. Small-scale or medium-scale sport events – which will be named as non-hallmark events in the following – are still underrepresented within the existing literature (see, for example, Wilson, 2006).

Using the first three stages of the Giro d’Italia 2012, which took place in Denmark (Herning and Horsens) between May 5 and 7, 2012, this paper examines different aspects of the economic impact generated by the non-hallmark sport events. We address three questions: (a) what is the composition of event-affected persons at the non-hallmark sport events? (b) what are the consumption patterns of the sport event visitors? and (c) what are the changes in the residents’ consumption caused by the event? Therefore, particular emphasis will be placed on the socioeconomic composition of spectators and consumption patterns associated with different spectator profiles. The Giro d’Italia case has been chosen because: (a) it is the first time ever that this race took place in Scandinavia; (b) it is one of the three Grand Tours attracting enormous fan attention; (c) it represents a non-ticketed, open access event.

In doing so, this project tries to partly fill the identified research gaps and to contribute to a better understanding of the many dimensions of non-hallmark sport events’ economic impact on host regions. The results are of importance since reliable estimates of the economic impact of sport events facilitate more effective sport event management and political decision making. Furthermore, better knowledge about sport event visitors of small-scale, open access events allows improved event management and marketing activities.

Theoretical background and literature review
The project builds on Crompton’s (1995) pioneer works as well as their further extension carried out by Preuß (2005, 2007). This framework has been chosen due to its theoretical consistency and previous successful empirical examination with respect to mega-sporting events. Essentially, this framework theoretically defines which behavior of residents and people from outside the region will cause crowding-out, re-distribution, and deterrence effects and it can be used as a guideline for constructing a theory based survey in order to obtain data necessary for further consistent exploration (Preuß, 2007).

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The empirical analysis is based on the collection of primary data. Therefore, a questionnaire has been developed to assess – among others – visitors by: (1) the intention of their visit; (2) the length of stay; (3) their expenses pertaining to the event; (4) their geographical profile; (5) their other tourist activities within Denmark if they are non-locals; (6) their further socio-demographic characteristics (age, gender, origin, education, income, marital status, etc.). The questionnaire is based on the Paper-and-Pencil Interview (PAPI) technique and has a classical structure including (mostly) closed-end questions (#21). Subsequently, exploratory data analysis techniques are employed using a variety of data mining techniques like multiple regression analysis and principal component analysis. The multiple regression analysis provides a comprehensive understanding of relations between several independent variables built upon socioeconomic characteristics and/or event affected persons’ typology and one dependent variable – consumption pattern. The principal component analyses will promote reducing the dimensionality of a dataset consisting of a large number of interrelated variables, while retaining as much of the variation present in the data set as possible. Consequently, the statistical elaboration uncovers existing patterns within the collected data sets.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
The research project is currently ongoing and will be finished in early August. The data collection took place in May 2012. The project will present a relevant input to a number of ongoing debates in terms of the management of non-hallmark sports events. Undoubtedly, many of the results from this project will be of analytical and general character for the management of sports events.

References
A validation of female sport spectator behavior scale

Authors: Chih-Pin Shih, Yu-Lin Lee & Ying-Lien Ni

Background and Literature
Gender stratification of paternal society has long been a common phenomenon in sport culture. Male had also been considered the majority of sport event spectators in the past (Dietz-Uhler, Harrick, End, & Jacquemotte, 2000; Gantz & Wenner, 1995). However, recent researches showed that the number of female sport spectators is on the rise year after year (Shih, 2007; Peng, 2008; McCarthy, 2001; Yerak, 2000). It seems that the growth tends to replace male sport spectators and the female become the main audiences of sport events. It is also discovered from the literature that different genders resulted in different sport event spectator behaviors (Wann, 1995; Hsu, 2003; Li, 2005). Female sport spectator behavior, nevertheless, has not been thoroughly discussed in both local and overseas studies. Neither has the female sport spectator behavior scale been developed so far.

Purpose
From this perspective, the importance of an in-depth study is evident. The study selected Taiwan female sport spectators as the subjects to construct key indexes of female sport spectator behavior and to verify the stability. In the meantime, Laten Growth Curve Model (LGC) was employed to evaluate female sport spectator behavior.

Method
Delphi method was adopted to construct key indexes of female sport spectator behavior. The Chinese Professional Baseball League (CPBL) which began in 1990 is the first professional sport in Taiwan and now female has become the main part of spectators. Thus, on-site female spectators of CPBL regular season in 2011 were the subjects of this study, random sampling being conducted at three different time periods (May, July & September). 1,216 valid samples (419, 378, 419, respectively) were collected and analyzed. LGC Modeling was employed to follow and evaluate female sport spectator behavior.

Results
Findings were as follows: 1. According to literature analysis and the results of Delphi, there were seven key factors of female sport spectator motivation, which were game content, self-realization, personal financial background, social facilitation, emotional connection, aesthetic and pressure relief. Sport spectator identification included team identification, sport item identification and player identification. 2. In terms of sport spectator motivation, the female emphasized self-realization and social facilitation the most; on the part of sport spectator identification, team identification was the most. The highest frequency of watching was 1-2 games monthly (67.7%); daily discussion of professional baseball was within 30 minutes (54.2%), which was the highest among all; 56.6% of the female spectators cared about professional sport; 68.2% of the female spectators liked professional sport; most female spectators did not participate fans clubs of teams or players, 75.6% and 88.2% respectively. 3. Differentiation exited in sport spectator motivation and sport spectator identification among female spectators with different background variables. 4. The scale has been verified for three times. The results showed that the six factors of female spectator motivation-game content, self-realization, personal financial background, emotional connection, social facilitation and pressure relief were stable and fit while aesthetic was deleted owing to its instability. In terms of the female sport spectator identification, three factors-team identification, player identification and sport item identification were found stable and fit. 5. Based on the analysis of LGC Modeling in terms of female sport spectator motivation and sport spectator identification, the validation of the model was fit. However, negative growth (Slop = -.07) were shown in female sport spectator motivation at different time points; female sport spectator identification showed the negative growth (Slope = -.08) as well. It suggested that female spectators were declining regarding sport spectator motivation and spectator identification.

Conclusion
To sum up, since researches about developing scales of female sport spectator behavior and long-term follow-up studies can now rarely be found in both local and overseas studies, it is essential to work on this issue continuously in the future. It will help to thoroughly understand the characteristics of different sport spectator groups and changes in sport spectator behaviors. Hopefully effective strategy will be drawn up accordingly.
Relationship between spectator’s motivations and satisfaction in sporting events at Hochiminh City

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1. Aim of paper - research question.
Managing sporting events has become big business in the world sports and events scene as well as in Vietnam nowadays. The economic and social benefits to the community arising from these events can be significant, with the 1992 Barcelona Olympics being an obvious (Burton, 2003). However, the special characteristics of these events can produce problems for the understanding of spectator’s motivations when they participate in the event. The general research s were 1) to measure current situations of spectators’ demographics, 2) to study motivations and satisfaction of spectators at these sporting events, and (3) to determine relationships between the spectator’s motivations and satisfaction. Base on the above research questions, the hypotheses of this study was defined that motivation is positively related to spectators’ satisfaction.

2. Methodology, research design and data analysis.
Subjects were 2,000 spectators who approached to participate in the study. The selection of the participants was based on a continuum consisting of five kinds of sporting events such as the Vietnamese Football League, Division-1 Football Championship, the Tabletennis International Cup, the Vietnamese Taekwondo Open Cup and the World Vovinam Championship at Ho Chi Minh city, with 400 questionnaires for each kind of sport event in order to examine the motivations of spectators. The instrument in this study was the questionnaire which measured demographics, motivations which revised from Fan Motivation Scale (Al-Thibiti, 2004), expenditures and satisfaction. The data analysis in the study included a factor analysis, internal consistency reliability method, descriptive statistics, t-test, one way ANOVA and path analysis (SEM) for the research questions.

3. Results and conclusions.
The results of this study were summarized as follow:
1. After collecting data, there were 1,896 useful feedbacks (the rate of response was 90.3%). In these responses, the majority group was male which occupied 72.4% and almost a half of participants aged from 18 to 25 years old. Around two-thirds of spectators were still single, and approximately a half of participants have received the first degree already. In addition, around 75% of them had the monthly income lower $US 300, while there was 16% of participants who earned monthly income from $US 300 to $US 500. Finally, the largest group of occupation was the self-employed (23.7%).

About the frequency of the participation’s level in sport events, the biggest group was “Moderate participant” (44.9%), the second group was “Frequent participant” (30.4%) and the smallest group was “Infrequent participant” (24.7%). On average, customers paid around $US 5 per day for an event. Table 4.4 provided detailed information about the descriptive statistic of expenditure to participate sporting events.

2. According to the results of means and standard deviations indicated that for the construct of Esteem needs (total mean score = 3.06), all of three items of Esteem needs affected the participant spectators at “Normal” level. For the construct of Safety needs (total mean score = 4.08), all of five items of Safety needs affected the participant spectators at the “Influenced” level. Finally, for the construct of Belongingness and Love needs (total mean score = 4.10), all two items of Belongingness and Love needs affected the participant spectators at the “Influenced” level.

For the construct of Spectator’s satisfaction, according to the results of means and standard deviations indicated that the respondents are well-evaluated and felt pleasure in the Sporting events in Hochiminh city.

3. In the final CFA model, Chi-square/df = 2.16 is acceptable. The result revealed the estimated model fit indices and demonstrated a significant with GFI of .936, AGFI of .827, and CFI of .000. Apart from that the RMSEA value is .045. According to fitting indices, it indicates a moderate fit of this model. Therefore the positive relationship exists between Spectators’ motivation and satisfaction (r = .357, pvalue = .000).

Although Hochiminh city is the biggest and the most economic city in Vietnam; however, in order to attract participants to sporting events is the difficult issues because of some reasons. Therefore, throughout these findings in this study, especially the motivations which influenced people to each kind of events, organizers can set up the suitable events to be more attractive with spectators/ participants. These findings are not only useful to design operating plan and marketing strategies, but also helpful for organizations to manage sporting events effectively. In conclusions, in the professional sports, the number of spectators is a core factor to decide the success of each sporting event, so that, this study is the practical and meaningful scientific research to improve the Vietnamese sports movement.

References
Marketing in and through Sport
The challenge of understanding sports brand equity: The case of Calcio Padova Spa

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Aim of the paper and research purpose
In a sport organization the brand has become a fundamental asset. Its identification and development is crucial to implement sport marketing strategies of Federations, Leagues, clubs and events. Despite the growing importance of the brand for a sport club, however there is still a lack of conceptual models specifically developed for sports brand equity. The existing literature is mainly empirical and referred to the North American sporting environment (Boone et al., 1995; Gladden, Milne, Sutton, 1998; Gladden, Irwin, Sutton, 2001) and to the European football context (Richelieu, Cauvelaere, 2005; Dolles, Söderman, 2008; Söderman, Dolles, Dum, 2010), and it is mostly spectator-oriented (Ross, 2006). Nevertheless, some authors have proposed theoretical frameworks to make brand equity models more applicable to sport management (Woratschek, Ströbel, 2008; Ströbel, Wroratschek, 2011).

This specific work is not aimed to propose a new conceptual model on sport brand equity, not even to give a financial measure of a team brand value. Rather, our goal is to develop an analytical framework that can be a sort of “guidelines” helping football managers to understand specific assets of their sports brand to create value and maintain a competitive advantage. In developing this framework we consider the peculiarities of the Italian sport industry. This “inner” approach could be useful for sport organizations, both professional and amateur. Our framework focuses on the brand of an Italian football club - the Calcio Padova Spa - that during the season 2011/2012 was playing within the National Professional League Serie B.

Literature background and methodology
This research is based on the main theoretical models about brand equity (Aaker, 1991, 1996; Kapferer, 1997, 2004; Keller, 1993, 2003; Kotler, Keller, 2007). While the models vary, many of them indicate that brand awareness and brand associations will impact brand equity. An extensive review of this models has been essential to identify the most important assets to be considered for an evaluation of a sports brand. Moreover, we have analyzed the brand value models proposed in the specific literature developed within sport, even if it is quite country and context specific (Boone et al., 1995; Dolles, Söderman, 2008; Gladden, Milne, Sutton, 1998; Gladden, Milne, 1999; Richelieu, Cauvelaere, 2005; Ross, 2006; Ross et al., 2008).

Six main value drivers have been selected from existing theoretical literature and empirical research related to a sports brand. While each of them, when considered individually, is not sufficient to our extent, as a whole these assets can be useful to understand the football team brand value:

- **Brand loyalty** (15 pts): stadium attendance and TV audience during the season;
- **Brand exposure** (15 pts): club quoted in newspapers and magazines; National and local TV, radios; Internet and new media and the overall communication mix of the club;
- **Sponsorship, merchandising and licensing** (15 pts): main sponsorships; technical partnerships; other suppliers; merchandising and licensing;
- **Arena** (20 pts): home stadium; sports center; suburban facilities; other facilities;
- **Brand image** (25 pts): club historical tradition; logos; communication and promotional activities;
- **Internationality** (10 pts): international reputation; foreign top players; other players or coaches who make the team recognized abroad.

To each driver is assigned a maximum range value (10, 15, 20 or 25 points for each category driver). The highest points are given to the most relevant assets for a small-medium football team’s brand like the Calcio Padova Spa. The value to each specific indicator is given on the basis of a qualitative methodology. We requested comments from the most relevant stakeholders of the football club (CEO, General Manager, Marketing Director, fans representatives, TV journalists, etc.) during about 1.5 face-to-face and in depth interviews characterized by open questions, so that interviewees had the possibility to reflect their knowledge to the full extent. Questions dealt with the various topics included within each category driver (stadium, merchandising, club’s image, fans engagement, role of new media, etc.).

Qualitative information have been integrated with quantitative data gathered from official reports and balance sheets from the club. The final result, accounted in cents (*/100), is a sort of index that expresses the value of the brand Calcio Padova.

This numerical value is purely indicative, not scientifically proved. Nevertheless, by assigning a numerical value to the team brand could be useful since the idea is to extend this analytical framework to all the football clubs of the same Division.

Results and discussions
The proposed analytical framework does not claim to be exhaustive. It is an attempt to build a sort of basic “tools kit” for a sport organization brand awareness. Rather than offering an evaluation of the economic performance of the football club, not even an evaluation of the brand’s strength from a spectator perspective, this framework could be useful for sports managers in order to identify strengths and weaknesses of the football club’s name/brand. On the company’s side it is possible to implement a strategic path...
for managing the sports organization’s assets. By the way on the supply side sport organizations can project and offer sustainable and appreciated services to fans and supporters. Nevertheless, this analytical framework could be useful especially within the Italian sports context where there is still a lack of managerial skills and capabilities.

References
A comparison of sampling techniques in sport marketing research

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Aim of the paper
The aim of the paper is to compare questionnaire data derived from disparate sampling techniques to address the appropriateness of generalising results.

Literature review
The convenience sampling technique can invoke serious debate among scholars as to whether it is justifiable or not. Student samples are especially convenient because they permit scholars working in academic institutions to easily access large numbers of potential respondents. Snowball sampling is also convenient insofar as researchers need only initiate the process and then allow it to develop organically. The key criticisms of convenience sampling are that respondents are not representative of the wider population or that the phenomenon under investigation manifests itself differently in the case of students (Shen et al., 2011) or within the unique, unrepresentative sample that can result from a snowball technique. Despite pervasive criticism, empirical research is rarely carried out with the expressed purpose of exploring purported group differences based on sampling technique. One way to assess the appropriateness of generalising convenience sample derived results is to measure the construct of interest across samples (John & Benet-Martinez, 2000; Merenda, 2006). Sport marketing scholars have done little to empirically assess the issue of generalisability in conjunction with convenience sampling and little formal guidance has been offered. Many sport-based journals in which marketing research is published do not provide editorial guidelines related to the use of convenience samples as is the case with business journals (Bello et al., 2009). Despite the importance of this issue, a comparison of sport marketing data derived from disparate sampling techniques to explore the appropriateness of generalising results to wider populations has not taken place.

Methods
New Zealanders (N = 1353) accessed through three sampling techniques completed identical questionnaires in the immediate aftermath of the 2011 Rugby World Cup (RWC). Questions were adapted from previous research (Portlock & Rose, 2009) to measure individuals’ perceptions of the ethics of RWC related ambush marketing. The student sample (n = 589) was comprised of undergraduate students enrolled in an undergraduate sport and recreation programme at a large university. The snowball sample (n = 257) was initiated by the three researchers using a combination of personal and professional contacts. The third sample (n = 507) was accessed in conjunction with a private market research firm using a comprehensive random selection procedure and was therefore deemed to be representative of the New Zealand population. The third sample therefore serves as a “control” group of sorts in the current research. Participants responded using a 7-point Likert scale (1 = disagree and 7 = agree).

Results
Analysis of variance was used to identify differences among the three groups on the nine variables of interest. Results indicated that sampling technique had a statistically significant effect (p < .05) on six of the nine outcome variables although the respective effect sizes (η = 01 -.02) can be considered “small” (Cohen, 1988).

Discussion
Although the differences were neither large nor identified in all nine variables under examination, some disparity was evident amongst the three groups. Therefore, this analysis suggests that generalising the results derived from the two convenience sampling techniques to a wider population (for whom the third sample is representative) would not have been entirely accurate. Nor do the results of this study, however, support the wholesale rejection of making guarded generalisations as a result of convenience sampling data because the differences were not of great practical significance. Given the equivocal nature of the results, the sport marketing community must engage in more research and discussion about convenience samples and clearly articulate on its own terms, when and why convenience samples are appropriate within sport marketing and more broadly, sport management research.

References
Research of managerial problems in sports sphere of the north-west region, for developing a vision of managerial competences for managers of sports organizations

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At the beginning of the 21st century Russian sport industry underwent a change due to the forthcoming Olympic Games in Sochi 2014, World Student Games in Kazan 2012, 2018 FIFA World Cup. These events call for a big number of well educated of Sport managers. Therefore, in the academic year 2011-2012, the School of Management of Herzen’s State Pedagogical University of Russia initiated scientific and marketing research of the sports industry in the North-West region of Russia (with scientific consultancy from Prof. L.A. Gromova).

The purpose of this research was twofold: to determinate key factors and principles of effectiveness of the sport industry sector in Russia in professional sport clubs and physical training activities; research the problem of entrepreneurship and small business activity and availability to offer their products and services in sport market.

The main method of doing the research was an on-line survey among: managers of sports clubs and organizations of sports and leisure areas, potential consumers of sports goods and services. This paper concludes with several recommendations for professional sports organizations efficiency increase via identification of accordant list of professional competences of sports managers. Creation of educational and methodical materials for Bachelor and Master Degree levels of Sports management educational programs is to be considered as product of the research.

Theoretical Departures
Representative selection for research was sample with 246 citizens of St. Petersburg at the working age and higher [1]. In terms of gender, selection of 246 persons is to be researched, including 45% males and 65% females, in accordance with existing gender coefficient of the city. Validity of selection has been determined (at first review) via interactive internet-technology ‘Selection calculator’, proposed by QR team [2]. It allows us to make a conclusion about possibilities of getting results with high probability levels.

Methods and Results
As of this moment (01.04.12) pilot research has been completed, with questioning of 246 persons (65% - males, 35% - females) at the age of 65 years 24do. On the 1st stage of the pilot research, respondents were offered to complete the phrase: “Sport for me is…”. We’ve got the next answers: the way to keep physical fitness form (58.5%); the way to relax (11.8%); the way to switch to another sphere of activities (6.3%).

This spread of responses allows us to make a conclusion, that among respondents sport is considered to be a physical activities, rather than professional or top sports. It is notable, that 16.3% of respondents are managers of sports organizations of different levels. Thus we can assume, that most of the despondence is inclined to determine ‘sport’ not as victories in world competitions, but as a way to support good physical form with sporting activities, not harming the health.

Analyzing respondents’ answers, we have to note, that key competences of sports organization managers, by opinion of researched selection, are: “Aspiration for new knowledge and discipline” (92.2%), “Ensuring the accordance of provided services to consumer expectations” (81.7%), “Development of potential new directions of development” (67.8%), “Choice of new goods (services)” (71.5%), “Qualified distribution of resources and taking managerial decisions for reaching organization’s goals” (72.3%).

After a comparative analysis of competences, which should be further developed in the process of a master in “Management” educational program, and competences selected by practicing managers, we can assume, that people working in practice point at necessity of formation of competences. They also determine importance of such professional competences as: ability to manage organizations (professional competence), ability to develop corporate strategy, ability to use modern management methods of supervising corporate finances for solution of strategic objectives, ability to develop programs of organizational development and changes and ensure their realization, possession of methods of economical analysis of economical agents behavior and markets in global sphere, ability to prepare analytical materials for supervision of business-processes and evaluation of their efficiency, ability to develop educational programs and methodic materials for teaching managerial disciplines.

Such researches can reveal not only the actual needs of the sports industry for sport managers, but also can formulate the requirements for their competencies. For this purpose, and on the basis of the results of this research was formulated basic requirements for a new Master program “Management in Sport” at The Herzen State Pedagogical University of Russia. The developers hope that this program will contribute to the development of the sports management industry not only in St. Petersburg, but in Russia also.
North vs. South: UK’s regional perceptions of the image impact of the 2012 London Olympics

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Abstract keywords
image, place branding, social representation theory, 2012 Olympic Games, UK

Aim
The wider aim of this project – based on social representation theory (Moscovici, 1984) and a critical realist-informed, abductive research strategy – is to evaluate the image impact of hosting the 2012 Olympics, pre- and post-Games, for the city of London. It seeks to determine whether London’s hosting of the 2012 Olympics affects the social representation of the city among the domestic population, and conversely, if London influences the social representation of the Olympics. The goal of this communication is to present an analysis of the pre-Games data that reveals whether the social representations of London, the Olympics and the 2012 Games are more favourable from participants living in the more southern regions of England, than they are in the rest of the UK.

Literature review
Mega-events, particularly the Olympic Games, are widely considered to be a significant facilitator in the development of positive place image for the host city/nation, both on a domestic and global scale. The 2012 Summer Olympic Games then provides the city of London with a platform to modify and build its image, and better communicate its identity to a global audience and throughout the UK. Although London is already considered to be a leading and popular global city with a strong ‘brand’ (e.g. 2011 Anholt-GfK Roper City Brands Index), a key objective for those involved in the delivery of the 2012 Olympic Games will be to manage and improve London’s image, and to address any potential negative image formation that may occur, or that may have already taken place (DCMS, 2008). For example, hosting the Olympics may enhance the wider UK’s perceptions of London, like with previous smaller-scale events hosted in the UK (i.e. Manchester 2002 Commonwealth Games, Liverpool 2008 European Capital of Culture). Further, as previous Olympics have demonstrated, a successful and well run 2012 Summer Olympic Games might serve to legitimise project and government leaders to both London residents and to the domestic UK population, like, for example, with Beijing in 2008 (Tomlinson, 2010). Nevertheless, managing the image of a city, especially one hosting the Olympic Games, is not a straightforward undertaking (Shoval, 2002): organisation, security, infrastructure and transport, for example, can negatively affect how an Olympic Games and thus its host are perceived. Although measuring image and the impact of/from mega-events has been overlooked in the past, some recent studies have aimed to address this knowledge gap (e.g. Florek, Breitbarth & Conejo, 2008). One of the objectives of this project, therefore, is to contribute toward this growing literature base.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
Exponential non-discriminative snowball sampling was used to recruit participants (UK citizens, n=610) who completed a mixed methods questionnaire one year to six months prior to the Games either online or offline. This was comprised of questions measuring personal characteristics, demographic information, sport participation, national pride, and level of engagement in the Olympics (quantitative) and three randomised free word association tasks (qualitative) using London, the Olympics and 2012 London Olympics as inductor terms; i.e., ‘Please give the first 10 words that come to mind when you hear the term…’.

Analysis of the data, which is currently being conducted and will be completed in time for EASM 2012, will involve collating the responses of the free word-association tasks into semantic word clusters; one word (or phrase) representing each theme. Only words or phrases cited by 15% of participants will be used to construct the core meanings of each entity. Semantic word clusters will then be used to construct the social representation of each entity (i.e. images of London, the Olympics, and the 2012 Games). The data presented here will compare the responses of participants residing in the south of England (n=304), compared with those living in the rest of the UK (n=306).

Results, discussion and implications
The results of this analysis will provide specific knowledge on how each entity is perceived by participants in the UK according to where they live; that is, this communication will explore the regional variations in UK citizens’ perceptions of London, the Olympic Games and the 2012 event. It will compare engagement with, and the relevance and appeal of the London 2012 Olympic Games for participants living inside the Greater London area and outside of the wider UK, as well as exploring how the city of London is perceived. What is interesting here is that outside of London the potential benefits arising from staging the London 2012 Olympic Games are more limited, despite government suggestions to the contrary (e.g. DCMS, 2008). It will determine whether, and to what extent a North-South divide exists in opinions.

References

Sporting mega events: towards a framework for managing the threats posed by ambush marketers

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The aim of this paper is to identify the threats posed to sporting mega-events by ambush marketing and, in the context of these threats, to propose a framework that can be used by sport managers seeking to address these threats.

Following questions about the way in which their sponsorship deals were being sold, allied to concerns about value added to contracts with its commercial partners, the IOC introduced the TOP programme at the 1984 Olympic Games (OG). This revolutionised the sale of sponsorships, leading to the bundling of rights packages and the granting of category exclusivity. In the case of the IOC, this resulted in the sale of sponsorship rights to a small number of sponsors, who are protected by legislative measures. Companies that do not have a contract with the IOC therefore have any legal right of association with the OG. This model of selling/managing sponsorship is one that has been copied and is now common to many sporting mega-events. In response, companies with no legal right of association with events such as the OG, have sought to secure the same benefits as official sponsors by engaging in ambush marketing. Chadwick and Burton (2011) have defined ambush marketing as: “The marketing activities of a brand seeking to capitalize on the attention, awareness, fan equity, and goodwill generated by having an association with an event or property, beyond the official or authorized rights of association delivered by that event or property.”

Research into ambush marketing has thus far been limited, with only three coherent strands of study: definitional studies; studies addressing the ethical implications of ambushing; and studies exploring legal matters related to ambushing. A major deficiency in the literature is in the area of managing the threats posed by ambush marketers. That is, the way in which sporting mega-event owners and/or official sponsors account for and respond to the way in which rival companies and brands engage in activities that can be deemed as being ambushing. Chadwick and Burton (2010) is a formative study that highlighted significant issues [and related research opportunities in this area], and it is within this context that this abstract is written.

A three-phase methodology was used by this study; during the first phase of the research, a database of reported cases [n=1870] of ambushing was compiled and analysed. The purpose of this was to understand the nature of ambushing in each case, and the way in which event and sponsorship managers had responded to the threat of ambushing. Observations made were employed as the basis in formulating a set of questions which were used in a series of semi-structured interviews (n=11) during the second phase. Analysis of interview transcripts was carried out using manual coding techniques and appropriate measures of inter-coder agreement. The purpose of this phase was to generate items for interviews conducted during Phase 3 of the study. Phase 3 entailed structured interviews (n=12), which were recorded, transcribed and analysed using NVivo 8.0. The purpose of these interviews was to enable the development of a theoretically grounded and legitimized conceptualization of ambush marketing; the construction of a typology of ambush marketing strategy; and the identification of key managerial responses and future directions in sponsorship. During Phases 2 and 3, interviews were conducted with industrial professionals including sponsorship managers, brand managers, event managers/owners, and members of the legal profession.

The findings of this study are essentially three-fold; firstly, it is clear that, in spite of the efforts of rights holders to protect the marketing landscape around sporting mega-events, ambush marketing remains a real and growing threat to sporting mega-event sponsorship. Secondly, as has been reported elsewhere by the authors of this paper, different types of ambush marketing appear to exist. Thirdly, and most importantly in terms of this paper’s aims, a management framework consisting of five key variables has been identified as being central to addressing the threats to sporting megaevents posed by ambush marketing. The five variables are: the strategic management of sponsorship packages by events/sponsors; active relationship management between events/sponsors; the role of enforceable protection measures that can be utilised by events/sponsors; and the way in which legislative means are interpreted and enforced by events/sponsors.

References

Academic sport management programmes as brands?!

An empirical analysis of the “sport, business & law” programme at the University of Bayreuth

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Aim
Since the beginning of the 21st century the European market for higher education has changed dramatically. Especially in Germany, the Bologna declaration of 1999 had a huge impact on the national academic programmes. In this context, the majority of the German institutions of higher education adapted their academic programmes to the bachelor and master system. In total, Germany disposes of 415 institutions of higher education offering programmes for almost 2.4 million students (Federal Statistical Office, 2011). Along with this development all German institutions of higher education have to face an increasing competition for financial support and new students, too (Greven, 2011). Therefore, the marketing of those institutions and its academic programmes becomes more and more important and will be one of the key success factors for the future (Moore, 2004). Based on those circumstances we raise the questions how academic sport management programmes can be successfully managed as brands, and how those academic brands are perceived by its stakeholders, in our case students. In this regard the first ever established sport management programme in Germany “Sport, Business & Law” at the University of Bayreuth serves as a benchmark for successful marketing. Besides other issues, like public relations, alumni management and business-oriented curricula this sport management programme is registered in the German Patent and Trademark Office since 2000 with the trademark “Spöko” (short for the German designation of the study programme: “Sportökonomie”).

Therefore, our empirical analysis is guided by the following research questions:

1. What is the brand perception of the academic sport management programme “Sport, Business & Law”?
2. Which indicators are relevant for the brand image of the academic brand “Spöko”?
3. What is the relation between this academic brand and the University of Bayreuth?

Theoretical background
In the first step, we conducted a literature review in order to establish a common understanding of academic sport management programmes as brands and their roles in the brand architectures of institutions of higher education (Keller, 1993; Aaker/Joachimsthaler, 2000; Moore, 2004). This step is very important, because the management of academic brands is still in the early stages of its development. Furthermore, we collected comprehensive information about the history and tradition of the “Sport, Business & Law” programme and the role of the University of Bayreuth in the brand architecture of the programme. In summary, our theoretical analysis shows that it is imperative for institutions of higher education to cope with the challenges of a successful brand management.

Methodology
To get more insights about the brand perception and the brand image of the “Sport, Business & Law” programme, we conducted two studies, a qualitative pre-study and a quantitative main study during winter semester 2011/12. At this stage, the analysis is focused on students of the University of Bayreuth. Future research should focus on further stakeholders, like prospective students, scientists, and potential employers. In the pre-study we collected 15 guided interviews with students from different study programmes. The guideline was based on the brand management literature as well as on our theoretical analysis. The main goal of this pre-study was to derive suitable items for the quantitative analysis. Altogether, we could identify specific items with regard to the core values of the sport management programme, several brand related dimensions of the academic brand “Spöko”, and the relation between the brands of the university and the study programme. Based on these results we collected data in a quantitative survey with a data set of n = 447 students. The items were measured on a 7-point likert scale from “1 = totally agree” until “7 = totally disagree”. For the data analysis we applied descriptive statistics and exploratory factor analysis.

Results
The results of the data analysis offer an interesting overview of the brand perception of the academic sport management programme “Sport, Business & Law” from the perspective of local university students. Furthermore, the comparative analysis of sport management students versus students of other programmes allows us to identify gaps in the evaluation of the brand perception of the sport management programme between those two groups. This analysis can serve as a starting point for the future marketing of the study programme. Besides that, our findings indicate that the university and the study programme are perceived in terms of an umbrella brand and its affiliated brand. Basically, our results demonstrate that the implementation of a strategic brand management would be a major support for academic sport management programmes to better survive in competition.

References


Facing off on twitter: A generation y interpretation of professional athlete profile pictures

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The innovations of social media are revolutionizing the sport media landscape. At its core, the technological platform exists as a self-presentation tool. It is an opportunity for athletes to extend their brand beyond the borders of traditional media and reach a broader audience. The purpose of this study was to delve into the largely unexplored terrain of social media self-presentation in sport. Specifically, this exploratory study investigated how professional athletes are presenting themselves photographically on Twitter and how this form of self-presentation is interpreted by a Generation-Y audience. The research question posited how Twitter profile pictures impact audience perception of athletes. Goffman’s theory of self-presentation was used to direct the analysis, with all athlete photos critically analyzed using Goffman’s front and backstage performance framework.

The social media platform provides an intriguing twist to both the study of photographic representation and new media research—it offers athletes themselves the opportunity to select their own photographic exposure in the construction of their brand. This is in stark contrast to the years of research that has documented and relied upon the mainstream media’s photographic selection (e.g., Cuneen & Sidwell, 1998; Duncan, 1990). The pervasive strength of visual images has been found more powerful than the written word in that they catch the eyes of even the most casual readers and allow them to create impressions (Bishop, 2003; Cuneen & Spencer, 2003). While social media is a largely content based medium, the profile picture that accompanies all posts exists as the literal face of the brand.

The top 20 most followed female and the top 20 most followed male professional athletes on Twitter served as the data set for this study. From this sample, each athlete’s Twitter profile picture was examined (e.g., setting, relation to sport, camera angle) with the purpose of selecting a diverse compilation of photos. A final collection of 10 female and 10 male athletes was established for interpretation. Each athlete’s Twitter profile picture was provided to a sample of Generation-Y Kinesiology students (N=120) for interpretation. This audience was deemed suitable as research indicates that the most active Twitter audience falls within the Generation-Y age frame (Smith, 2011). Further, audience interpretation studies in sport have found that a “targeted, invested audience” tends to be best suited to studies of this nature (Bruce, 1998, p. 379). It is assumed that Kinesiology students enjoy a heightened interest in the sporting realm and are equipped with a familiarity of professional athletes.

Participants were asked to complete a brief written survey as they viewed athlete photos on a computer screen. For each photo, participants were asked to provide the first words that came to their mind. Participants were urged to name each athlete if they were able and identify the sport in which the athlete is active. A collage of all female athletes was provided after each individual photo was viewed and participants were asked to identify their favourite and least favourite image, as well as the images they believed were the most and least effective in terms of the athletes’ brand. The same process was then repeated with the collection of male photos. To conclude the survey, participants were shown the entire collection of both female and male photos and again asked to identify their favourite and least favourite image and make note of the images they believed were the most and least effective in terms of athlete brand.

Descriptive statistics, frequencies, and cross-tabulations were run to interpret and report results. Results indicated that participants were largely unable to identify the female athletes presented to them. Male athletes proved to be far more recognizable among the audience. A distinct preference for athlete images that provided a sport context was reported. Action shots were preferred over posed or passive photos. Athletes that presented themselves without some reference to their sport were consistently ranked among the least favourite and least effective photos.

These findings illustrate important implications for the self-marketing strategies of professional athletes and their brand development teams. Goffman’s framework indicated this audience had a distinct preference for athletes that presented themselves photographically through a front stage performance. This is contrary to commentary based social media studies that have linked success with a focus on backstage performances (e.g., Pegoraro, 2010). This study highlights the power of profile pictures to communicate information to audiences, while underscoring the significant role profile photos can have in shaping audience perception of athletes’ digital brands.

Selected references
Consumer motivations and concerns for online sport-related product marketing

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Keywords: consumer behavior, online shopping, sport-related product.

Theoretical background or literature review and aim of the study

The Internet is not only a prime source of information but also it is an increasingly important point of purchase for many consumers (Donghun, 2005; Suh & Chang, 2006). Depending upon the increasing of usage Internet, more and more sport firms and clubs utilize it as a marketing vehicle for developing strategies and tactics to attract and maintain their consumers. Considering the differences of consumers’ demands and requirements, it is crucial for sport marketers and managers to better comprehend the consumers’ attitudes (motives and concerns) and decision-making process.

Understanding the motivations that drive consumers’ interest in shopping sport-related products online and their online shopping concerns will provide sport marketers information that can be used to develop targeted promotional campaigns in order to foster increased attendance, and establish a bond with their target consumers (James & Ross, 2004). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to assess the differences between online sport-product shoppers’ motivational factors and their online shopping concerns with respect to gender, education and age.

Methodology, research design and data analysis

The population of the study was 220,000 customers buying only sport-related products from “hepsiburada.com” which is the first and most common online shopping web retailer in Turkey. Purposive sampling method was used to determine the population of the study. From this population, 2716 individual voluntarily participated in the study. After the elimination of invalid and incomplete scales the sample of the study was determined as 1154.

Data was collected by Motivation Scale for Online Sport Consumption (MSOSC) and Concern Scale for Online Sport Consumption (CSOSC) (Altun, 2011). Forty-five item MSOSC consists of 5 subscales, and it is a 7-point Likert type scale, (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) measures the motivational factors of online sport-product shoppers. Twenty-four item CSOSC has 5 subscales and is also a 7-point Likert-type scale, (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) measures the concerns of online sport-product shoppers. The reliability of these scales were tested by Cronbach Alpha (α) which was .95 for MSOSC and .96 for CSOSC.

Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the demographics. To assess the difference between online sport-related product shoppers’ motivational factors and their online shopping concerns in terms of their gender, education and age variables; Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) test was used.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions

The MANOVA results revealed that there was a significant difference between the shopping motivations of participants with respect to their gender [p<.01], education level [p<.01] and age [p<.01]. Follow up ANOVA results showed that gender is a distinguishing factor on convince and socialization motives. It means that as shopping convenience is highly motivating factor for women than men, socialization is highly motivating factor for men than women. Education level is also a distinguishing factor on convenience, economic and socialization motives. As the education level of participants increase, shopping convenience and economic motives gain more importance for online shopping. Socialization motive is a more important motive for low-educated participants. When looked at age; socialization and economic motives are highly motivating factors for young consumers than those of elders.

The MANOVA results also revealed that there was a significant difference between shopping concerns of online sport-product consumers in terms of gender [p<.01] and education level [p<.01]. However, there was no significant difference between shopping concerns of online sport-product consumers in terms of age [p<.05]. Follow up ANOVA results demonstrated that as gender and education level are distinguishing factors for online shopping concern, age is not. Security-privacy and delivery are highly shopping concerns for men than women. As the education level decrease, cost becomes more important shopping concern.

It might be concluded that gender, education level and age were distinguishing factors for the shopping motivations and shopping concerns of online sport-related product consumers, except for age for shopping concerns in Turkey. Considering the online shopping motives and concerns of sport-related product consumers, sport marketers should realize the effects of gender, education level and age for comprehending their customers.

References:

A validity and reliability study: motivations and concerns of online sport-related product shoppers

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Theoretical background or literature review and aim of the study

Though the Internet has been growing as a medium for marketing activities, it is important for sport marketers to understand online sport consumption behavior (Kahle and Meeske, 1999). Consequently, few researches have been conducted to understand online sport consumers’ behavior such as consumers’ attitudes toward Internet, usage patterns, motivations and concerns for using the Internet. Hur, Ko and Valacich (2007) were designed a study to identify motivational factors of online shopping sport consumption behavior and concerns of using the Internet when shopping for sport-related products. Therefore, this research was aimed at conducting the validity and reliability study on the Hur, Ko and Valacich Scale of Motivation for Online Sport Consumption (SMOCS) (Hur, Ko and Valacich, 2007) in a developing country and in a different culture, in this case, Turkey.

Methodology, research design and data analysis

Among 220,000 customers shopping online sports-related products were the population of this study. They were the customers of the most common and the first online retailer in Turkey. From this population, 2716 customers were voluntarily participated in the study. After the elimination of invalid and incomplete responses, a total of 1154 online shoppers buy sport-related products were eventually included in this study.

Both the SMOCS measuring the motives and concerns of online sport-related product shoppers and its first item pool were gathered from the researchers (Motive part of SMOCS: 16 items from the original scale and 32 items from its first item pool, and concern part of SMOCS: 14 items from the original scale and 20 items from its first item pool). Because of potential cultural differences of the respondents, the items of the original SMOCS and its first item pool were subjected to face-validity by translation-back-translation method to ensure the equivalence of both versions. After the establishment of equivalence of both versions, the final Turkish version of the all items was also administered to 50 undergraduate and graduate sport management students who are online shoppers in order to minimize the possibility of misinterpretation. No misunderstood items were found. The items were entered on a survey website, and then the link of this web site was e-mailed to the customers of the the web retailer. The items requires the respondent’s to indicate their judgments on a 7-point Likert-type scale indicating their level of agreement for each item within a range of "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (7). After downloading the responses of the participants from the web site, the data collection process was ended. KMO was conducted to test whether the data appropriate for factoring or not, and Barlett test was run to test the adequacy of the sampling group. To analyze the factors (dimensions) associated with each section of the scale, the items were subjected to a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for construct validity. For the reliability of the scale, the Cronbach Alpha method was used.

Result, discussion and implications/conclusions

The PCA revealed that both motives and concerns scales have 5-subscscales. The motives part of the instrument consists of 45 items and five subscales which are; convenience (6 items), information (10 items), diversion (12 items), socialization (8 items) and economic motive (9 items). The concern part of it consists of 24 items and the 5 subscales which are; security-privacy (7 items), delivery (4 items), product quality (5 items), customer service (5 items) and cost (3 items). Internal consistency reliabilities of the all subscales were .91, .96, .95, .93, .96, .85, .92, .92, and .88 respectively. All the items were clustered in five meaningful clusters in both scales. The five factor solution for motive and concern scales measured 69.73 % of total variance and 77.82 of total variation.

For the motive scale, the results of Principal Component Factor analysis revealed that all the items of the original questionnaire were loaded meaningfully, and could be interpreted under the same subscales of the original questionnaire. Additionally, totally 29 items from the first item pool were loaded. For the concern scale, as all the items of the original scale (except for 1 item) were loaded meaningfully under the original subscales, one additional factor was formed, named as “cost” in this study. Totally 10 items from its first item pool were loaded under the concern scale. Face validity, construct validity, and the high and meaningful correlation of subscales with each other showed that the newly formed Motivation Scale for Online Sport Consumption (MSOSC) is a valid scale to measure the online shopping motives that drives behavior and bring online shoppers into the online markets. The newly formed scale, namely Concern Scale for Online Sport Consumption (CSOSC) is also a valid scale to measure the constraints preventing online shopping.

Consequently, it can be stated that the adjusted instruments are valid and reliable scales, and provides the opportunity to make meaningful interpretations of consumers’ motives and concerns during their online shopping.

References

Improving service quality in the sport industry

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Aim of abstract and research question
The excessive professionalization and commercialization of sport nowadays have resulted in the development of the sports sector as a highly competitive entertainment industry. Today, sports organizations, as entertainment providers, face a new era of global competition both inside and outside the sports industry. Sport and leisure organizations, in an effort to achieve sustainability and success, need to adopt business concepts in entrepreneurial strategies. The new business scenario requires the development and delivery of high level quality products and services that satisfy customers’ needs. The present study examines the way spectators perceive and evaluate the quality of the overall game experience and provides useful managerial implications. The research questions which arise are the following:

1) How do spectators perceive service quality of the game experience?
2) How do spectators evaluate service quality of the game experience?
3) How can we translate the research findings into practice in the context of Greek reality?

Theoretical background
The concept of quality pre-existed years ago, from the period of ancient Greeks in the 5th century BC. Today is the most powerful competitive weapon and a key prerequisite for success and sustainability. A review of services marketing literature reveals a plethora of conceptual definitions of the quality construct. Service quality is a multidimensional concept that stimulates considerable debate in the literature about how best to conceptualize this phenomenon. Perceived service quality can be defined as ‘a perceived judgement, resulting from an evaluation process where customers compare their expectations about a service and their perception of the way the service has been performed’ (Grönroos, 1984).

The analysis of service quality is based on two broad conceptualizations: the European perspective and the American one. The European perspective emphasizes the basic idea of the technical quality of the outcome, the functional quality of the service encounter, and the company corporate image. The American perspective, describes service quality as a function of quality dimensions that affects the service encounter and proposes five service quality dimensions: the tangibles, the reliability, the responsiveness, the assurance and the empathy (Grönroos, 1984; Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V.A. and Berry, LL 1991). In the field of sport, another group of researchers studied the contribution of the concept of ‘serviscape’ or ‘sportscape’ on quality perception and evaluation (Bitner, 1990; Bitner, 1992; Wakefield & Blodgett, 1994; Wakefield, Blodgett & Sloan 1996; Reiner & Kuehn, 2005).

Methodology—research design and data analysis
With regard to the present study, professional basketball has been chosen as the topic of investigation, since it has grown remarkably in recent years. After a comprehensive review of the relevant bibliography, qualitative research is conducted. A flexible exploratory research design was used as the framework for collecting and analyzing data since it provides a better understanding of service quality construct and serves the purpose of research. Given that the main aim of the research was the examination of quality factors in a sports context, a judgemental sample was used according to specific selection criteria. The method of data collection used was qualitative through semi-structured interviews used as guidelines to collect the intended data from the respondents. Afterwards, selected findings were recorded, interpreted, coded, analyzed in themes and then categorized.

Results, discussion and implications
Consumers formulate their perceptions of service performance through the ‘bundle of service benefits’ they receive from the service experience. The main benefits spectators receive from the experience of a sporting event are entertainment, feelings, impressions and memories. Consumers do not perceive service quality in a unidimensional way, but rather they evaluate it according to multiple specific dimensions relevant to the service context. The Service quality evaluation process is considered to be a subjective and a highly complex process which is achieved according to specific mechanisms and evaluation criteria. These criteria constitute the quality indicators and the specific service quality dimensions which spectators evaluate when assessing the whole episode of the game. In the sports context, spectators evaluate the overall sports experience not only on the basis of the final outcome of the core game, but also on the basis of other aspects of service delivery process such as tangibles, people and service delivery system procedures.

Findings obtained by research showed that respondents perceive service quality according to specific dimensions; refer the game quality as the main evaluation criterion for quality perception and evaluation (Bitner, 1990; Bitner, 1992; Wakefield & Blodgett, 1994; Wakefield, Blodgett & Sloan 1996; Reiner & Kuehn, 2005).

For a managerial point of view, sports businesses to achieve sustainability and success in an ever-changing environment should understand how consumers evaluate, choose and use the products and services on the one hand and on the other hand, search for ways to mobilize their internal resources, plan and implement proactive win-win strategies in an integrated effort to offer a satisfactory and exciting experience and a good value for money to their customers.
Managers should face the interaction between sport organization and spectators as an exchange process in which sports executives take profit and consumers take value. The improvement of quality must be considered as a game where all participants are winners.

References

The effects of sponsorship-linked IMC on soft drink sales

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Aim
The aim of this study is examine the effects of sponsorship-linked integrated marketing communications (IMC) on soft drink sales.

Background
Sponsorship and IMC have both grown rapidly as marketing disciplines during recent years. Despite the rapid growth, however, there are concerns about the effectiveness of both sponsorship and IMC. Academics (Crompton, 2004) and practitioners (Show, 2009) have expressed interest in linking sponsorships to sales. Despite the interest, most published research about sponsorship examines the relationship between sponsorship components and sponsorship awareness or purchase intent, but not sales. Cornwell (2008) suggests that one of the most needed areas of research concerns marketing communications collateral to the sponsorship.

Tripodi (2001) recommends that sponsors use all marketing promotions tools—advertising, sales promotions, public relations, and personal selling—in order to maximize sponsorship effectiveness. As integrating personal selling into sponsorship programs usually entails business-to-business relationships rather than consumer-focused efforts and the current study examines only consumer audiences, this paper is limited to public relations (PR), advertising and sales promotions. In a field study, Sneath et al. (2005) adopted an IMC approach to sponsorship and found that experience with an auto sponsor’s exhibits at a sporting event was linked to increased purchase consideration for the manufacturer. Sponsorships can be leveraged via public relations by representatives of the articulating the sponsorship relationship in the media. Themed advertising, which features elements of the sponsored property, can leverage the sponsorship into cognitive, affective, and behavioral advertising outcomes. The provision of sponsorship property related prizes and premium items can be used to leverage the sponsorship with sales promotions, which in turn can be linked to affective and behavioral outcomes.

Methods
Data were collected as part of a larger commercial study conducted by sponsorship consultancy Sponsorship Research & Strategy. Respondents were drawn from a national panel and screened for interest in NASCAR. A total of 1000 self-identified NASCAR fans completed an online survey. A subsample of 249 respondents was randomly drawn from the total sample and asked questions about soft drink brands and sponsorships.

Respondents were asked about their attitudes toward the sponsorship of a major soft drink brand. Measures included 3 items for public relations in which the sponsorship is articulated in the media (α = .83); 3 items about sponsorship-linked themed advertising (α = .86); and 3 items about sponsorship-linked sales promotions (α = .90). Respondents also reported their average weekly consumption of the number of 12 oz. servings of the soft drink brand.

Results and discussion
Attitudes to the soft drink brand’s sponsorship were found to be positively linked to soft drink consumption, which averaged 3.85 12-ounce servings per week. On average, respondents who agree that the soft drink brand’s sponsorship is effective consume about twice as much of the soft drink brand as compared to respondents who do not agree that the sponsorship is effective. T-tests performed for each of the 9 items about sponsorship-linked IMC found significant differences between respondents who agree with each statement and those who do not agree.

Items for sponsorship articulation, themed advertising, and sponsorship-linked sales promotions were each summed into single variables and used in a regression model to predict soft drink consumption (F = 5.30, p = .001). Themed advertising (β = .126) was the strongest predictor, followed by sponsorship-linked sales promotions (β = .106), and sponsorship articulation (β = .036). The regression model explains 6% of the variance in soft drink consumption. This study demonstrates direct links between sponsorship components and product consumption. Soft drinks are fast-moving consumer goods, which likely facilitates the direct link between sponsorship-linked IMC and product usage. Further research is needed in other product categories and the interaction between sponsorship components and its effects as mediated by brand attitudes and other sponsorship outcomes, such as awareness and purchase intent.

References
Sportification of drinks. A sociological analysis of the influence of sport in the market of beverages

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Key Words: sport, sportification, de-sportification, drinks.

This enquiry focuses on sport’s influence on drinking habits by posing the research question: “How has sport influenced the market of beverages?” To explore this phenomenon, a sociological analysis of market trends in the beverage industry has been performed from a sociological perspective based on Luhmann’s systems theory (Luhmann, 1985). From this perspective, modern societies host different function systems with each one performing a particular function for the society and having a distinctive logic. Even if function systems are autopoietic, they are able to interact through the emergence of common forms of communication. Beverage industries are here seen not only as typical organisations of the economic system, but also as a privileged place for structural couplings between economy and sport, meaning these organisations are able to operationalise two different systemic logics: one from the economic system, “payment / non-payment” (Luhmann, 1985), and one from the sport system, “performing / non-performing” (Stichweh, 1990). This is the logical basis for the development and commercialisation of sport drinks, defined here as: “functional beverage products (…) created to help athletes and other active people hydrate before, during and after vigorous exercise” (American Beverage Association 2011). Hence, sport drinks have been created for people actively engaged in hard sport activities, a societal relevant but small market target.

To enquire into the research question, a market trends analysis has been conducted by aggregating market data from both primary and secondary sources, which involve general trends in the beverage market and in particular within the category of sport drinks. The main sources rely upon data published by the sector’s most important organisations (the Coca-Cola Company and the PepsiCo) and by market research companies. Regarding the market trends in sport drinks, the analysis shows that within the last decades the existing products on the market, the companies in the segment and especially the number of products sold have rapidly increased. In particular, the consumption of sport drinks in the U.S. in gallons/capita has increased from 1.2 in 1994 to 3.5 in 2004 (Yoffie & Slind, 2006). This explosion of sport drinks market seems not to be singularly explicable by the increase of people active in sports. Instead, this growth can more likely be explained as a particular case of “De-Sportification of Sport” (Cachay, 1990), understood as sport’s loss of its distinctive aspects. In the particular case of this drink sector we shall call it “De-Sportification of Sport Drinks”. This demonstrates on the one hand the fact that the consumers of sport drinks are increasingly amateur, not involved in hard sport, or even people not active in sport. On the other hand the fact that the timing of the product’s consumption is progressively less bound to sport activities and involves instead non-sportive situations.

Regarding the general trends in the beverage market, the analysis instead identified a clear manifestation of what is in sport sociology called the “Sportification of Society” (Cachay, 1990), understood as the strong influence that sport is able to exert on many different social areas. In the particular case of beverages, we call it “Sportification of Non-Sport Drinks”. This involves two distinct subphennomena within the marketing promotion of drinks not initially created as sport drinks: firstly, they are often advertised by using sport as a marketing medium (for example the advertising campaigns of Coca Cola, Pepsi Cola and Red Bull); secondly, they are promoted by elating their true or supposed positive effects on sport performances or simply consumed for these reasons (for example Red Bull and smoothies).

In conclusion, the analysis of the influence of sport on the beverage market individuated two distinct phenomena, the “Sportification of Non-Sport Drinks” and the “De-Sportification of Sport Drinks”. These show that the influence of sport on beverage constitutes a phenomenon involving increasingly broader segments of the population. However, these tendencies expose consumers to threats represented by illusory and/or false messages on the properties of the products and by the high calories contained by sport drinks, which make of them an unhealthy drink for people not active in sport.

This essay sets a first step in a novel direction within the sociological discussion on sportification, namely eating. In particular, the “sportification of eating” could represent a new sociological area, which clearly shows the need for further theoretical research and empirical analysis and entails various interesting and not yet scientifically assessed phenomena. Furthermore, the creation of a general model for the management of products’ sportification as a marketing strategy could be particularly interesting in the field of applied sport marketing.

Bibliography
The use of branded communities in sport marketing as an alternative to brand communities: the case of a German football community

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Abstract keywords  
branded communities, brand communities, social media, web 2.0, co-creation, football fans, internet

Aim of paper  
Brand communities which represent a “specialized, non-geographically bound community, based on a structured set of social relationships among admirers of a brand” have been of large interest in the last years (Muniz & O’Guinn, 2001). Empirical studies revealed several positive aspects of brand communities including increases in brand involvement, brand loyalty and positive word-of-mouth behavior (Algesheimer, Dholakia, & Herrmann, 2005; Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006). However, not every brand has the potential to be the basis of enduring interaction among its customers, so several companies [e.g. E.ON, Deutsche Telekom] had to close brand communities shortly after having established them with great effort. For this reason, this paper introduces the concept of “branded communities” as an alternative to “brand communities”. Other than brand communities, a branded community not necessarily builds around a specific brand, but any interest or need. However, a specific brand makes use of the community for marketing purposes by sponsoring or operating the community.

Theoretical background  
Our research involves image transfer processes similar to issues in co-branding or branded entertainment [e.g. branding in digital games]. However, there is no research on the sponsorship of communities on a topic which is not directly related to the sponsor’s products or services. We therefore develop a structural model to explain the causal relationships in branded communities. Specifically, we identify the driving forces of branded communities that lead to loyalty towards community and towards the sponsoring brand. We study both the relationship between the community members and the community and the relationship between the community members and the sponsoring brand. For both the community and the brand we chose the loyalty of community members as our main objective, since it is a generally accepted and powerful indicator of corporate success (Oliver, 1999).

Methodology and data analysis  
We use an online survey from a branded online community in which the members are interested in football. This community is operated by the leading German telecommunication corporation. The company unobtrusively brands the community with its logo and the slogan “powered by”, so community members can perceive the company’s involvement, but are not necessarily aware of it. The German football association serves as a co-operation partner for providing the scorings and official information. The community further offers a widespread range of features, e.g. sharing football videos and pictures, message boards, user blogs and mailing functions. 501 community members responded to the questionnaire. The causal model is studied using PLS structural equation modeling (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009).

Results and implications  
Consistent to our hypothesis “identification with the topic” (football) significantly influences “identification with the community” ($\beta=0,428**$). Simultaneously, a higher “involvement with the topic” (football) leads to a higher “involvement with the community” ($\beta=0,533**$). Contrary to our assumption, there are no significant direct effects of “topic identification” or “topic involvement” on “community loyalty”. This means that the interest in a topic is necessary, but not sufficient to reach community loyalty. According to the path coefficients the “identification of the members with the community” is the most important determinant of community loyalty ($\beta=0,353**$), followed by the quality of the relationships within the community represented by the construct “community quality” ($\beta=0,212**$) and the degree of “involvement with the community” ($\beta=0,158**$). Other than expected, there are no significant direct effects of “football identification” ($\beta=0,053$) and “football involvement” ($\beta=0,063$) on “community loyalty”.

As hypothesized the more loyal the community members are towards the community the more loyal they are towards the operating brand ($\beta=0,128**$). Furthermore, the results revealed a significant positive influence of the “perceived support of the sponsoring brand” on the “loyalty to this brand” ($\beta=0,168**$). Contrary to our assumption, the members’ perceived support of the telecommunication provider had no significant negative influence on their “loyalty towards the community” ($\beta=0,047$). Thus, the anticipated negative effects on the sense of community among the members seem to be compensated by the benefits of the platform provided by the company.

Altogether, the results of our study clearly advocate the concept of branded communities. It is possible to operate a community of interest focused on a non-brand specific topic and transfer the members’ positive emotions to the brand. The brand owner addresses the consumers in a non-commercial surrounding. Moreover, the consumers are highly involved and often interested in the co-creation of value by generating interesting website content which in turn increases visit frequency of the members. Consequently, marketers should integrate communities into their branding strategy and profit from the recent developments in web 2.0.

References  
Making sense of national elite sport sponsorships – risk perceptions and corporate motives

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Abstract keywords
Sponsorship, qualitative research, national elite sport, sense-making, Weick, corporate strategy

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
The purpose of this study is to investigate how Danish private business organizations make sense of sponsoring national elite sports organizations (opposed to club sponsorships) and what makes others firms abstain from this activity.

Theoretical background or literature review
Private business sponsors are involved in national elite sport, but their involvement can be perceived as a risky engagement as the guaranteed outcome of the relation is uncertain and inherently unbalanced: While the elite sport organization receives immediate knowledge about future economic funding, the business organization must wait for a longer period of time before it is able to measure and assess the outcome of the relation. Therefore, risk assessments, combined with a view on corporate strategy, networking facilitation and organizational identity creation, are vital points in this study, as estimated potential risks might be an important factor in deciding against sponsorship engagement or may be closely related to dissolution of a sponsorship relationship (Farrelly, 2010).

Scandinavian studies on sport sponsorships are still rare. Danish national elite sport has until recently primarily been an issue for public state funding, but the need for additional financial support to cope with increased international competition makes private funding crucial. A recent study based on an evaluation of the Danish organization for elite sports [Team Denmark] concluded, that efforts to increase income from private funding still leave room for improvement (Storm & Nielsen, 2010).

Departing from the work of Karl Weick (1995), sport sponsorship relations are perceived as processes of sense-making. According to Weick, sense-making consist of the connection between a frame and a cue. Thus, organizational sense-making works retrospectively, is context-dependent and emerges when phenomena are becoming events through organizing. In this way, via enacting, organizing and corporate action, elite sport sponsorship becomes a sense-making occasion as it is perceived as an incongruous event compared to ordinary business activities.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
Inspired by Alvessons (2003) use of metaphors, semi-structured interviews with marketing directors, CEOs and PR-consultants representing seven companies engaged in national elite sport sponsorships and three companies not engaged are conducted. This approach enables us to explore elements of organizational strategy, networking facilitation, and corporate identity creation by focusing on 1) social contexts of interviewees’ accounts, 2) interviews as an event of intensive interactional sense-making and 3) individual accounts that indicate the strategic orientation of the firm. In order to take aim at those sports that attract significantly little mass media attention, but still manage to win Olympic medals, sponsorships of the two far most popular sports in Danish mass media (handball and soccer) were not included. Prior to the interviews, the corporate representatives as well as the sponsored national sport organization were asked to select and prioritize three possible risks associated with a sponsorship engagement from a schematic list of seven options (including one open category).

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
Interestingly, no one perceived lack of sporting results as a potential risk linked to a sponsorship. In none of the cases the sponsor and sponsee selected the same three risks associated with the sponsorship. Lack of/‘bad cooperation between sponsor and sponsee’ was a common perceived threat by all involved.

The interviews revealed that corporate sense-making of sport often occurs when the firms are able to integrate sport as a part of business-to-business network creation (small companies) or to integrate a sponsorship as a part of corporate human resource management. Thus, sport sponsorships serve more indirect marketing purposes (Cornwell, 2008) and some of the sponsorships have developed into becoming a specific competence of the single firm, for instance by creating a genuine HRM-setup by borrowing semiotic tokens and logics from one specific elite sport setting. Among companies abstaining from sponsoring national elite sport, the argument was that activating an elite sport sponsorship represented too big a work load. In general, none of the company representatives perceived sponsorships as a philanthropic activity. Institutional frame played a significant conditioning role, e.g. former experiences gained during sponsorship engagement either by the company or by the representative were articulated in the interviewees’ accounts.

By outlining risk perceptions with insights from corporate sensemaking, this study suggests that perceiving sponsorships as a mutual and symmetric sense-making activity embedded in good relations between sponsor and sponsee is of utmost importance rather than focusing on good sporting results as an indicator of success that automatically attracts a sponsor. This study, given its qualitative approach, is only able to provide limited general recommendations, thus future quantitative inquiry into corporate strategic use would be useful to explore corporate strategic approaches to Danish national elite sports.

References


Live sport experience –
A representative factor analysis to the relevant motives

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Abstract
In case of product homogeneity and the human development of the experience drive, the marketing professionals have long ago discovered the advantages of using live communication as part of their marketing strategy. There is an increasing consumption of live experience that serves certain spectator needs and motivations (Yoshida, James, 2010). Marketing management has to identify the most suitable way to meet existing needs and motivations. Therefore it is necessary to understand spectator motivations for managing and improving live experiences (Uhrich, Benkenstein, 2010). This representative empirical research focuses on how to measure live sport experience (LSE) and start with a explorative study to correlate LSE and Brand Experience.

Theoretical Background
Experience is still a central part of societies’ life and can be adapted to consumption situations. It includes a psychological process with the handling of internal and external stimuli that is itemised within the Experience Map (Ellert, Schafmeister, Dallwig & Seitz, 2011). The reaction based on the varied stimuli is responsible for a connected reaction what makes [live] experience interesting for marketing management (Vroom, 1964). Hence live communication is used to strengthen the brand experience with the customers live experience. Experience is based on a broad literature review and follows most likely Schmitt’s five experiences: sense, feel, think, act and relate (Brakus, Schmitt, Zarantonello, 2009). Due to the lack of an existing way to measure live sport experience, this academical research fulfills the gap in one’s knowledge.

Methodology
As research method serves a 3Q (qualitative, quantitative, qualitative) triangulation with the purpose to construct a questionnaire to test individual live-sport experience.

- Q1: a qualitative approach (LSE)
- Q2: a quantitative analysis (LSE)
- Q3: a explorative approach (LSE & brand experience)

The first approach identifies statements for how persons like to have a live sport experience by an expert group discussion. A balloon test and a sentence completion test completed the developed statements (Q1). A quantitative online questionnaire rates the statements and emotions regarding live sport events with live-point Likert scales. The online option is chosen to get a representative sample of 906 sports interested people in Germany. The results are calculated with a factor analysis to evaluate categories of live sport experience (Q2). These categories are put in a final questionnaire and tested in field at the VIP areas of two worldwide acting companies in a german soccer stadium (1st Bundesliga) by a semi biotic situation (n=81) (Q3). Finally the results of LSE are compared with a brand experience questionnaire to find any correlations between.

Results and implications
Q1 brings out 96 final items that are clustered into various dimensions, followed by a further reduction to balance a single dimension. After the test by the online questionnaire the factor analysis identifies four categories of live sport experience and respective statements to represent the single categories. Each category consists of three statements and therefore finally twelve statements (Q2). The survey at the hospitality area shows no correlation between brand and live sport experience (Q3).

By now it is possible to evaluate why people ask for live sport by knowing their motives. It provides an actual and valid instrument to measure live sport experience. Furthermore a correlation between the brand and live sport experience can be excluded what means a distinguished. So we can see that guests of hospitality can differ explicit between brand- and live sport experience.

This instrument was tested for situations concerning football on top. For further knowledge it would be valuable to know the sport specific differences.

References
Extending classical statistical methods to study customer satisfaction. An application to a private indoor climbing centre in France

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Abstract keywords

Background
For managers, it is crucial to identify the key drivers that determine customer satisfaction. Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) is a simple albeit effective tool to allocate scarce resources. The three-factor theory of customer satisfaction nevertheless suggests that the study of the relationship between attributes performance and overall satisfaction is more informative (Kano, 1984).

Aims
The paper will review and extend some classical statistical tools for studying customer satisfaction: IPA and the tetraclasse model (TM; Bodet, 2006). An innovative data learning technique, the lasso, will also be presented.

Research design
A customer satisfaction survey was carried out in November 2011 in the biggest French private indoor climbing centre. A census method was used during one week long (n=921). The questionnaire comprises in particular 25 attribute importance measurements and 25 corresponding performance measurements, each defined on a 4-point Likert scale. These variables describe primary and secondary services, service quality and atmosphere. In addition, overall satisfaction was evaluated. Initially rated as a 10-level Likert scale, it was later recoded as a 4-category ordinal variable.

Methodology and data analysis
IPA studies quality attributes on two dimensions: their performance level (satisfaction) and their importance to the customer. The resulting scatterplot helps to set high and low priorities, and possible overkill. Yet, this EPA display heavily depends on the survey sample size and the variability of both importance and performance measurements. It seems thus interesting to add some confidence intervals to study the robustness of this analysis (Farnum & Hall, 2007). Moreover, some market segmentation by sporting expertise or occupation can be also tested and depicted using the IPA plot.

To study the relationship between an overall satisfaction measurement and attributes performances, the Llosa’s TM employs a correspondence analysis. It is here proved that a similar plot can be obtained using basic percentage computations. Moreover, the resulting scales are easier to interpret and introduce light and shade into manager decisions. Supplementary confidence intervals can again be drawn.

When overall satisfaction is measured on an ordinal response scale, the proportional odds model is a suitable regression tool. To select the most significant attributes performances, automatic selection algorithms are commonly used. However, when the number of explanatory variables is high, selection procedures exhibit a high variability. A different and innovative technique is presented: the lasso (Archer, 2011). By penalizing the coefficients size, more robust estimations are obtained. Plotting the coefficients against the penalizing parameter gives an idea of the results stability. Information criteria help to select the best-fitting model. Standardized coefficient (beta) could then be printed, plotted and interpreted.

Furthermore, to detect the asymmetric impact of attributes performances on overall satisfaction, dummy variables can be introduced to identify excitement, performance and basic factors (Matzler et al, 2004).

Results
IPA indicates that satisfaction and importance are usually high for core services (good and varied routes, route renewal). On the contrary, price, cleanliness and waiting time are considered as important but not so well satisfied. These three attributes and the fitness room (not important in IPA) are classified as “plus” by the TM. The core services and also conviviality and reception quality are considered as “basic”. Advices, supervision and equipment renting seem to be key factors (for beginners). The lasso shows that overall satisfaction is a function of price, core services, reception quality, conviviality and cleanliness.

Discussion and implications/conclusions
The private indoor climbing centre must clearly concentrate its resources on its core services and does not try to become a general leisure centre. Human resources, mostly recruited for their sporting diploma (climbing), must be trained to customer relationship. A particular attention must be given to beginners.

The IPA, the TM, the lasso analysis impact of each attribute’s performance on overall satisfaction and the asymmetric impact analysis will be compared, emphasizing their respective strengths and weaknesses and the different kind of results that can be obtained. It seems nevertheless difficult to give a definitive answer to the question of the best approach. Depending on the manager goals, the measurement scales, the sample size, the prior knowledge about the attributes dimension and the mathematical sophistication of the user, advice may vary. In our mind, the four analyses are more complementary than rival to yield prescriptions for customer satisfaction management.

References


Are the time spent on internet and income level determinants of the motives and concerns of online sport-related product shoppers?

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Abstract keywords:
Consumer behavior, online shopping, motives, concerns, sports-related product.

Theoretical background or literature review and aim of the study
Shim et al. (2001) stated that intention to shop online is influenced by consumers’ Internet shopping history. Past research findings demonstrate that prior online shopping experiences have a direct impact on Internet shopping intentions (Eastlick and Lotz, 1999; Weber and Roehl, 1999). Consumer motivations and concerns shapes consumer behavior, and they drive or prevent online shopping. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to find out whether or not income level, daily time spent on internet, total years spend on online shopping and total years spend on online shopping for sport-products were the determinants of motives (factors driving customers to shop online) and concerns (factors preventing customers from online shopping) of online sport-related product shoppers.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
Among 220,000 customers shopping sport-related products were the population of this study. They were the customers of the most common and the first online retailer in Turkey. From this population, 2716 customer were voluntarily participated in the study. After the elimination of invalid and incomplete questionnaires, a total of 917 online sport product-shoppers were eventually included in this study.

Data were collected by using Motivation Scale for Online Sport Consumption (MSOSC) and Concern Scale for Online Sport Consumption (CSOSC) (Altun, 2011) to find out whether the independent variables were the determinants of motives and concerns of online sport-related product shoppers or consumers.

As the MSOSC consists of 45 items with five subscales; convenience (6 items), information (10 items), diversion (12 items), socialization (8 items) and economic motive (9 items), the CSOSC consists of 24 items with the 5 subscales; security-privacy (7 items), delivery (4 items), product quality (5 items), customer service (5 items) and cost (3 items). Reliability of the scales were determined through internal consistency analysis, and they were found as .91, .96, .95, .93, .93, .96, .85, .92, .92, and .88 respectively.

The scales are self-report instruments which were e-mailed to the customers of a web retailer. They requires the respondent’s to indicate their judgments on a 7-point likert-type scale indicating their level of agreement for each item within a range of “strongly disagree” (1) to “strongly agree” (7).

A linear regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the independent variables and motives and concerns of online sport-related product shoppers.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
The regression results showed that there is a significant relationship between the independent variables and the motives of online sport-related product shoppers [R=.193, R^2=.037, F(4-916)=8.807, p<.01]. In addition, there is a significant relationship between the independent variables and the concerns of online sport-related product shoppers [R=.180, R^2=.033, F(4-916)=6.668, p<.01].

The results revealed that time spent on internet daily, total years spend on online shopping and total years spend on online shopping of sport-related products variables are important determinants of the motives of online sport-related product shoppers except income level. On the contrary, the results revealed that only total years spend on online shopping is an important determinant factor of the concerns of online sport-related product shoppers.

It might be concluded that because of the nature of internet and its offerings, as the time spent on internet increases, online shopping consumers have more to satisfy their needs through internet increases. It motivates people to purchase many things via internet. Additionally, it could also be concluded that as the time spend on the internet increases, the concerns of online shoppers decrease.

References
Marketing strategies applied to the Greek professional sport sector

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Aim – research question
The purpose of the particular research was to determine the degree to which marketing strategies are implemented in Greek professional sport clubs (football and basketball clubs). More specifically, the research question was the following: what are the main marketing strategies that Greek professional sport clubs implement in their marketing plans?

Literature review
Contemporary marketing theory suggests that marketing strategies are generally concerned with the four major elements of the marketing mix (product, price, place and promotion). Most marketing theorists, in their marketing planning models, use the 4Ps as the unchallenged basic model for developing marketing strategies (Andreasen & Koller, 2003; McDonald, 2002). In the sport sector however, due to the unique characteristics of the sport product, marketing strategy should include additional elements such as, sponsorship, television rights, facility planning, physical evidence, processes and people (Shilbury, Quick, & Westerbeek, 1998). Well-conceived, coordinated and effective marketing strategies will facilitate the achievement of the organisational and marketing objectives.

Methodology
The sample of the particular research was 68 managing directors and administrative staff from 22 Greek professional sport clubs (11 football and 11 basketball clubs), which constantly participate in the first division of Greek Championship in the last three years. The questionnaire was developed by the researcher based on the reviewed literature (Kriemadis & Terzoudis, 2007; McDonald, 2002; Shilbury, Quick, & Westerbeek, 1998) as well as on input and suggestions from reviews offered by a selected panel of experts. The questionnaire contained questions relative to the evaluation of the marketing strategies that professional sport clubs implement in their marketing plans. A five-point Likert scale was used to evaluate these factors, where the 1 corresponds to very little, 2=little, 3=some, 4=great and finally 5=very great. Data were analyzed through standard descriptive statistics such as means and standard deviations.

Results
According to survey responses, there are many marketing strategies, which are considered to a “great extent” by managing directors and administrative staff. These strategies are related to: (a) acquisition of sport sponsorship (M=4.3, SD=0.65), (b) TV rights (M=4.2, SD=0.72), (c) distribution of the sport product through media coverage (M=4.17, SD=0.76), (d) promotion of the sport product through advertising (M=4.03, SD=0.99) and (e) price (M=4.01, SD=0.85) However, the rest of the marketing strategies examined, are considered to “some extent” by sport managers, since their means varied between 3 – 3.8. The lowest mean averages are appeared in strategies related to (a) operational processes (M=3.01, SD=0.73), (b) Human Resources (M=3, SD=0.81), (c) physical evidence (M=3.4, SD=0.79) and (d) internet marketing (M=3.4, SD=1.03).

Discussion – implications
Since marketing strategy development plays an important phase role in the effectiveness of a sport organization, sport directors should reexamine the way they develop, evaluate and implement their marketing strategies. More specifically:

- Sport managers pay little attention to strategies concerning quality in their sport clubs [core product, product extensions, main sport facility, processes]. Based on the notion that delivering quality in a service organisation is considered an essential strategy for survival and success (Tsan & Maguire, 1998), Greek professional sport clubs should become more quality-oriented in order to meet the challenges from their business environment. In order to achieve this, they should follow three main principles in their sport organisation: (a) focus on customer satisfaction, (b) seeking continuous and long-term improvement and (c) ensue of full involvement of the entire organisational work force in improving quality (Oakland, 1993).

- Greek professional sport clubs place great emphasis on mass-marketing strategy [advertising, sales promotion, public relations, etc]. Nowadays, the development of new media and technology [computers, modems, e-mails, internet, online services, etc.] permit more sophisticated direct marketing. However, Greek sport clubs place little emphasis on relationship marketing, direct marketing and internet marketing. An establishment of a separate department may be compulsory, in order for sport clubs to develop complete internet marketing strategy.

- Even though Greek professional sport clubs give great importance to sport sponsorship, it is questionable if sport managers develop effective strategies that lead to effective sponsorship arrangements. As sport sponsorship acquisition is a multifunctional operation, professional sport clubs should emphasize on a completely organised strategy and must prepare sponsorship proposals that will attract potential sponsors.
providing them an attractive package of benefits that satisfies their objectives and needs (Stotlar, 2001).

- Finally, sport clubs place little emphasis on strategies related to human resources. Since many researchers have recognised the importance of people in delivering high levels of service quality, professional sport clubs should emphasize on strategies related to the development of human resources (training, empowerment, performance evaluation, etc.).

References

Sport policy
Swedish elite sport at a crossroads? 
Results from a study of government support for elite sport

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Aim of abstract/paper - research question
The Swedish National Centre for Research in Sports (CIF) is a state-funded scientific board with the task to initiate, coordinate, support and disseminate research on sport. Since 2009, CIF has also been responsible for annually examining the government’s support for sport. This includes continuous evaluation through a set of quantitative indicators and thematic in-depth studies on issues identified by the government. For 2011, the government decided that CIF would carry out an in-depth study of the structure and impact of government support for elite sport. A study was conducted in collaboration with several research groups under the guidance of Johan R Norberg, researcher at CIF. The results were reported to the Swedish government in May 2012. The aim of the abstract is to present results from CIF’s analysis of government support for elite sport in Sweden.

Theoretical background or literature review
In Sweden, elite sport has always had a relatively marginal position – at least on a political level (Norberg & Sjöblom 2012, Bergsgard & Norberg 2010). Ideologically, the Swedish Sports Confederation has always preferred to characterise the societal benefits of sport in terms of public health, voluntarism and youth fostering rather than emphasising elite sports accomplishments and medals. In addition, government support for sport has mainly come in the shape of subsidies to sports facilities, grants to youth sport activities and economic support to the administration of the national sporting federations, while targeted investments in elite sport have been few. Furthermore, public funding of elite activities have had an ambivalent position, viewed as somewhat inappropriate in a social democratic welfare regime based on ideals of breadth and equality rather than elitism and ranking.

In recent years, however, the Swedish government has taken several steps to strengthen the international competitiveness of Swedish sport. The breakthrough came in 1998 in the shape of earmarked subsidies for talent-development in Olympic sports, followed in 2009 by a comprehensive and four-year-long elite investment of 22,8 million EUR to be distributed among all sports within the Swedish Sports Confederation. In addition, the government included elite sport among the goals that regulate state support for sports.

In sum, since the turn of the millennium the Swedish government has both recognised elite sports as an area of public concern and, at least to some extent, granted the sports movement’s requests for government support for elite sport and talent development. In 2011, CIF was given the assignment of evaluating the impact of these measures. Theoretically, the survey takes its starting point in current research on increased competition in international elite sport (De Bosscher et al 2008, Houlihan & Green 2008). The overarching question is whether Sweden is about to join “the Global Sporting Arms Race” or if the Swedish government’s support for sports will continue to focus mainly on sports-for-all, voluntarism and youth sports.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
CIF’s survey of Swedish elite sport consists of a number of empirical studies. Johan R Norberg begins with a comprehensive analysis of the Swedish elite sport system. This chapter is mainly based on previously unknown quantitative data relating to sports federations’ economy, scope and results at international championships. Paul Sjöblom of Stockholm University and Josef Fahlén at Umeå University provide a brief account of international tendencies in elite sport support based on a review of international research. Thereafter, Fahlén and Sjöblom also outline the current state of Swedish elite sport, basing their findings on interviews with athletes, coaches and sports managers in eight strategically selected sports. PG Fahlström at the Linnaeus University maps the occurrence of programs for coaching development in Swedish sports based on surveys and interviews with higher education institutions and sports federations. Finally, Norberg highlights sports policy implications of the government’s increased support for elite sport, based on different views of the governments role and responsibility in issues concerning sports and sports policy (Norberg 2011).

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions**
The study shows that the Swedish elite sports system is strongly influenced by the overarching sports-for-all principles that characterize Swedish sports and Swedish sports policy: ideologically, organizationally and in terms of government support. Furthermore, the sports movement’s 244 national teams operate under very different economic conditions. In addition, the government’s objectives concerning elite sports support are vague. This raises the question if the public support to sport is to increase Swedish elite sport performances or to give all sports basic premises to carry out both sports-for-all and elite sports.

References

Elite sport success strategies: a case study of nations’ performance in the Commonwealth Games

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Abstract keywords
Elite sport; performance analysis; specialisation; diversification.

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
This paper explores the strategies used by nations to achieve elite sporting success. In particular, the purpose of the paper is to understand the approaches adopted by nations to win medals in multi-sport multi nation competitions. The event under investigation is the Commonwealth Games. In broad terms, a nation’s strategy might range between specialisation (e.g. focusing on a limited number of sports to achieve medal targets) and diversification (e.g. widening the base of sports in which to target medal success).

Theoretical background or literature review
Previous research on the Commonwealth Games has considered the home advantage phenomena and causal factors (Ramchandani and Wilson, 2010, 2011, 2012). However, there is a growing awareness in academia about the relationship between strategic investment in elite sport and sporting success. Indeed, several nations have shown that accelerated funding in elite sport can lead to an increase in medals won at the Olympic Games (De Boscher et al., 2008). It is therefore not surprising that public sector agencies around the world provide considerable financial support to their elite sport programmes. A critical question, however, is how nations can maximise return on their investment in elite sport in terms of medals’ output? In this context, it is a worthwhile exercise to examine the policies that nations’ employ in their efforts to succeed in elite sport competitions.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The research uses nations’ performance data relating to the most recent edition of the Commonwealth Games (Delhi 2010), collated from the official website of the Commonwealth Games Federation (www.thecgf.com). The performance data provides the basis for three types of analysis, outlined below.
1. Market concentration: This is a measure of the reliance of nations’ medal success on a limited number of sports. For the purpose of this research, the indicators of market concentration include: the proportion of gold and total medals won by nations’ in their single most successful sport (in a given edition); their three most successful sports; and, their five most successful sports.
2. Sports medalled in: This measure examines the number of sports in which a nation wins a medal relative to the total number of sports contested in a given edition.
3. Success by gender: This considers the reliance of overall medal success on events contested by men, women and both men and women (i.e. mixed) events.

For each measure, nations who did not win any medals were treated as being ‘non-competitive’ and excluded from the analysis. Thus, only medal winning nations were eligible for further scrutiny. Of the 71 nations that participated in Delhi 2010, across 17 sports, 24 won at least one gold medal and 36 won a medal of any colour.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
The key findings emerging from the analysis undertaken to this point are summarised below:
1. 11 of the 24 nations (46%) achieved all of their gold medal success in one sport. This statistic increases to 67% and 75% when nations’ top-three and top-five most successful sports are respectively examined. The corresponding figures for total medals (n=36) are broadly comparable - 33% (top); 64% (top-three) and 75% (top-five). This is indicative of relatively high market concentration amongst medal winning nations i.e. over-reliance on few sports to achieve medal success.
2. Only 2 of the 24 nations (8%) that won a gold medal did so in more than 50% of the sports contested (i.e. nine or more sports). The corresponding statistic for total medals is higher, at 17%; but still, these figures strongly suggest that the majority of medal-winning nations tend to specialise in a minority of sports.
3. Analysis by gender reveals that for the most nations, 67%, overall gold and total medal success is delivered primarily through ‘men only’ events. By contrast, ‘mixed’ events contested by both men and women account for less than 25% of nations’ overall gold and total medal success.

These findings provide an insight into the strategies adopted by medal-winning nations in the Commonwealth Games and set the scene for more longitudinal work to examine changes over time. Moreover, it also would be a worthwhile exercise to explore further the identities of the nations that specialise and those that diversify in order to better understand which strategy might be associated with better medal outcomes.

References
A systems perspective on elite sport policy and athlete success in tennis

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Abstract keywords
Systems theory, elite performance, national tennis associations

Aim of abstract
This study used a systems perspective in order to determine the factors that lead to international success in tennis. The focus of this study is on the policies of national tennis associations (NTAs) which are viewed as open systems. More specifically, the study looks at the characteristics of open systems as defined by Chelladurai (2009). These characteristics include (a) the system properties of NTAs, (b) the processes in open systems and (c) the input-throughput-output conceptualisation of NTAs.

Theoretical background
Research on policy factors that influence sport performances of countries has received an increased interest over the past 20 years. De Bosscher et al. (2007) developed a conceptual model of nine policy pillars that lead to international success and concluded that key success determinants might be different for every sport. The increased focus of researchers on the meso-level (i.e., factors that can be influenced by policies) has led to the study of sporting organisations as closed systems, not taking into account their interaction with the environment. However, literature suggests viewing sporting organisations as open systems as they are influenced by the social, cultural and economic conditions of the community in which they operate (Chelladurai, 2009).

Methodology
To explore the crucial factors of domestic policy in elite tennis and athlete success, 35 international tennis experts including high performance directors, coaches’ education managers and other tennis specialists from 15 countries successful in tennis completed a short questionnaire including three open-ended questions. Additionally, 18 of those experts were interviewed in a follow-up study. The responses to the open-ended questions of the questionnaire and the interview transcripts were thematically and inductively analysed using the qualitative software program NVivo.

Results
The results of this study are represented at three levels: (1) the formal policies, (2) the proximal environment and (3) the distal environment of NTAs. At a formal policy level, the experts highlighted ‘financial support’ as an input and 11 areas of throughputs as key success factors. These throughputs are ‘structure and organisation’, ‘tennis participation’, ‘talent identification’, ‘talent development’, ‘athletic support’, ‘post career support’, ‘training facilities’, ‘coaching provision’, ‘coaches’ education’, ‘competition’ and ‘scientific research’. These throughputs are usually located within different departments (or else subsystems) of NTAs. Experts also highlighted the interrelationships between the different throughputs and within subsystems. At the proximal environmental level, experts highlighted the importance of cooperation of NTAs with private high performance tennis academies. For example, one expert said “we want the players of the country to do well, not only the players who train in the national tennis association”. At the distal environmental level, ‘commercial environment’ (i.e., media and sponsors) and ‘culture’ (i.e., tennis culture, school culture and mentality of players) emerged as important areas for international tennis success.

Discussion and implications
At the formal level, the majority of input- and throughput-related areas identified in this study are similar to the nine pillars of the conceptual model of De Bosscher et al. (2007). However, examining NTAs using an open systems approach as suggested by Chelladurai (2009) allowed this study to move beyond the formal structure and policies of NTAs. More importantly, and where the theoretical contribution and innovation of this study lies, is that the open systems approach illustrated the importance of private high performance academies as well as the commercial environment and the culture of the sport for athletes success. In conclusion, this study recommends the use and application of an open systems approach when analysing factors that influence international sporting success to gain a holistic picture. The findings offer sport management practitioners and policy makers insight on the areas that may have been previously overlooked.

References
Effectiveness of sports schools in Latvia

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The Republic of Latvia is bordered by Estonia in the north, Lithuania in the south, Russian Federation in the east, and Belarus in the southeast. Latvia has been a member of the United Nations since September, 1991; NATO since March, 2004; and the European Union since May, 2004. The Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Latvia which is responsible for sports supports the system of sports schools in Latvia. The concept of a sport school originated in the former Soviet Union. As Latvia was part of the former Soviet Union, it followed the lead and established and supported the sports schools. Today there are about 27,000 youth in 65 sport schools offering 37 different kinds of sports. Although the sports schools have been in existence for more than 60 years, there has been no systematic effort to assess the effectiveness of the system of sports schools. The present study is the first attempt to fill this void.

As effectiveness is the extent to which an organization achieves its stated objectives, we identified two significant outcomes envisaged for the Latvian Sports Schools—a) the promotion of an active and healthy lifestyles among the participants and (b) development of athletic talent (Cesu City sport school’s Regulations No.1, point 2). Accordingly, the research was designed to verify if the sports schools were effective in achieving these two objectives.

If the system was successful in cultivating a physically active lifestyle in its participants, it should be reflected in their views of improving the operation of the sports schools, and (c) what were the opportunities for improving the sports school operations, (d) what were the barriers for enhancing the sports school system, and (e) their views of improving the operation of the sports schools. The results of this phase of the study will be presented in the form of [Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats - SWOT] analysis. Finally, the results of all phases of the study and their theoretical and practical implications will be discussed.

References

Weekly leisure-time activity score = \[(9 \times \text{Strenuous}) + (5 \times \text{Moderate}) + (3 \times \text{Mild})\]
Olympic solidarity: evaluating equity in Olympic funding programmes

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Abstract
According to the Olympic Charter, “the aim of Olympic Solidarity is to organise assistance to NOCs, in particular those which have the greatest need” (IOC 2011, p.17) The aim of this paper is therefore to evaluate the extent to which this redistributive claim is evidenced through an analysis of the distribution of the Olympic Solidarity funding; or five decades Olympic Solidarity (OS) has provided a vehicle through which the Olympic Movement has channelled aid to National Olympic Committees (NOCs), as a means of promoting development, with funding allocated to the NOCs from the sale of Broadcasting Rights for the Olympic Games, through ‘World Programmes’, ‘Continental Programmes’, and ‘Olympic Games Subsidies’. In the 2009-2012 quadrennium it is disbursing $134m. through its World Programmes (with a further $122m. distributed by the Continental Associations of NOCs).

Literature review
Changes in distribution policy of Olympic Solidarity as a result of global political issues, and changes in the organisation itself, are reflected in its funding opportunities. There has been little work that addresses OS policy change, notable exceptions include (Housfi, 2002; Al Tauqi 2003; Henny, 2008: and Chamerois, 2006), and that which does focus on OS undertakes no analysis of funding policy. The current paper thus addresses a gap in the literature, and one which has significant relevance for Olympic policy. Through a statistical analysis of patterns of grant aid, the study seeks to identify the nature and extent of funding, and in particular the extent to which funding remains ‘progressive’, supporting those NOCs most in need.

Statistical analysis undertaken incorporates
a. Descriptive analysis of the Programme Grant and Olympic Games Subsidy on a quadrennial basis – in effect an account of ‘who gets what’;

b. Analysis of correlation between grant size and selected variables of GDP per capita (a measure of affluence, and thus an indicator of financial need), Full-Time Employees (indicating the level of professionalisation of NOCs applying for funding); Internet Users per capita (indicating level of technological development); NOC years in operation (experience); and Population (size);

c. Standard Multiple Regression to identify any contribution of the selected variables to explanations of variance in the dependent variables of size of grants received.

Results and discussion
Descriptive Statistical analysis indicates a non-linear increasing level of funding for the Programme Grant from 1985 to 2008, with large disparities in range between individual NOCs, even in the same continent. Olympic Games Subsidy data [which funds participation in the Games and is linked to team size] follows a similar pattern; the disparity also evident between continents.

Correlational analysis illustrates a statistically significant (p<0.01) negative Pearson correlation of .288 to .404 between the GDP per capita and the OS Programme Grant, indicating that starting from the quadrennium 1989-1992, NOCs with a lower GDP per capita had access to more Programme Grant funding than NOCs from more affluent countries. Expenditure patterns up to the period 1997-2000 reflect the redistribution philosophy of Olympic Solidarity, after which the correlation, while still significant and negative, decreases, possibly due to a change in policy opening up programmes formerly reserved for the less affluent to the more developed NOCs. A statistically significant (p<0.01) positive Pearson correlation between Olympic Games subsidies and GDP per capita, of .282 to .379, suggests that higher subsidies were disbursed to NOCs from more affluent countries to support participation in the Games (principally because they send larger teams).

Regression Analysis highlights the population size and NOC experience as the main unique contributors to the explanation of variance in the Programme Grant during the first two quadrennia, later replaced by the GDP per capita, increasingly making the highest statistically significant (p<0.01) unique contribution. Although NOC experience made a minor contribution, the NOC level of professionalism and communication, made the highest statistically significant (p<0.01) unique contribution to the explanation of variance for the Olympic Games Subsidy, during all quadernnia.

Conclusion
The data presented in this paper highlights a progressive pattern of disbursement of the Programme Grant, consistent with Olympic Solidarity aims. This is increasingly evident (though trailing off in the last two quadrennia). This progressive trend however, is, to some extent, neutralised by the pattern of Olympic Games subsidy, benefiting NOCs primarily from the more ‘affluent’ countries. Inequalities between core and periphery in the Olympic world are thus only partially addressed by Olympic Solidarity.

References
Is it Turkey’s turn to host the Olympic Games?
Assessment of recent sport development policy in Turkey

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Abstract keywords: Turkey, Sport Policy, Olympic Games

Aim of abstract
The objectives of this study include: To obtain a perception of Turkish welfare policy, to understand the aims of the Turkish sport development policy, to identify the pathway of the state to international success in sports, to identify the practices used to increase sport participation and elite sport success in Turkey, to articulate the reasons for hosting international sport events from the states’ perspective.

Theoretical background
For decades, sport has been a measure of supremacy between the countries. Olympic medals are tallied as indicators of political and social prowess. Elite sport has evolved into a complex structure beyond competition between athletes, and states are playing a more dominant role in managing sport. There is evidence within the literature that sport as a policy concern has gained a greater salience within government priorities (King, 2009). Examples of state roles in sport can be found in government promotion of sport to increase sport participation, managing sport with a goal of establishing a regulation mechanism on sport bodies, and/or with a goal of producing top athletes (Hoye et. al., 2006). Increased levels of state resources for sport in United Kingdom, Australia and Canada have led to improved performance by their elite athletes this decade (Green, 2007).

Turkey is considered by global economists to be the “rising star” of the Middle East (The Wall Street Journal, 2011). After the financial crisis in 1999, the Turkish government has enacted several precautions on the country’s financial system. Inflation was controlled and gross domestic product of establishing a regulation mechanism on sport bodies, and/or with a goal of producing top athletes (Hoye et. al., 2006). Increased levels of state resources for sport in United Kingdom, Australia and Canada have led to improved performance by their elite athletes this decade (Green, 2007).

Turkey is considered by global economists to be the “rising star” of the Middle East (The Wall Street Journal, 2011). After the financial crisis in 1999, the Turkish government has enacted several precautions on the country’s financial system. Inflation was controlled and gross domestic product starting in 2002. The state has focused not only on the development of elite athletes but also organizing global sport events and building facilities to host them. Examples of sport events organized in Turkey during the last decade include the Istanbul Grand Prix Formula 1 [2005 – 2011], Universiade Summer Games 2005, UEFA Champions League Final 2005, UEFA Cup Final 2009, FIBA World Championships 2010, Universiade Winter Games 2011, European Youth Olympic Festival 2011, WTA Championships 2011. Other events including the IAAF World Indoor Championship 2012, Euroleague Final Four 2012, WTA Championships 2012-2013, Mediterranean Games 2013, and FIBA World Championship for Women 2014 are scheduled for the near future. Key premises for these investments include increasing the sport participation numbers of Turkish youth, improvement of Turkish elite athletes performance and consolidation of the sport image of Turkey. However, sport participation has made little progress the past decade, and Turkish athletes won only 8 medals in total at the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games, ranking 37th among competing countries (Hurriyet Spor, 2008).

Methodology, research design and data analysis
In this research semi-structured in-depth interviews will be conducted with former Turkish sport ministers who were the highest decision-making authorities in sport for the Turkish government. Each interview will be recorded and later transcribed. Data generated from the interviews will be content analyzed, and results examined in comparison with the findings of the existing literature on Canadian and Australian cases, which provide concrete examples of successful policies in increasing participation and improving athlete’s performance before they hosted Olympic Games. The research universe spans the timeline 1999 to 2012. From 1999 until 2002 there was coalition of three different parties (DSP, MHP, ANAP) in the power. After 2002 until today the same party “AKP” is the ruling party of Turkey. The ideologies of these parties vary. Between 1999 and 2011, Turkey has had six different sport ministers. The four ministers who were in charge for more than one year will be interviewed in April and May 2012. An additional interview will be made with Turkish National Olympic Committee Chairman, Ugur Erdener, who is also a member of IOC. They will be questioned about Turkish sport policy, sport participation, elite sport, sport events and promotion of sports in Turkey.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
This is a work-in-progress study and therefore the results and discussions are as yet to be determined. Data acquisition and analyses are ongoing. Nevertheless this will be the first academic study with data provided by the highest sport authorities in Turkey. Contributions of the study will be the determination of internal and external goals of Turkish sport policy, the desired targets and possible effects of organizing international sport events, and possible reasons for the limited success in raising more top Turkish athletes.

References
Sport development is dead, long live sport management?

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Sport policy track
The focus of this paper is to critically evaluate conceptions, perceptions and interpretations of sport development and sport management. In particular, and using the UK as a case study, the paper will aim to help shed light on the way that the policy contexts dictate the application of sport practices. The analysis, in this respect, concerns policy responses to conceptions of sport development and sport management as a counterpoint to the view that these two terms are often viewed as responses to policy. Whilst sport development is a common term in the UK, in mainland Europe, and further afield in the USA sport management is preferred as the soubriquet of choice in relation to the development of sport – in all its guises. The background to sport development in the UK is something of a paradox. Whilst many new sport facilities were developed from the 1970s onwards it wasn’t until the Thatcherite era of the 1980s and 1990s that a ‘field’ began to emerge from the opportunistic and utilitarian presumption that the promotion of sport would have beneficial outcomes for social and civic order (Coghlan, 1990, Wicker et al 2009).

Certainly in the UK the concept of development can be interpreted in many different ways (Girginov, 2008). Allied to sport, development has often been taken to indicate a positive process of change or a means of progression. This affirmative relationship has been associated with sport performance and participation, community relations, health (e.g. smoking cessation), self confidence and crime reduction. In short, reflecting the development ‘of’ and ‘through’ sport dichotomy that tends to be accepted normatively in the UK (Houlihan and White, 2002).

It is unquestionably the case that in the UK (and perhaps in mainland Europe) sport development is under threat directly and indirectly from policy actors and the discourses to which they contribute. In the UK, a discourse of austerity, public sector retrenchment and espousal of the ‘Big Society’ (Cameron, 2010) has caused many to look anew at both sport resources and resources for sport.

Using an approach that blends semi-structured interview data from policy actors and sport practitioners with key document analysis, this paper will conceptually clarify the areas of sport development and sport management and identify limitations to both traditions. The analysis will help focus attention on a) how sport practitioners operate within particular policy contexts; b) whether debates over nomenclature help or hinder the promotion of sport and sporting practices; and c) whether the power of the rhetoric of austerity has shifted expectations and interpretations of the value of sporting practice. Moreover, in pursuing this line of interrogation this paper asserts that the opportunity structure for the organisation and development of sport has shifted from sport development to sport management in the UK and beyond.

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Comparative analysis of the effectiveness of sport promotion networks

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Theoretical background & aims
In recent years networks appear everywhere in the public and non-profit sectors. Policy networks gained importance because they are considered to be an organizational form that can address ‘wicked’ problems (Jackson & Stainsby, 2000). From government’s perspective, networks are also more and more seen as a constructive managerial tool to improve cooperation between relevant agents, especially in service provision (Provan & Milward, 2001). Other factors that can lead to the creation of a network are sector failure, aiming to reduce the transaction costs and problems arising from bad coordination (McGuire & Agranoff, 2007). Networks are already fully integrated in health and social care, local development and education. In the sport sector, networks are also existing and worthwhile studying in depth, but until today they are hardly ever examined. What has been lacking most, is the empirically research of the relationship between the network properties and measures of effectiveness. The purpose of this paper is to empirically detect characteristics that influence the effectiveness of sport promotion network outcomes to address the existing research gap. This article hopes to bring new empirical insights to a research field that has been expanding the past decade, but where most work has been conceptual, anecdotal or based on a single descriptive case.

Case description & research questions
As mentioned before, the history of networks in sport is rather short. Therefore, it is quite difficult to find a sport related, good structured and mature cluster of networks to study empirically. In health promotion, these networks are more available. For this study, we have decided to work with health networks working on the promotion of physical activity. We are convinced that the approaches used in these networks are also suitable for the genuine sport sector. In 2009, the Government of Flanders provided funding for the implementation of a project called ‘10,000-Steps’ in the entire region (Van Acker, De Bourdeaudhuij, De Cocker, Klesges, & Cardon, 2011). This program was developed to stimulate people to be more physically active in all areas of life (transport, work, leisure) by encouraging them to take 10.000 steps a day (Van Acker, et al., 2011). Research has shown that adults should achieve at least 10.000 steps per day to improve health and well-being. The implementation of this project was guided through 13 existing regional networks, called the LOGO’s. For the project the LOGO’s were free select their partners. Considering the unique setting of 13 networks with common goals and a comparable compilation, but with their own approach and network specific characteristics, they form an ideal research set-up to find out more about the functioning of sport promotion networks and more precise which network determinants influence the realization of the network effectiveness.

Methodology & data analysis
Provan and Milward (2001) argue that network effectiveness should be measured through multilevel analysis. They suggest that networks are evaluated at three levels: the community, the network and the organization level. The community level was already evaluated in 2010 based on the RE-AIM model (Van Acker, et al., 2011). The evaluation at the network level and organization level was performed based on the theoretical model of Parent and Harvey (2009). The model contains 15 constructs that come under 3 groups: attributes of partnership, communication and decision making. Data were collected through semi-structured interviews with the 13 LOGO’s, which were audio-taped, transcribed and coded with NVivo software.

During the data-collection, the importance of triangulation was kept in mind; therefore, additional information was gathered through document analysis and questionnaires.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
Preliminary results show a large influence of two exogenous on the functioning of almost all networks: the geographical reduction from 25 to 13 networks and a switch from a bottom-up to a top-down functioning. Networks have an average of 30 partners which are mostly local sport administrations, local welfare centres and primary health care organizations. A carefully-worded conclusion could be that the success factors are a strong identity, the communication between the different partners and the competences of the network staff. Some negative factors are the lack of experience of the network partners and the absence empowered people in the network partner organizations. We are aware that this study relates largely to the health and welfare sector, but taking into account that these sectors have more experience and the sport relevant content of the chosen project, we are convinced that our findings can benefit the functioning of other sport promotion and sport-for-all networks and bring new insights into the whole sport sector.

References
The governance in sport(s)
UEFA financial fair play – the curse of regulation

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Abstract keywords
UEFA; Financial Fair Play; Sport Organisation; Governance; Regulation;

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
This paper tries to answer whether UEFA’s Financial Fair Play concept will be effective in achieving the envisaged goals of bringing more financial rationality and discipline in European football.

Theoretical background or literature review
Despite rising revenues the majority of the top league European professional football clubs report record aggregate net losses every year. However, enforced by the expanding influence of private investors on the football business, in the “rat race” for sporting success on both national and European level, the access for clubs to external financial resources is not evenly allocated. From a financial perspective, European club football nowadays is therefore far away from the idea of equal opportunities. Given the correlation between sporting success and the clubs expenses for player wages (Szymanski, 2003) this must consequently result in a decline in Competitive Balance. Six years ago Lago, Simmons & Szymanski (2006) proposed tighter financial regulation from UEFA as a possible means to combat financial instability in European football. Also recent studies confirm the necessity of regulative measures (A.T. Kearney, 2010).

Against the backdrop of these undesirable developments, UEFA saw an urgent need for action and in September 2009 its Executive Committee approved the Financial Fair Play concept, which comes into force in the 2013/14 season. The core element of the new so called club-monitoring is the break-even requirement: Once the rule takes effect the relevant expenses of a club are no longer allowed to exceed its relevant income. Yet during the first years after the implementation, acceptable deviations to the break-even criterion are allowed. With regard to the financial aspect, UEFA aims at the protection against a continuing over-indebtedness of the clubs. Although not explicitly mentioned, the intended goals also refer to the aspect of Competitive Balance (Vöpel, 2011), as a long-term viability and sustainability of European club football can only be achieved by securing a Competitive Balance on a level that does not endanger the suspense between clubs and leagues alike.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The study sets out with a review of the literature findings from previous research on the financial situation in European professional football. Afterwards, UEFA’s new regulations and the relevant literature are discussed. Subsequent sections examine the relationship between the major stakeholders from an agency-theory perspective. By applying game-theory (building on Haugen & Solberg, 2010) – thereby assuming cloned teams and (more realistic) un-cloned teams in their decision to hire expensive/cheap talent – the probable behavior and the dilemma many European football clubs will be facing are shown. The paper furthermore identifies a number of potential loopholes of the current concept which clubs could use to their advantage as a consequence of being in a Prisoner Dilemma (PD).

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
The relationship between UEFA and the European football clubs could be described as a principal-agent relationship, with UEFA as the principal commissioning the task to adhere to the Financial Fair Play regulations to the clubs (agents). An agency-problem arises due to different interests and asymmetric information. This gives rise to opportunistic behavior of the clubs (moral hazard), which in this case is enforced by the competition or rivalry between them. The incentive of the clubs is to have more financial resources for hiring talent than their competitors. Therefore, it can be assumed that the clubs will only pretend to adhere to the new regulations, while UEFA must monitor their abidance. Due to nowadays increasingly more complex company structures of professional football clubs and the sophisticated outsourcing of liabilities, UEFA faces a difficult challenge in assessing the documents of 236 licensees in total. Thus, monitoring costs can be assumed to be remarkably high.

Potential loopholes of the concept in its current form range from several possibilities in which ways the figures of relevant income and expenses could be improved to exception provisions of UEFA itself. A game-theory approach illustrates the mechanisms why clubs will tend to exploit these loopholes. In the case a club is convicted of not respecting the criteria, it faces a number of sanctions up to the withdrawal of the license for the upcoming European competitions. While this risk might deter smaller clubs with lesser financial capabilities of trying to bypass the regulations, the aggressive strategy (PD) even becomes more attractive to big clubs. Hence, they gain competitive advantage to their rivals and the gap between the clubs widens. In any case, the authors assume that the new regulations result in higher costs for accounting and therefore less money available for investment in talent. Nevertheless it must be stated that the presents of sugar daddies may reduce and at least their power will diminish.

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The governance in sport[s]

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Problems ahead? UEFA financial fair play and the English Premier League

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Abstract keywords
Football, Finance, Governance, UEFA Financial Fair Play

Methodology, research design and data analysis
Through analysis of the financial accounts of 1.5 clubs that have competed in the EPL for each of the last three seasons 2008-2010, the paper tests the concept of break-even outlined by FFP and examines how many clubs in the EPL would be in danger of not meeting the break-even requirement at the present time taking into account the ‘acceptable loss’ period. The figures come from the company accounts of clubs as opposed to any group or holding company accounts to provide consistency within the study.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
Only four EPL clubs made an aggregate profit (Arsenal, Blackburn, Manchester United and Tottenham). A further five clubs meet the criteria of an aggregated £39m loss over three seasons (highlighted in bold in the table) but clubs such as Fulham and Wigan, who struggle to obtain higher attendances and lack the greater commercial appeal of their EPL competitors, fall towards the higher end of the aggregated loss scale and if that figure continues to rise (as is the case with Fulham) then these clubs will find it difficult to compete financially. More alarmingly, six clubs have aggregate losses that exceed the £39 million threshold (shaded grey in the table) two of which (Chelsea and Manchester City) competed in the 2010/11 Champions League. Many clubs in England now rely on investment from a wealthy benefactor and there is an argument that the regulations could rein in benefactor investment. Consequently, FFP could further widen the gap between the established clubs that compete in Europe on a regular basis and the rest of the league.

Analysing clubs directly against FFP is difficult without internal access. Furthermore, the break-even analysis is essentially the only factor considered, meaning that there are inherent shortcomings within Financial Fair Play. Alternatively, it would be more prudent to consider the financial performance of clubs in relation to a number of key indicators of business performance. The question of where next for UEFA and Financial Fair Play must be considered.

References – limited to 5

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Abstract keywords
football, financial performance, governance, financial modelling, FOrNeX model

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
The aim of this paper is to develop a model that utilises both sporting and financial variables to provide a more holistic measure of football club’s performance in the English Premier League.

Theoretical background or literature review*
In light of the forthcoming UEFA Financial Fair Play Regulations (FFP) and the increasing pressure of clubs to be more prudent with their financial management, it is a particularly relevant time to investigate the financial performance of professional football clubs and how financial performance is measured. With reference to the English Premier League (EPL), financial data shows that clubs are leveraged by significant levels of debt (nearly £3bn in 2010) and that a financial paradox exists; with rising revenues (approximately £2bn in 2010) and declining profitability. Figures from Deloitte confirm this trend throughout Europe with greater imbalances between revenue and costs for clubs in Europe’s ‘big five’ leagues (see also Andreff, 2007 among others). A number of papers have debated the concept of financial performance of football clubs in recent years. Some have been descriptive (see Hamil and Walters, 2010), whilst others have put forward in depth statistical analysis (see Barros and Garcia-del-Barrio, 2008). However, what is apparent is that there is no fixed model or identification of variables that measure financial performance accurately. The aim of this paper is to develop a model that utilises both sporting and financial variables to provide a more holistic measure of EPL clubs’ performance, empirically, through the application of a weighted average methodology (see Andrikopoulos and Kaimenakis, 2009).

For some, a more statistical approach would involve using Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) to measure the efficiency of professional sports teams (see Carmichael, Thomas and Ward, 2000 among others). These involve using a number of different inputs and outputs (e.g. points obtained, attendance figures, player salaries, turnover figures etc.) in order to compute an overall efficiency score of both individual clubs and leagues. However, whilst DEA analysis has proven useful in computing efficiency scores, it does not help to create a model, that consists of a number of different sporting and financial variables, which can be applied to provide an overall performance score for professional sports clubs.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
To investigate the calculation of a financial performance score, the paper utilises the FOrNeX model (see Andrikopoulos and Kaimenakis, 2009) which outlines how the intellectual capital of a football club is measured. Taking this further, the paper applies a weighted average methodology to a number of both sporting and financial variables in order to calculate a composite index score of overall performance. Higher weightings are assigned to variables directly linked to the UEFA FFP regulations and then in order of importance from a basic business perspective. The method builds on the principles of FFP by analysing financial performance in relation to a greater number of financial performance objectives. Performance variables for each club are ranked against other clubs in the league providing an ‘intra-industry’ comparison and benchmark. Financial data was obtained from the company accounts of English Premier League clubs over a five year period from 2006-2010. The number of clubs was standardised so that all clubs must have competed in every Premier League season during that time to be included within the study. Consequently, 13 clubs were selected for analysis and each club obtained a performance score for each one of the five years calculated through 11 variables each time.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
Our analysis reveals that the results obtained for the overall performance index score are broadly consistent with those obtained through focusing on financial performance and sporting performance separately. Notably, four teams (Manchester United, Arsenal, Liverpool and Tottenham) appear in the top 5 of all three performance tables. Chelsea rank high on sporting performance but return the worst financial performance owing to the fact that they are heavily reliant on a borrowings from a wealthy benefactor. A similar trend might be expected to occur in the case of Manchester City in the coming years. From a sustainability perspective, the clubs that rank towards the bottom of all three tables (e.g. Fulham, Wigan and Bolton) should be regarded as the ‘at risk’ clubs. This point is further underlined by the forthcoming FFP regulations which will make it very difficult for less established clubs to close the gap on the more established peers if clubs can only spend within their means. Whilst the move is prudent from a business perspective, it may prove just to facilitate the rich getting even richer and perhaps undermining the basic principles of UEFA FFP.

References – limited to 5

Limit on foreign players in Russian football – step forward or backward?

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In 2005, a historic decision was made by Russian Football Union – the limit on foreign players was approved. According to this project the number of foreign players on the field has to be 7 in seasons 2006-2007, 6 in 2008-2009 and 5 in 2010. However, in 2009 the leading football clubs demanded to keep the limit under 2008-2009 formula. Russian Football Union confirmed their desire and, hence, it is “5+6” rule, 5 native players and 6 foreign players, that is actual today.

The reason for such important change in league design was dictated by poor performance of Russian national team in 2005. Introduction of quota on foreign players seemed to be a solution to the main problem – development of new talents for national team. According to the charter of Russian Football Union the limit on foreign players should also solve general problems such as increase in competitiveness of national league, enhancement of commercial value, support of national football at different age levels.

The following paper aims to analyze whether the limit on foreign players fulfilled the objectives for which it was developed. For this purpose the effects on competitiveness in the league, its commercial value and number of new young players in national team are investigated. If the growth in all these categories is positive then introduction of limit is certainly a step forward in football development. In case the results for selected variables are controversial to define the role of quota on foreign players, the pivotal priority would be given to the core reason of limit introduction – young players in Russian squad.

Changes in Russian Premier-League competitiveness are evaluated by adapting the dynamic competitive balance method developed by Trudo Dejonghe and Troels Troelsen. To investigate relationship between limit and development of new players for Russian national team, the squad changes will be explored in relation to time dynamics. Finally, the commercial value of the football league is measured by tracking trends in TV-broadcasting and attendance of matches.

In addition to these analyses, all stakeholders involved in question of implementation the limit are determined and their impact on the process is investigated. For the following research the “stakeholder salience” proposed by Mitchell, Agle and Wood is used in combination with “stakeholder analysis” of Parker and Stone.

The results of investigations are the following.

The most powerful stakeholders in question of limit implementation in Russia are certainly Russian Football Union and Russian top clubs. However, the main beneficiaries are Russian players and their agents who get higher financial profits in comparison to the period prior to the reform. The positive result of quota on foreign players was competitiveness increase in Russian Premier-League as dynamic competitive balance analysis suggest. There is no hegemony of few teams in the tournament anymore. Most important of all, the limit on foreign players forced owners of Russian clubs to pay more attention to development of youth academies rather than purchasing strong players from other countries.

Of course, the limit on foreign players is orientated on long-term and, hence, the effect of it will be evident in 5-10 years. Despite this drawbacks are evident already today. The number of young players [under 24 years] in Russian national team has reduced from 38% to 13%. Arrival of world-stars is constrained thus slowing down the growth of matches attendance and commercial value of the tournament as TV-product. The latest example is football club Anji which purchased global world-stars (e.g. Roberto Carlos, Eto’O) in 2011 and increased the overall attendance of matches by 48% in one year. Russian top clubs oppose the quota on foreign players because it decreases their competitiveness comparing with European clubs. The latter ones play under single rule the entire season while Russian clubs play under one rule [with limit] in Russian league and under another [without limit] in European championships. The main problem that emerged after introduction of limit is drastic rise in salaries of native players that brought some clubs closer to the bankruptcy.

To conclude, until now limit on foreign players did not fulfill its core objective and even brought new challenges. Quota on foreign players alone will not provide desired benefits. Other measures are required such as efficient youth academies, better promotion of league, new infrastructure. If these and other measures suggested in this paper will be implemented, then Russia will make one step forward in the development of national football rather than one backward in comparison to the period prior to the reform.

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The Social Dialogue Committee in professional football: a suited venue for democratic network governance?

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Abstract keywords
social dialogue, governance networks, governance arrangements, football governance, democratic governance

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
The aim of the paper is to assess the recent (19 April 2012) agreement on minimum requirements for Standard Players Contracts between UEFA, FIFPro (footballers), ECA (clubs) and EPFL (leagues) concluded within the context of the European sectoral social dialogue committee in professional football, installed in 2008. This paper will not examine the content of the agreement (See Colucci and Geeraert, 2012), but rather investigate the network of actors that negotiated and concluded the agreement. In particular, using new governance approaches, the governance arrangement will be assessed on its democratic legitimacy.

Theoretical background or literature review
In European professional football, economic, political and legal driving forces have led to a more important role for stakeholders organisations FIFPro, ECA and EPFL; and an increasing EU involvement in the sector (e.g. Garcia 2007; Geeraert, Scheerder and Bruyninckx; 2012). These developments have led to the emergence of a governance network of European football, where more levels of government (multi-level) and various actors (multi-actor) are involved in the policy process (Geeraert et al.; 2012). The European sectoral social dialogue committee in professional football can be regarded as a governance arrangement within the network of European professional football. In fact, this venue exemplifies the movement away from the strict pattern of vertical channels of authority towards a new form of horizontal, networked governance. The emergence of a new, horizontal networked governance in football provides new and interesting areas of research. In recent years, a second generation body of generic governance network literature has emerged, focusing on the democratic performance of governance networks (see e.g. Sørensen and Torfing 2005). This new field of theory mainly focuses on the anchorage of governance networks in traditional democratic institutions and generally accepted principles of democratic procedures. As Forster (2006, p.75) rightly puts, there is however a gap in the existing literature concerning sport governance networks, despite the fact that sport has profound socioeconomic consequences. Therefore, it is now time to focus on the democratic performances of these networks. This paper will make a contribution to the governance network literature in the area of sport and will provide suggestions for future substantive research.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
Starting from a realist ontology and a critical rationalist epistemology, the authors of this paper assume that one can only assess the democratic functioning of a network of organisations when a conceptual framework is pre-developed. Therefore, a strong theoretical framework on the democratic performance of governance networks is needed in order to analyse the democratic legitimacy of the governance arrangement that lead to the agreement on minimum requirements for Standard Players Contracts. Sørensen and Torfing’s (2005, p. 197) “Democratic Anchorage Model” is the first holistic proposition in governance network theory for a ready-made model, applicable to any specific governance network in order to analyse its democratic legitimacy.

However, this Model in itself will not suffice to analyse the democratic performance of a governance network arrangement in sport for several reasons. First of all, it is a relatively broad framework which does not capture the specificities and peculiarities of every specific governance network. Therefore, it can merely give an idea on the democratic functioning of the assessed network. Secondly, the democratic anchorage model is not suited for the special nature of sport governance networks, in which sports bodies have a regulatory role next to the state, whose regulatory powers in the field of sport are increasing. Therefore, assuming a more relativist epistemology, the Democratic Anchorage Model will have to be adapted and specified in order for it to be suitable to
analyse the democratic legitimacy of the governance network of European football. From this framework, minimum requirements of democratic performance will be drawn and applied to data collected from a mixture of primary sources and secondary literature. Firstly, a systemic review of policy documents, statutes, formal decisions and press content will be conducted. Secondly, since decision-making within the network still goes through convoluted and unclear processes (Geeraert et al., 2012), the gathering of data will also have to proceed by conducting semi-structured interviews with persons who will be selected on the basis of their (key) positions in the relevant organisations.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
At this time, results are not yet available. Based on arrangements with potential interviewees, it is expected that by the time of the conference, the most substantial part of data collecting will have taken place and therefore the provisional findings will be processed into a scientifically valuable paper.

References
Athletes, athletes’ commissions, and the governance of international sport organisations

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Abstract keywords
Athlete representation, Democratisation of international sport federations, Governance

Aim of research
In recent years, there has been increased focus on the governance of sport organisations at the international level (cf. Forster, 2006; Houlihan, 2004; Katwala, 2000). Part of this focus has included concerns that athletes have often not been considered as central stakeholders in the governance of sport. Recent highly mediatised events involving the deaths of athletes in prominent international sport events (i.e., in competition and/or in training) have raised issues about athletes’ safety and well-being in international sport (cf. the death of Georgian luger Nodar Kumaritashvili in a training run at the 2010 Vancouver Olympic Winter Games; the death of Canadian Sarah Burke in training at a 2012 Superpipe freestyle ski Monster-sponsored event in 2012 in Park City, Utah, United States; and the death of Canadian Nik Zoricic at the 2012 World Cup Skicross event in Grindelwald, Switzerland). In some of these cases, athletes had publicly raised concerns about the design and safety of these courses/events, however, decision makers and policy makers seemingly did not take their voices into consideration (cf. Robinson, 2012).

Theoretical background/literature review
As noted by Thibault, Kihl, and Babiak (2010, p. 297), “athlete involvement in the management of IFs [international sport federations] appears to have increased in recent years, however, their level of effectiveness or impact on decision making/policy making remains largely unknown. Additional research is needed to investigate the impact athletes have had on the governance of IFs.” The authors also explained that additional research focusing on interviewing athletes about “the most effective methods for their involvement in policies and decisions that affect them” could lead to “better governance of these organizations” (Thibault et al., 2010, p. 298). Building on this work and on the works of Forster (2006) and Katwala (2000) on the governance and democratisation of international sport federations as well as on the representation of athletes’ voices in international sport federations, the purpose of this research was to investigate the role of athletes and the Athletes’ Commissions in the governance of sport organisations. Specifically, we are interested in the roles athletes play individually and collectively as members of their international sport federation’s Athletes’ Commission and their impact on the decision making and policy making within their international sport federations.

Research method
A qualitative approach was selected to study the Athletes’ Commissions within a select number of international sport federations (i.e., Badminton World Federation, Fédération internationale de ski, and International Triathlon Union). The first step in the study consisted of analyses of organisational documents and the sport federations’ websites as well as initial contact with the executives of the federations to determine the existence of an Athletes’ Commission and the involvement of athletes within this commission. The second step is ongoing and consists of interviews with members of the Athletes’ Commissions along with members of the Executive Committee of the international sport federations to uncover the role athletes and Athletes’ Commissions play in decisions and policies that directly affect athletes in international sport.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
Initial findings revealed that leaders of sport federations are not always acting in the athletes’ best interests. Leaders tend to make policies and decisions related to the protection and/or promotion of the commercial interests of their federation rather than on the welfare of their athletes. The findings also found a disconnect between the perceptions of leaders in the roles athletes and Athletes’ Commissions play in the governance of international sport federations and the perceptions of athletes. Leaders believe athletes and members of the Athletes’ Commissions are involved in decisions that directly affect them while athletes and members of the Athletes’ Commissions feel their involvement is mostly superficial; their input is rarely sought, and their concerns are not often considered. This finding is supported by previous research where the representation of athletes in international sport federations was mostly tokenistic in nature (Houlihan, 2004). Therefore, even if leaders of international sport federations appear to involve greater athlete representation in their governance, athletes and members of Athletes’ Commissions believe their voices are not heard when decisions and policies that affect them are made. Recommendations to enhance athlete involvement in decision making and policy making within international sport federations will be provided as well as suggestions for future research.

References
The governance in sport(s)

The impact of political governance on the reform and change of sports: the case study of judo in Greece

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Key Words: governance, political sport governance, non-profit sport organisations, judo

Purpose:
The main aim of this paper is to examine the impact of political governance to the reform of Judo in Greece and to show the ways and degree of influence of governmental factors on the governance of non-profit sport organisations using as a case study the sport of Judo in Greece. Based on theoretical research and empirical evidence, it further intends to contribute to a better understanding of the factors influencing the change and reform of non-profit sport governing bodies in this country. The paper uses as a theoretical framework the concept of political sport governance. Judo has been chosen as a case study because even though non profit sports organisations, including judo, have received little in depth attention in Greece, the given sport has shown significant successes in world tournaments, European and world championships and even the Olympic Games over the past decade.

Background:
In the past few years, emphasis has been given to the study of the concept of governance in relation to sports after a strong shock of credibility and legitimacy in the operation of world sports (Beech & Chadwick, 2004). In sports, governance can be perceived as the formation of a system through which each organisation will be able to achieve its goals using direction, control and adjustment of the different parts that form it (Haye & Cuskelly, 2007). In Europe, a wide range of sport governance systems exist from fully free sport movement systems to systems with fair state involvement (Petry et al. 2004).

In general, there are three main approaches to sport governance: systemic, organisational and political (Beech & Chadwick, 2004). This paper concentrates on political governance and focuses on the way governments try to influence the change and reform of non-profit sport governing bodies in this country. The paper uses as a theoretical framework the concept of political sport governance. Judo has been chosen as a case study because even though non profit sports organisations, including judo, have received little in depth attention in Greece, the given sport has shown significant successes in world tournaments, European and world championships and even the Olympic Games over the past decade.

Observation was also widely used as a tool to collect many pieces of information on a few specific areas of research, such as the implementation of reform plans and central government policies.

Findings:
The key finding of this research was that political sport governance may contribute to a particular sport’s reform in Greece for as long as sport governing bodies are willing to take the chance to change. In addition, the role of the board is quite critical to the practice of governance, as it may prove to be a brake rather than a tool of efficient implementation of governance plans (Ferkins et al., 2008). However, sport governing bodies such as Federations should be more involved in national discussions concerning sport policies. Up until now, such sport federations have been excluded from these discussions and therefore, government sport supervising bodies (ie General Secretariat of Sport) create policies without taking into account several differences among different sports, making it harder for the federations to implement their plans to further reform. In the case of Judo in Greece, any reform has mainly been the result of the federation’s will to do so. Finally, this paper could also be used as a tool for further exploration of the interaction between governmental and non-governmental Greek, sport organisations.

Methodology:
The research is based on documentary analysis as well as theoretical research and empirical evidence through observation, interviews and media sources. The sport of Judo has been used as a single case study.

The main focus was on the conduct of semi-structured interviews with selected Judo officials in Greece who were encouraged to refer and comment on the changes that have occurred to the sport of Judo over the past twelve years. Observation was also widely used as a tool to collect many pieces of information on a few specific areas of research, such as the implementation of reform plans and central government policies.

Bibliography
The political economy of baseball developments in the United States, Japan, and Taiwan

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Keywords: baseball development, specific skill, social capital, local autonomy, comparative political economy

Taiwanese baseball has long been plagued by the under-development of 12k baseballs, medals and trophyism, game fixing and over-training and overuse of baseball players at all levels of the baseball sports (Yu, 2004). We try to look for solutions to these problems by first comparing features of baseball developments in Taiwan, Japan, and the U.S. We then try to develop a structural theory that allows us to explain the varieties of baseball development in these three countries. Finally, based on the theory constructed, we will also make policy and management recommendations to tackle the aforesaid problems.

With respect to the endogenous dimension, we assume that knowledge and skills in baseball sports are tacit and require tremendous investments of time and resources to excel (Berman, Down & Hill, 2002). In addition, the highly industry- or even team-specific nature of these knowledge and skills, plus the susceptibility to injuries, all make the human capital of baseball players, especially the pitchers, highly vulnerable. Particularly, pitchers are exposed to risks associated with sustained micro-trauma, which differs greatly from the risk inherent in other sports or from random injury. Therefore, how to adopt measures to protect the physical condition, knowledge and skills of baseball players has become a core aspect in the management of baseball sports.

For example, the existence of minor leagues composed of six levels of baseball teams in the U.S. allows both baseball teams and players to enter into the extremely intense and risky major league baseball in a rather incremental and more manageable fashion. In minor league teams, suspended MLB players can revive or recuperate and potential MLB players can be trained and evaluated all carefully with the help of sports physiology, kinematics, nutrition, orthopedics and sports medicine. This is in stark contrast with the Taiwanese case where professional baseball teams exist alone without any reserve teams. Consequently, professional baseball teams and players rush into annual contracts without sufficient mutual trust. This in turn results in the rampant game fixing problems by players and the popular overuse of players by professional teams.

In terms of the exogenous dimension, social institutions and public policies of each country will have to be examined. We argue that the existence of intensive social capital and social groups is the precondition for high levels of demand for sports activities (Nicholson & Hoye, 2008). As pointed out by Fukuyama (1996) and Putnam (1993), in countries like the U.S. and Japan where local governments have enjoyed high levels of autonomy, local elite have to be responsible for the long-term development of the whole locality. To engage in long-term development, local elite will initiate a large number of spontaneous social groups, baseball groups at all levels of the sport included. Intensive participation of social groups in community baseball will then become the foundation on which the supply of baseball players, baseball infrastructures and audiences develop.

In sum, we argue that the major concern of baseball management is how to strike the balance between better performance and the vulnerable human capital while maintaining a certain level of intensity in the games.

We expect to be able to surpass the varieties of sports management in different countries and explore the possibilities of bridging the gap of the different institutions within which these different styles of management are embedded. By doing so, we will be able to trace management problems back to their roots and make better policy and management recommendations. Thus, we expect our research will be able to generate more meaningful interpretations of the different management practices in different countries.

References
The development of basketball in Taiwan: from the perspectives of theories of governance and strategic relations

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Introduction / aims
This study seeks to identify the nature of governance of the sport of basketball in the Taiwanese context focusing on three critical issues. One of these issues related to a critical incident, namely, the collapse of the Chinese Basketball Alliance (CBA), a second to a critical process, the operation of the Super Basketball League (SBL), and a third to a critical element of the policy context, namely relations with People Republic of China.

Theory / literature review
Two complementary theoretical approaches are adopted in this study, those of governance theory (Henry & Lee, 2004) and a strategic-relational approach (Jessop, 1990; Hay, 2002), which allows us to identify how such outcomes were mediated and shaped, and in particular how different sets of interests were implicated, how power was exercised, and whose interests were met in governance decisions.

Henry and Lee (2004) suggest there are three approaches to governance evident in the literature - systemic, organisational and political governance. The notions of systemic and political governance are useful to this study as the study seeks to analyse the interaction between various stakeholders in order to understand the nature of their action and how they exercise their power. Governance structure works with influence from other structures. In the Taiwanese sporting context, social class, political structures, media, sponsors, coaches, players and club owners are groups of stakeholders whose interests and actions are relevant to governance issues. This study aims not only to ‘describe’ the governance system as an interaction of stakeholders but also to ‘explain’ which stakeholders win in different battles on the basis of for example social class or political support. The study moves beyond meso-level governance concerns to macro-level consideration of strategic relations evaluating broader structural forces like social class and economics, as well as looking at the individual views on the micro-level to generate an explanation of why certain outcomes developed within this structure.

The strategic-relational approach (SRA) transcends the dualism of structure and agency to examine structure in relation to action, action in relation to structure, rather than bracketing one of them. The SRA therefore focuses on the nature of “strategic action”, and of the “strategically selective context” within which such action is formulated, with each impacting on the other. Jessop (2005) treats structures analytically as strategically-selective in their form, content, and operation; and treats actions as structurally-constrained, more or less context-sensitive, and structuring. Jessop points out that this approach “aims to produce theoretically informed analyses of strategic calculation and practice and of how they over-determine social relations more generally” (1990: 264). The SRA thus offers a wider framework of analysis at the macro-level for this study without prescribing restrictive boundaries for empirical work, and comprehending governance analysis at the meso-level.

Methods
The study adopts a qualitative case-study approach, which was based on documentary material and semi-structured interviews. Three major cases, namely, the collapse of the CBA, the development of the SBL and the sporting links with China, was selected on the basis of their significance in the operational governance of basketball.

The perception of the stakeholders in the specific groups was reviewed in order to compose insight into principal interests and forces in the governance system. 25 interviewees were drawn from the Sport Affairs Council, Chinese Taipei Basketball Association, legislators, clubs, coaches, players, media, and sponsors. Interview transcripts and government reports/proceedings of parliamentary debates were subject to coding employing a Nvivo 8 qualitative data analysis software, and coding and analysis were undertaken employing an ethnographic content analysis approach while this approach employs a protocol which allows the application of both predetermined deductive, research imposed categories, and inductively determined, categories or codes arising from respondents’ comments.

Conclusions / findings
Provisional findings are as follows: first that this study illustrates the heuristic weaknesses of traditional, hierarchical models of governance; second the study illustrates how the outcome of one set of struggles (the collapse of CBA) shapes the strategic context for subsequent governance decisions; third, it demonstrates how clientelistic relationships (and specifically also Guanxi), as a strategic context, constrains and/or facilitates the choices available to stakeholders.

References
The governance system in Formula One motor racing

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Aim and research question:
Governance of Formula One Motor Racing (F1) is even more complex than in many other sports. Besides the International Motorsport Association (FIA), the list of important stakeholders includes constructors, drivers, car manufacturer, race track operators, sponsors, national governments, media, etc. The governance in a narrower sense is determined by the following organizations. First, the official sporting superintendence belongs to the FIA, which formally specifies the rules of the Formula One World Championship: International Sporting Code (general rules of FIA competitions), Formula One Sporting Regulations (rules of the execution of the world championship and single F1 races), Formula One Technical Regulations. Second, the marketing rights of the F1 series had been transferred from FIA to Formula One Administration Ltd. (FOA). However, as a representative of this organization, Formula One Management Ltd. (FOM) is in charge of the operating business. Both FOA and FOM, and thus also the F1 series, are substantially controlled by Bernie Ecclestone. Third and fourth, two interest groups exist: Formula One Teams Association (FOTA), Grand Prix Drivers’ Association (GPDA). Finally, the distribution of F1 revenues is determined by a non-public agreement between the different parties, called the Concorde Agreement.

This paper presents an in-depth analysis of governance and, in particular, rulemaking in F1 against the background of the different influence groups and their power within the F1 governance system. Furthermore, an empirical analysis of motivations and effects of rule changes addresses the questions (i) when do significant rule changes occur and (ii) what are the main effects of these rule changes. Eventually, the paper aims at deriving management implications for reforming the governance system of F1.

Theoretical background:
The theoretical background is twofold: firstly, governance theory in the tradition of Oliver Williamson is used to describe and analyze the existing governance and rule-making system in F1. Secondly, the theory of competitive balance is employed as a benchmark for measuring the motivation and effects of rule changes in F1.

Methodology, Research Design and Data Analysis:
Rule changes in F1 can be distinguished into different areas like technical rule changes (aerodynamics, motor configuration, mechanical grip, tires, etc.), changes in the reward scheme (points scheme, number of drivers rewarded, determination of the world champion, etc.) and changes in the financial redistribution (compensation of sporting success, etc.). Rulemaking can also be distinguished into groups according to the basic aim of the rule like improving drivers’ security or competitive balance.

The rules of F1 had been subject to frequent changes in history. This number is used for secondary-data empirical analysis. After a comprehensive categorization of rule changes according to the area/motivation, in a first step, the effects of rule changes on competitive balance are analyzed using the time series concept like multivariate regressions or Granger causality. To analyze the effect with regard to the different dimension of competitive balance, a number of F1 specific indicators are employed. In particular, this method reveals time lags in rulemaking.

In a second step, the decision making process within the F1 governance system is analyzed by estimating the probability of the occurrence of rule changes. Considering the count data nature of the rulemaking variable, Poisson regressions are employed. Here, the probability of rule changes is explained by the competitive balance, number of (fatal) accidents, number of enlisted teams/manufacturers, etc.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions:
The research project is currently ongoing and will be finished in June. The results offer important and unique insights on the management of big, global sports championships both in a positive and in a normative way. Positively, the analysis shows interesting patterns of F1’s governance system reacting to developments in competitive balance and other motivating factors with rule changes as well as deficiencies in governance. Normatively, our analysis allows for conclusions how to improve governance and management of F1. These insights can be transferred to the management of other top-class sports series, like major soccer leagues and offer interesting implications to them as well.
“What should be in a good governance code for European team sport federations?”

Author: Alex Phillips

Aim of abstract/paper – research question
The research is based around a simple concept, namely to answer the following question: “What should be in a ‘Good Governance Code’ for European Team Sport Federations?” A company listed on a stock exchange receives a “Good Governance Code” (or similar) from the stock exchange which explains the governance criteria that the company must comply with. Similar codes or, at least, good practice guides exist for NGOs, public bodies and other types of organisations. At the moment, however, the six members of the Association of European Team Sports (‘ETS’) do not have any such code/criteria applicable to their specific type of organisation and activities. This does not necessarily mean that there is bad governance, but rather that the issue has never been addressed in a systematic, strategic way. There is, however, increasing evidence that supports the need for such a Good Governance Code (or similar).

Theoretical background / literature review
Three main assumptions formed the theoretical basis for the research. Firstly, that there is a need for such a code. Secondly, that there is currently no existing applicable typology/theory to organisations like ETS Federations. Thirdly, that no systematic central analysis has ever been undertaken with in-depth access to President, Board and CEO/General Secretary-level interviewees.

The literature review comprised both the large existing generic governance literature applicable to corporations and, where applicable, other types of relevant entities (e.g. NGOs, other civil society organisations, public agencies/bodies) and the existing (albeit relatively small) sports-specific governance literature (both academic and practitioner-based [i.e. codes, best practice guides, etc.]).

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The methodology of the research comprised three parts: firstly, an exhaustive literature review; secondly, a series of 36 semi-structured interviews with a high-level, representative sample of sports organisations and stakeholders; and thirdly, analysis and synopsis of the information gathered to reach conclusions. The areas examined as part of the interviews comprised an initial, spontaneous, open evaluation of what constitutes good governance, followed by 16 general areas comprising 52 specific questions.

Results, discuss and implications/conclusions
The general conclusions can be summarised as follows. The creation of a “Good Governance Code” for ETS Federations is necessary and should, as a minimum, address the following eight areas:
- Organisational Structures, in particular regarding: the assurance of democratic structures and processes; the balance of powers between the different organs; the specific roles of the members, president, board, administration, committees and judicial bodies; and the involvement of stakeholders and minority views.
- Transparency, in particular regarding the communication of the organisational mission/vision/objectives/strategy, processes, key decisions and financial information.
- Accountability, with a focus on creating effective mechanisms of accountability, bearing in mind the difficulty of measuring success in sports organisations (compared to a company, for example, where shareholder value can be relatively easily measured).
- Ethical behaviour, in order to implement and maintain, and be seen to be maintaining, high ethical standards at all levels of sport.
- Commercial rights, in order to introduce best practice from outside sport regarding the awarding of commercial contracts, for example by adapting public procurement legislation.
- Selection of hosts for major events, ensuring that ETS members can illustrate that these increasingly important events are chosen in as transparent, rigorous and accountable a way as possible.
- Solidarity, which, although a “political” (rather than “corporate”) governance principle, is core to the activities of sports organisations i.e. not just running competitions but also directly developing sport. Here, corporate comparisons are less useful than those with standards set by NGOs (for example, regarding minimum proportions/amounts of development revenues/funding, controls and transparency over such distributions, etc.).
- Autonomy and relations with the political world, to define and establish best practice for relations with the political world where, in future, much work may need to be done by way of cooperation.

Based on these general conclusions, the main recommendation of the research is that the ETS should launch a process to further research, draft, agree and then implement a “Good Governance Code” (or similar). The research and conclusions of the research could potentially contribute to such a process. If successfully implemented, such a code would bring many benefits for both the organisations themselves and for their respective sports.

References
Governance of sport for all policies in Slovenia

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The aim of this paper is to present the research project conclusions in which we analyse and evaluate governance patterns of sport for all policies in a small post-socialist EU country of Slovenia in the last ten years term. In this period the country has from the perspectives of political situation underwent numerous internal and external challenges – from entering the EU, EURO zone and OECD at the international floor, to the first major internal political ideological shifts, political corruption affairs. In the last years the state has also been exacerbating in deep social-economic and moral-value crisis. The leading question in regard to our analysis was to recognise, understand and evaluate the governmental interventions into sport for all policies in the stated circumstances. Doing so we wanted first to recognise the leading patterns of citizens’ attitudes towards sport activities and the role of the state authorities in this regard. For the stated purposes we conducted public opinion data analysis of the special 2007 series of the International Social Survey Programme (ISSP) on Leisure Time and Sports. Parallel we also conducted a classical policy analytical study in which we first monitored the normative and financial backgrounds for the implementation of the national sport for all policies and their measures, and then evaluated them with the qualitative data, gathered through the semi-structured interviews with the key national governmental and non-governmental policy stakeholders in the field. Also a special web-survey for assessing the citizens’ attitudes towards the existing and potential future policy measures for the state promotion of the citizens’ sport activities was conducted on the sample of more than 3,000 respondents.

The conclusions of the analysis showed that in the field of sport policy in Slovenia a set of discrepancies can be disclosed. Besides the fact that the comparison of the citizens’ preferences as disclosed through the public opinion polls and the existing governmental policy interventions revealed only a limited mutual congruence, also system general discrepancies between the normative and actual implementation of the policy design were revealed. The common denominator of all of the discrepancies seems to lie in the characteristics of the ‘virtual’ modes of democratic policy governance which can be on the one hand seen through the existence of highly recognised and internationally comparable democratic policy norms and principles at the normative, e.g. ‘on the paper’ policy level and on the other hand through the set of inequalities and ignorance (from programme, financial to moral and ethical) when the actual every-day policy implementation is at stake. The effects of the described policy construction have thus often leaded to the violations of the basic democratic norms and principles, to the establishment of the closed policy networks, clientelism, politicisation and corruption inside the field of sport policy in general and consequently sport for all policies.
Modernising snooker: institutional change and governance issues

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Keywords: institutional change, governance, stakeholder, snooker

Abstract:
Snooker is usually considered as having been created in 1875 by British officers stationed in India, as a variation of billiard. Though the first professional world championship took place in 1927, snooker only became really professional in the late 1970s. The creation of the Professional Billiards Players’ Association (now World Professional Billiards and Snooker Association, WPBSA) in 1968 marked a rupture from the game ‘paternalistic amateur base’ and allowed for a better representation of the players (Bury, 1986:54). WPBSA is the governing body for professional snooker worldwide and organises and owns the rights of the sport main events. TV broadcasting (since 1969) and the introduction of a world ranking system in 1977 helped popularised the sport. The 1985 World Championship final attracted an audience of more than 18 million viewers in the UK alone. However, tensions emerged in the late 1990s with decreasing audience, loss of sponsorship with the ban of tobacco advertising and threat of competitive tour (e.g. TSN in 2001).

In December 2009, the chairman of WPBSA was ousted and replaced by Barry Hearn, who has been managers of several successful players and chairman of the Professional Darts Corporation, one of darts’ two governing bodies. Hearn introduced innovative ideas and soon convinced WPBSA to let him takeover 51% of World Snooker Ltd, its commercial arm which runs snooker main events. He subsequently introduced power snooker, a new, shorter form of snooker, multiplied the number of tournaments, leading to a drastic increase in prize money. World Snooker also launched a qualifying school allowing amateur players to compete for places in the professional tour.

Using literature on institutional change (Powell & DiMaggio, 1991; Gammelsæter and Senaux, 2011) and stakeholder theory (Rowley, 1997; Senaux, 2008), this paper aims at analysing the dynamics behind these changes. This is particularly interesting as snooker is one of the very few professional sport which was, until recently, fully controlled by its players. This is also interesting as the recent evolution somehow mirror changes which have been made in other sports: creation of a professional tour (like golf), takeover of the commercial arm by an individual (like formula one), introduction of shorter, more dynamic version of the sport (like cricket with T20).

This analysis relies on archival data covering key events since 1968 (e.g. emergence of PBPA and WPBSA, tensions with TSN etc.) with a particular emphasis on the most recent events since 2009 (appointment of Hearn, takeover of World Snooker Ltd etc.). Historical analysis is used to identify patterns; and press articles, interviews and other archival documents are mobilised to understand the dynamics of change, coalition building and power games amongst stakeholders.

Data collection is closed to completion and the analysis is expected to be finished by mid-June.

References:
Board governance in Danish golf club

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Keywords:
Club Governance, boards, decision making processes, team processes, management, golf clubs

Since 2009, the Sport Management Department at University College of Northern Denmark has delivered a diploma program at the Bachelor’s level in Club Management for the Danish golf sector. Denmark has 186 Golf Clubs, and 157,496 registered members. Approximately 100 are membership owned. The remaining 86 are a mix of privately owned golf courses renting their facilities out to membership based clubs, and entirely commercially based golf facilities. The Danish golf sector is, like the rest of Europe, experiencing an increased competition for members and greenfee guests. This represents a significant change for a sector that has been used to rising membership numbers for a long period of time. The whole sector is changing from an “inside out” country club business model, where members are willing to pay substantial fees just to join the clubs, to an open “outside in” service economy, where the clubs are competing for members in a more open market by offering flexible memberships, low prices and special package deals. To be successful in the golf sector of today a golf club needs to be competitive when it comes to cost efficiency, service, quality, marketing and sponsorship.

The current presentation focuses on effective board governance within Danish Golf Clubs. However, the issues concerning effective board governance in professional Sport Clubs transcend to almost all areas of professional and semi-professional sport in Denmark. Football clubs, handball clubs and sport venues are just some areas in Denmark, where voluntary boards are usually politically elected to be in charge of organisations that oftentimes have a substantial turnover and high number of employees. This means that many of the factors presented within this presentation would be equally relevant to other areas of the sports sector.

Considering the major impact boards have on the success and failures of sport clubs, it is significant that there has been very little research within sports governance in Denmark. This presentation is, therefore, primarily based on theory and research conducted internationally, supplemented with qualitative and quantitative data generated from the Danish golf Clubs. The presentation can, therefore, also be seen as an invitation to focus on board governance as relevant areas of research in Denmark.

The profiles of Club Managers are changing rapidly, with increased focus on the need for business skills and competencies rather than practical experience from the game of golf itself. As the nature of the golf business, and the profiles and competencies of club managers are changing so are the importance of boards that are able to act efficiently and professional, establish a strong relation with the Club Manager, and contribute to the overall formulation of strategy and business development.

However, there are many factors that point to potential dysfunction within the board structure, specifically as it relates to the recruitment of individual board members, decision-making processes, ensuring that individual team members understand their role within the board, and the establishment of a professional relationship between the club manager and the board.

In general terms it may be stated, that while the golf clubs have experienced a big change in business conditions, and many clubs are in the process of changing the way they do business. One of the areas where change is coming very slowly is when it comes to the board itself. In this respect, the golf sector seems to be very similar to the rest of the sport sector.

Therefore, the purpose of this presentation is to demonstrate a coherent model for effective board governance within a golf club.

Aim of abstract/paper
To explain the strategic and organizational problems regarding democratically elected, voluntary boards in charge of running golf clubs in an ever increasingly competitive golf business, and to present a model for efficient board governance in golf clubs.

Practice description
A slide presentation

Context description, actors involved
Slide show presented by Klaus Frejo

Implications and learning
It is a strong belief that the implementation of such a model will improve the individual board members performance and satisfaction, strengthen the relationship with the club manager, improve the boards’ ability to make good decisions and, thus, improve the boards’ overall performance for the benefit of the club.
Examining the resource allocation and success of National Olympic Committees governed by a corporate model

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Key Words
Governance, resources, financial

Aim of Paper
National Olympic Committees in North America and many Western nations are charged with promoting sport for all participants while maintaining a sustainable and self-sufficient financial profile. This can create a paradox for NOCs while they try to serve the greater good of the sport while selling elite development to sponsors and media rights holders. The purpose of this paper is to examine the resource allocation and success of various NOC’s that utilize a corporate model as compared to a government model for financial and organizational support.

The challenge of resource allocation in NOC’s is to support as many programs as possible while continuing to develop and support elite athlete success in order to drive more revenue streams to complete the cycle of grassroot program development and elite athlete development (Australian Olympic Committee, 2009). Addressing each of the various stakeholders when allocating resources is an essential function of a NOC. When regulatory bodies make decisions that affect various stakeholders, the need for clarity and transparency in asset management, financial support and program promotion is imperative, especially when the mission clearly states “all participants”. Many governing bodies within sport and in other facets of business regularly eschew their mission to support elitism and marketable publicity. To maintain long-term success a NOC must understand the balance of resource allocation (IOC, 2012), in support of a corporate model which in many cases is more stable than a government based model of Olympic program support.

An examination of the financial reports of from seven Western NOC’s indicates that elite programs receive an exorbitant amount of the budget in relation to the largest participatory categories and that youth and girls development received a relatively small amount of the planned budget and actual dollars spent in all seven NOC’s. In comparing seven corporate model Western NOC’s over 4 Olympiad’s found stable performance and organizational success was achieved when controlling for country size and Olympic host site. Three NOC’s using a government model have significant fluctuations in performance over the same 4 Olympiad’s. Although success at the elite level was found the percentage of individual budget in a corporate model was significantly more than the grassroots effort.

Further examination of the resource allocation within each of these NOC’s and participation levels indicate that correlation exists between Olympic success and overall participation numbers per capita regardless of how much is spent on elite development (Bian, 2005). This is one flaw with the corporate model, the constant measurable need for continued success to place value on the investment in sport.

Conclusion
If NOC’s claim to utilize sport for development then they may want to rethink the practice of focusing its financial outlay on elite. There is some evidence that the rise in success at an international level is related to an increase in overall participation rather than an increase in elite development programs. Even in light of this, many NOC’s have launched a program using the long-term athlete development model, while framing it only in elite development Elite development programs, while important to an NOC’s, utilize a disproportionate amount of the resources that could be used to affect a larger number of participants (Matros and Namoro, 2004). This runs counter to the mission statement of many NOC’s to develop sport as a vehicle for health and participation, but does correlate to overall success in Olympic medal counts. Future directions and suggestions will be presented.
Football match fixing another art of insider trading

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Keywords: football, match-manipulations, insider trading, financial crisis, moral values

“Everything I know about selling securities that are morally crap, I have learned on the football field…” Imagining a noble bar full of well-dressed young investment bankers, spending some time after long-working hours with a glass of the most expensive drinks the tender can offer, the above could be a quotation of the kind of unscrupulous (yet) successful hedge fund manager. The original citation goes to Albert Camus who claimed to have learned everything about morality and the obligation of men on the football field. Simply speaking: football, moral, securities and “crap” share more similarities that may be visible at first glance. To allow a perspective on how these elements have common denominators, the paper contrasts aspects of unethical performances in the world of sports and finance. One aim of the paper is to encourage a debate on the function of sports with respect to integrity in the 21st century and to question whether sport still serves as a “Leitkultur” for moral values (Wilke, 2009). The dangers of match fixing just recently found its place on the international policy agenda, the Schaldemose report being the first European Union key document that tackles the issue of match fixing (KEA, 2012). In contrast the law-making process with relation to the document that tackles the issue of match fixing (KEA, 2012). Schaldemose report being the first European Union key law-making process with relation to the

As a key element the paper compares business practices within the finance sector to criminal procedures within the sport-betting industry. A financial product named Abacus 2007-AC1 of the investment bank Goldman Sachs and incidents of the German football betting scandals of 2005 and 2009 are used exemplary. The sources chosen are relevant academic literature, judgments, reports by governmental institutes and international organizations.

A rather qualitative approach to moral values within sports (and the finance sector) has been chosen that allows developing differential perspectives in future. The methodological approach is based on primary and secondary data. The comparative observation based on real-life incidents contemplates the elements of Game Theory by looking at the economic theory of crime adapted to the decision of an athlete to attempt a fix*, concepts of the Faustian Bargaining for actors on the market, the theory of a Homo Economicus as a rationale thinking man, as well as the impact of Lady Justice as a mediator between society and the law breake.

On one side there is a huge discussion on the deprivation of moral values within the financial sector that influences everyday life to a great extent. However, the debate fails to encourage for stricter regulation. On the other the great dismay when headlines of match manipulations sadly increase and depict the decline of the idea of a ‘clean sport’, but no decline in the number of spectators. Further, the judicial follow up to malpractices are (currently) not extensive in neither area. It can, however, be argued that society expects higher ethical standards from the sports sector compared to the finance sector. In many parts of the world, football is still perceived as a tool for reconciliation and symbolically as a sign for peace (Champagne, 2012), (e.g.) when former opponents gather on the pitch. Moreover, the abusive methods in the financial world are betimes very complex and not comprehensible for outsiders be it ordinary persons or judges and (therefore) render the rule of law obsolete. Incidents are often pursued with an overall consent as the main concern is the maximization of wealth no matter the ethical constraints. In football, however, a general zero-tolerance strategy is shared between governing authorities and the society. The rule of the game requires this vis-à-vis any manipulative actions, otherwise it completely destroys the underlying competitive nature that is intrinsic to sports. As long as the expected benefit exceeds the expected costs for any (potential) manipulator, there is a general likelihood to engage in abusive actions.

References


* (E { U (Y-F-R) } - U (Y) + U(C) )
New horizons for record setting: the case of technology and swimsuits

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Abstract keywords
Swimming, technology, swimsuit materials, record setting, polyurethane, non-textile

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
What is the effect of swimsuit materials on swimmers’ racing times?

Theoretical background or literature review*
To date, the literature on management and technology has mainly focused on how the technology used affects the structure, design and processes of an organisation (e.g. Perrow, 1968). The literature on sport and technology has examined the relationship from the perspective of biological enhancements, such as, genetic modifications (Miah, 2004) or doping (Houlihan, 2002). Research has also looked at enhancing performance through such things as athlete feedback (Lieberrmann et al., 2002) and equipment design (Fuss, Subic, & Ujihashi, 2007) which can raise a number of ethical considerations for how we regard sport. In this respect, technology has changed the way people play and watch sport as for example, the use of instant video replay in a variety of sports, electronic timing and wind tunnels in sprint races, the ongoing debate with goal line technology in Association Football, replays of line calls and the use of ball tracking technology in such sports as tennis and cricket and in swimming the use of touch pads at each end of the pool and electronic sensors in the starting blocks.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
In this paper we focus on the impact of swimsuit technology on performance, specifically looking at the effect of different materials on swimmers’ times. Data were obtained from long course swimming ranking lists from December 2000 to December 2011, interviews with current and former Olympians, world record holders and international team coaches. Interviews are currently ongoing; we will speak to a minimum of 20 individuals. The interviews are designed to gain the opinions of high profile swimmers and coaches with regard to the implications of technological changes to the sport. A diverse group of swimmers were contacted that were of different gender, nationality, swim stroke discipline, distance of preferred event and swimmers who are/were sponsored by different swimsuit manufacturers. The study examines the overall difference between non-textile and the polyurethane suits and the impact of gender, stroke types (butterfly, backstroke, breaststroke freestyle and individual medley), relay events and event distance, in relation to the suits worn, on performance times. This is to ascertain whether the height of the ‘suit-era’ in 2009 had a one off impact on swimming performance times or if any residual effects transferred into swimmers training and racing and whether athletes that wore the polyurethane suits were disproportionately at an advantage dependant on these factors.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions**
Statistical analysis of the data set is currently in progress using the SPSS software package; the results and conclusions are guaranteed in time for the conference. Preliminary inspection of the ranking times matrix reveals that on average swimmers’ times in 2010/2011 are slower than in 2008/2009 yet significantly faster than times from 2000-2007. Further, the analysis of event times over the study period reveals backstroke events have seen the greatest percentage change. Men’s freestyle event times yielded the smallest percentage difference of times between 2000 and 2011. The discussion will demonstrate interpretations of results in relation to the stroke, the event, the distance and gender, and also looks at the impact of FINA’s (Fédération Internationale de Natation) decision to ban the polyurethane suits.

References – limited to 5
Drivers, stages and capabilities of integrating corporate social responsibility in professional football

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Aim
Evidently, many forward-looking organisations across all industries have already embraced the idea of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) for their own competitive benefits. Also, Smith and Westerbeek (2007) as well as Breitbarth and Harris (2008) demonstrate the relevance of modern CSR for professional sports organisations in general and, respectively, professional football in particular. Recently, an increasing number of European professional football clubs and club organisations have started to actively engage with the CSR concept. This research describes key drivers, stages and capabilities for successful CSR integration in professional football and offers a road map for similar sports bodies. More specifically, the aim is to provide a stage model for managing the integration of CSR in professional football clubs.

Theoretical background
Forward-looking organisations that have integrated CSR add substance to their reputation, minimize operational risks, inspire innovation processes and improve their relationships with vital stakeholders, for example to secure their ‘license to operate’ [Weber, 2008]. Influential contributions by Smith and Westerbeek (2007) and Breitbarth and Harris (2008) have framed the academic CSR debate in sport management. In a nutshell, they show that sport in general can act as an agent for corporate and governmental CSR initiatives, and that professional sport organisations in particular are required to integrate the CSR concept themselves. Only recently, football organisations have started to actively engage with the CSR debate and embrace it for their own means. For example, the German Football Association/League and top-league teams like Werder Bremen have undertaken first steps towards strategic implementation of CSR-related matters. In England, The Football Association in close cooperation with the leagues and individual clubs in particular have built a wide-ranging portfolio of activities (Rosca, 2011). Long-term studies of CSR integration and application processes in international business have led to established development models (e.g. Mirvis and Googins, 2006). Such models map organisational/managerial drivers, stages and capabilities vital to move from elementary, engaged, innovative, integrative stages of CSR activity to, eventually, the transformational stage of CSR. However, so far no sports-specific map is available.

Methodology
Arguably, professional football is an idiosyncratic industry that on the one hand adopts and applies management knowledge from other commercial industries, but on the other hand partly operates based on non-profit premises. Therefore, the research is based on, firstly, the review of long-term studies of CSR evolution in international business in order to provide a conceptual point of reference; secondly, the review of CSR developments in professional football in order to draw sports-specific conclusions; and, thirdly, direct involvement in the integration of CSR in professional football clubs and leagues in order to ascertain process dynamics, context issues and content shifts. Hence, both the adoption of generic stage models and the analysis of CSR integration in, especially, German and English professional football organisations inform the conceptualisation of the respective stage model.

Results
Results show the intertwined influence of content, context and processes in managing the integration of CSR in professional football. The stage model describes strategic alignment, stakeholder support and sports-specific organisational capabilities to be the key enablers in order to advance meaningful CSR integration. Hence, the outcome of the research cumulates in the proposed ‘3S-Model’. Activating the 3S-Model enables organisations to reach higher levels of CSR engagement and to champion opportunities within competitive environments. The research outcome offers sport management researchers and practitioner alike a roadmap in order to frame the value that sport organisations can create through engaging with the modern CSR concept.

References
A sensemaking approach of corporate social responsibility (CSR) in French sport events – how do organizers make sense of CSR?

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1. Research question
Research on corporate social responsibility (CSR) has dramatically grown over the past two decades, but has only reached sport management in recent years. Nonetheless, professional sport organizations, as well as big sport events are relevant fields when investigating CSR, notably because their characteristics may allow authors to refine existing models.

According to Weick (1995), organizational sensemaking occurs when organizations are faced with uncertainty and/or ambiguity. In an uncertain environment, managers are unable to provide any interpretation of the situation. In an ambiguous situation, they are confused by too many interpretations. Given that the sport sector’s features are divided into unique internal resources (identification, admiration, passion – Babiak & Wolfe, 2009) and ear-splitting external pressures (scandals relating to doping, hooliganism or environmental impacts of major sport events), we suggest that sport event organizers are mostly faced with ambiguous environment. Indeed, there are multiple “cues” (see Weick, 1995) related to CSR: institutional forces such as public and federal sport policies, internal drivers such as the proximity between certain kinds of sports and nature, strategic patterns such as cause-related marketing. Organizers are therefore confronted with different interpretations that blur decision-making: how do they make sense of their role with regards to CSR?

2. Theoretical background
Sensemaking theory describes organizations as searching for the meaning of CSR (Angus-Leppan et al., 2009). As Basu & Palazzo (2008) noted, while much of the literature on CSR is focused on CSR content, there is a need for a more process-based approach, focusing on the mental frames and sensemaking processes within which CSR is embedded.

In line with this approach, we suggest sensemaking theory can respond to several limits of both institutional and strategic approaches yet borrowing some of their singular contributions. Firstly, while one can find empirical evidence of both institutional and strategic factors in the environment, the two approaches fail why some will have a direct influence on CSR and others won’t. We suggest that analysing the three steps of the sensemaking process, knowingly scanning-interpretation-action, can explain how informations are selected and, in some cases, rejected from the process leading to CSR actions. Secondly, among the seven properties proposed by Weick to define sensemaking, retrospection may provide a more dynamic vision of drivers influencing decisions: for example, although an event originally implemented CSR due to institutional pressures, organizers can develop a more strategic view retrospectively, while realizing the benefits of these actions (energy savings, activation of new partnerships).

3. Methodology, research design and data analysis
Our methodology is based on case studies with theoretical sampling (Eisenhardt, 1989). We selected six events based on the type of organizers (institutional, private and associative). We collected data from semi-structured interviews with both organizers and three categories of stakeholders: private sponsors, public partners and associative partners.

Data where analysed through an interpretative framework composed of six dimensions drawn up on a literature review and collapsed into the three steps of the sensemaking process: CSR drivers and CSR legitimacy (scanning); level of CSR strategy and CSR praxis (interpretation); CSR practices and CSR outcomes (action).

4. Results, discussion and implications
First results show that that the dimensions of the sensemaking process tend to cluster around two ends of a continuum. The one end, labelled “constrained sensemaking”, occurs when organizers are compelled to conform to the role perceived by their stakeholders. It seems to be associated to external CSR drivers, moral legitimacy, a low level of CSR strategy and a “do no harm” CSR praxis. The other end, labelled “demonstrative sensemaking”, emerges when organizers manage to control their stakeholders’ perceptions. It seems to be linked to internal CSR drivers (but sponsors can also trigger demonstrative sensemaking through cause-related marketing), pragmatic and cognitive legitimacy, a high level of CSR strategy and a “do good” CSR praxis.

We see both academic and practical implications of this study. From a research perspective, our work seeks to better understand how responsible practices in sport events derive from the meaning organizers give to CSR. For example, anti-doping programs will only be seen as part of CSR when the sensemaking process is based on external pressure and moral legitimacy, leading to a “do no harm” praxis. From a practical stance, this study includes reflexions about the development of norms as prevalent CSR tools. We suggest that CSR norms like ISO 26000 or ISO 20121, for they are based on the normative compliance to a standardized view of CSR, could be useful for constrained sensemaking events but not necessarily for demonstrative sensemaking events.

5. References

Ethical codes: fit for the promotion of ethics in sport?

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Sport has not been safeguarded against managerial controversies and (corporate) ethical crises. Then again, sport isn’t just another business, and ethical dilemmas are often complicated by the fact that sport is about pushing limits and playing on the edge of what is possible and/or acceptable. Looking at sport from a management angle, we discuss the case for the use of ethical codes to promote ethical behavior in the business of sport.

Numerous scandals and abuses have raised the question for more ethical behavior and management in sports clubs worldwide. The ethical problems concerning sports organizations are plentiful. On the hand have, there are the issues that afflict organizations in general, for instance gender inequality. On the other hand, sports clubs also have to face ethical problems that are specific for this sector, such as match fixing, the boundaries between coaches and athletes and the use of performance enhancing drugs. A widely used instrument for tackling ethical challenges and conflicts is the installation of a code of ethics in an organization (Kaptein, 2008). Not unexpectedly, also the sports world is turning towards this approach, but this hasn’t been studied to date.

The use and effectiveness of these ethical codes to handle ethical problems is still very heavily debated. Ethical codes are subject to various critiques. Moreover, the results of studies on the effectiveness of ethical codes are widely divergent and even conflicting, ranging from effective and vital, to ineffective or even counterproductive. In this paper we will first present an overview of the existing studies on code effectiveness and then focus more in depth on the various circumstances in which codes are created, implemented and enforced. These variables may be decisive for whether a code is a valuable instrument to encourage more ethical behavior or not. Furthermore, attention will be given to the instruments to assess these possible determinants of effectiveness. We will discuss the most suitable method to investigate the effectiveness of ethical codes in sports. The concept of Ethical Climate (Cullen, 1993) is chosen to assist in the assessment of code effectiveness. To date, the Ethical Climate Index (Arnoud, 2006; Arnaud, 2010) has not been introduced into the sport context yet. The presentation of this instrument for use in the sports world and the prevalence of the use of codes of ethics in sports are the main and innovative focus of this paper.

References
Political risk management and sport: under-theorised, poorly understood and inconsistently applied

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Abstract
This paper looks at how one can utilise a risk theoretical framework to assess the impact of government policies and actions on the operations and strategies of sport organisations. Whilst the subject area of sport and politics is an area where robust discussions can take place, it is argued in this paper that this does not extend to the subject area of sport and political risk. The discussion about sport and politics tends to sit around a number of subject areas, such the political nature of sports (e.g. Bairner, and Molnar 2010), sport as a political tool (e.g. Giulianotti 2004), sport policy (e.g. Green 2009), its impact on human rights (e.g. Donnelly 2008), or sport and terrorism (e.g. Toohey, 2008). All are important, but these areas of analysis and discussion, whilst they touch on issues of political risk, do not fully engage with it as a discrete subject area. This is perhaps a little surprising considering how the political environment can generate numerous risks for sport organisations or events, which can range from the impact of government policies, civil unrest, terrorism and war. This paper therefore looks more specifically at the subject area of political risk as it is used in a more general business management context, in order to review, assess and evaluate its relevancy to sport practitioners and academics. The work then shows the value of transferring a range of concepts and practices from both the general area of risk management and political risk management to help refine the discussion about the risks generated by the political environment, to the area of sport management.

References
Competence management and HRD in sport organizations

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Aim
The paper aims at describing competence management as a recent innovation in HRD for sport organizations. In the light of the traditional HRD policy of sport organizations and developments of the sports sector this innovation seems to be promising.

Context: dynamism of the sport labour market
The actual situation in the sports sector is characterized by dynamism, increasing global and local competition, growing complexity and demands for efficiency and accountability. In this context sport organizations are urged to modernize and improve themselves (Houlihan and Green, 2009). Again and again they are asked to reformulate their core business and core competences (Palahad & Hamel, 1990). As a result of this a need for continuous development of organizations can be perceived, not only on a strategic level, but equally with respect to their human capital.

Parallel to this form an individual perspective labour in sports and more general in society is rapidly changing. A lifelong career in one kind of job is becoming an exception, investing in career development is a necessity, and lifelong learning has become a widely accepted way to deal with this. Workers in the sports sector are conscious of the changing context and will not commit themselves exclusively to a job or an organization.

On the other hand it’s clear that the quality of employees is crucial for organizational success. The rapidly changing conditions on the sports labour market ask for a reform of the way in which human capital is treated by organizations. Organization strategy and individual ambitions are less easily aligned than before. Management of competences can be a means to overcome the possible tensions between them.

Competence management
Core competences of organizations are held to be crucial for the competitive advantage of organizations. Therefore the ability of organizations to identify, manage and improve their core qualities is important and is connected to their learning ability. Management of competences creates a fundamental link between the development of human competences and those of the organization and mediates personal and organizational learning. Management of competences comprises all activities that bring the qualities of employees in line with the actual and future tasks of the organization (recruitment, placement, education, career advice). In this paper we will clarify two ways of competence management: a traditional cognitivist approach will be contrasted with a new social-constructivist approach (Beirendonck, 2010).

Practices of hrm in sport organizations in the Netherlands
Based on surveys into the operations of several sport organizations a picture is presented of the actual HRD activities of voluntary sports clubs, fitness centers and national governing bodies in the Netherlands. These practices are evaluated from the viewpoint of the applied approach of competence management. A need for improved competence management will become clear as a conclusion from this analysis.

Development of adequate tools for hrd
The final part of the paper will present some recent innovations that provide opportunities to reform HRD in sports:

- Assessments as a bridging medium between individual and organization development (Lucassen & Kalmthout 2010);
- Competence based (vocational) education and training – implementation of the European Qualification Framework (EQF) in the sports sector;
- Tools for labour providers in sport.

References
Intraorganisational legitimisation of sponsorship decisions - the case of an international sporting goods retailer

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Aim of abstract and research question
In the last few years the scale of sport sponsorship expenditure has increased rapidly around the world. As the spendings grow, sponsors need to pay more consideration on planning sponsorships strategically, leveraging their investment and measuring sponsorship effectiveness. Remarkably, just a handful of studies have looked into the organisational sponsorship decision making and selection criteria process, with some of them exploring decision making and buying behaviour processes (see e.g. Cornwell, 2008). It is widely assumed that decisions on sponsorship investments are unduly influenced by the personal interests and egos of senior managers (Johnston, 2010). Research on how sponsorship investments are legitimised within the firm is missing. To our knowledge this research in progress is the first study to examine and empirically test the role of legitimacy in the context of decisions on sponsorship investments. Therefore, since empirical research is absent, the objective of this paper is to fill in this gap. Accordingly, we formulate the following research question [RQ]:

How and why are decisions on sponsorship investments legitimised on an intraorganisational level?

Looking at micro-level analysis helps us to specifically understand the complexities of intra-organisational legitimisation processes that were unnoticed in traditional approaches. Drawing on previous research on organisational legitimacy, we contribute to the growing body of literature by exploring legitimisation processes and deepen the understanding of the interdisciplinary construct of legitimacy.

Theoretical background
Legitimacy has long been recognized as a key and fundamental process in social life, and in organisations in particular. Despite wide recognition that legitimacy is fundamental to understanding the internal structure and viability of an organization, articulating the general processes that underlie legitimacy is a difficult problem. Organisational legitimacy has not evolved as one contingent theory but as an umbrella of concepts stemming from a variety of scientific disciplines, ranging from sociological to management theories (for an overview see e.g. Deephouse & Suchman, 2008; Johnson, 2004). Depending on their respective disciplinary backgrounds, these concepts vary in the ways legitimacy is defined as well as the analytical perspective that is taken. Many studies have looked into legitimacy parameters. Among these studies are for example those focusing on antecedents, dimensions, strategies, consequences and outcomes of legitimacy. However, research on intra-organisational legitimisation processes still remains rare.

Data and methodology
As the research objective is about examining a phenomenon within its complex real-life context and obtaining in-depth understanding, an exploratory case study design is the most appropriate approach considering the guidelines on qualitative data collection and analysis outlined by Yin (2009). In order to obtain the relevant data, a pilot study was conducted to improve and sharpen questions for subsequent interviews planned in the course of the research project. An in-depth interview with a decision maker from an international sporting goods retailer involved in sponsorship actions depicts the empirical basis of this work in progress. The firm has the worldwide leading position in the sporting goods retail market and is also engaged in multiple sponsorship deals. The interview was conducted in German language and audio recorded for subsequent transcription. The transcript from the interview comprised a total of 14,543 words or 40 pages of text. The textual data was analyzed with NVivo 9, a computer aided qualitative data analysis (CAQDAS) tool for systematic content analysis.

Results and conclusions
The findings of this pilot study reveal that firms legitimise their sponsorship investments by arguments of justification and rationalisation. As the interviewee mentions, “...before we stipulate what we want with our marketing concept we consider several sponsoring possibilities. Second is the affinity to the sponsored property” leads to conclude that decisions on sponsorship investments are derived from an elaborated marketing plan prior to the sponsorship decision. Furthermore, the firm seems to have a clear perception of the corporate sponsoring strategy. The decision maker states that “team sport is really the kind of sports that suits best to us” meaning that the firm primarily strives for pro-active sponsorships in the team sports industry. These statements make clear that intra-organisational legitimacy is gained by the creation of sponsorship plans. Corporate sponsorship strategies play a crucial role when firms intend to legitimise their sponsorship investments. The interview of this pilot study provides some valuable empirical insights into how and why corporations legitimise their decisions on sponsorship investments. This study contributes to literature by extending research on organisational legitimacy, particularly on intra-organisational legitimisation processes. However, the collected data is limited to generalise our findings. More interviews are needed and secondary data such as newspaper articles are to be included for data triangulation.

References

The relationship of interorganisational citizenship behaviours and product innovation: a study of two French sport clusters

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Aim
The major purpose of this research is to investigate how interorganisational citizenship behaviour (ICB) influences product innovation in sport clusters. This informs the understanding of the source, ownership, control, and diffusion of innovation in interorganisational relationships. Additionally, we map out relationships and interactions between industry sectors and their organisations in specific sport related clusters. This creates a better understanding of cluster benefits and the interorganisational relationships and behaviour that underpin them. Finally, we provide insights with regards to industry restructuring in the context of sport organisations. This permits an assessment of the functioning and the long-term sustainability of sport cluster as a delivery system for sport products and sport disciplines.

Overall, this research aims at higher overall innovativeness and value creation within a cluster as a whole, and for individual cluster organisations. The authors' intention is furthermore to interpret the results in a wider context, such as other sport or consumer goods markets with similar characteristics, and locations with similar conditions.

Theoretical background
Sport clusters are geographic concentrations of interconnected and interdependent organisations, specialized suppliers, service providers, related firms and associated institutions that focus on a particular sport or related sports. (Porter, 2008; Shilbury, 2000). Autry, Skinner & Lamb (2008) define ICB as discretionary interfim behaviour that is not part of formal contractual agreements but that promotes the effective functioning of the group of organisations. Shilbury (2000) argues that a cluster is the value chain for all involved organisations. Supply chains in sport cluster can even go beyond its boundaries as the sport cluster may be embedded within a larger innovation and technology cluster. Innovation is the combination of inventions and the exploitation of market opportunities. It is a “creative force” which is especially important for sporting goods firms because technology is an important consumption lever. Sporting products are technologically complex products that are often required to fulfill incompatible characteristics (e.g. strong and low weight) (Desbordes, 2001). We suggest, that sport clusters present a favourable environment for the development of ICB, which might be a potential driver for innovation.

Methodology
Multiple case study method is used to pursue both theory verification (i.e. the extant cluster model) and theory construction (i.e. a new model of ICB and product innovation). We compare four different sport clusters, each representing one case. We selected them according to two criteria, sports (sailing or surfing) and location (France or Australasia). The cases were selected for theoretical reasoning. Equipment intensive sports were chosen because they provide potential for product innovation. The two locations all feature well developed industries for either sailing or surfing. The four case studies permit literal and theoretical replication while remaining manageable in the framework of this research project. (Yin, 2009). The data collection is guided by the central research question: “How hoes ICB influence product innovation in sport cluster?” and a set of subordinated research questions. We use four different data sources: interviews and observations as primary data sources, and documentation and archival data as secondary sources. A generic cluster map, derived from previous cluster research, identified key organisation types within each cluster. At least one organisation per type is used for primary data collection. Interview participants were the CEO, marketing manager and/or R&D manager. There were 22 semi-structured interviews, one unstructured in-depth interview and four explorative interviews conducted. Observations were made at four cluster events. Documentation and archival data was obtained from cluster members as well as from the internet. The interviews were recorded, transcribed, and summarized in mini-cases. Those are validated in consultation with interviewees. Primary and secondary data is triangulated in case reports that permitted both intra- and inter-case analysis.

Results
Results from the first case suggest different subgroups and subsets of relationships in the cluster. We identify the following nine organisation types in the sailing cluster in France: shipyard, naval architect, marine equipment, sail/rigging, services, media/communication, racing team, education/research, and governance body. Racing teams and governing bodies have most relationships to other organisations types. Marine equipment firms tend to have strong relationships to other marine equipment firms and research/ education institutions. The behaviour between the cluster members indicates ICB dimensions such as altruism, loyalty, tolerance, conscientiousness, and advancement. The role of ICB for innovation is often described in bilateral business relationships, informal partnerships or multilateral projects. The data indicates evidence for the existence of interorganisational citizenship behaviour and its positive influence on innovation, especially product innovation.

References


Challenges for theories of volunteering in sport

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Key words: theoretical frameworks, volunteering

Aim of paper
To discuss broad frameworks for explaining the complexity on volunteering in sport.

Three frameworks which has been used in analyzing volunteering in general will be used on sport: i) a hybrid conceptual framework of volunteering (Hustinx, Cnaan, & Handy, 2010), ii) the volunteer process model with the 'life-cycle of volunteers' (Omoto & Snyder, 2002) and iii) the volunteer stages and transitions model (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal, 2008). The concern is to examine important aspects of the phenomenon of volunteering in sport. The first model interprets three challenges or layers of complexity in the framework: the problem of definition of volunteering, the problem of multidisciplinarity, and the problem of theory as multidimensional. The second model analyses the life-cycle phases the volunteer goes through as well as three levels of analysis (individual, organization and social system). The third model analyzes the transitions the volunteers go through and the processes. The question is how well do such theoretical frameworks 'travel' beyond the sphere of the social voluntary organizations and to sport organizations?

Volunteering is often discussed as a unidimensional category lacking any complexity. Cnaan, Handy and Wadsworth (1996) reviewed over 200 definitions and made a content analysis of the definitions. They wrote that most definitions had four main components: free will behaviour, no monetary reward, aimed to help others than family on a long-term basis or in a voluntary setting, and a formal agency. In sport it is important to divide between event and organized sport volunteers. A further division goes on formal and informal volunteering. Even within sport events there are different types of volunteering as we give examples of.

Volunteering is a meaningful study object across several study fields as sociology, political science, economy, and psychology according to Hustinx, Cnaan & Handy (2010). There exists little consensus about which theoretical perspective to use in the study of volunteers, and many use references, data, diagrams and hypothesis instead of theory (Sutton & Staw, 1995). This paper seeks to find out what the specificities of volunteering in sport management are, and what the different theories can add to our knowledge of sport volunteering.

The second theoretical framework, volunteer process model (Omoto & Snyder, 2002) looks at the life-cycle of volunteers. They looked at the different stages of the volunteer process as antecedents, experiences and consequences. Data that supports this volunteer process are from our event data-base built on five on-line surveys to the volunteers based on both pre-and post-competition on-line surveys (n= 659) in 2010 for the Nordic Skiing World Cup, The World Championship in Nordic Skiing in 2011, and after the World Cup in Nordic Skiing in 2012. Interviews from some of these events in ski-competitions reveal that voluntarism is started and maintained for different and sometimes also changing motives. The second stage is where the experience may determine their continuing engagement. In this stage the volunteers develop their relationship with other volunteers and the ones they are helping. They establish their networks, which are embedded in the sport organization or the sport event.

The third model, transition model (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal, 2008) makes use of five stages of the volunteers (nominee, newcomer, emotional involvement, established volunteering and retiring). They focus on the changes (the process) the volunteers undergo when they enter an organization. The process perspective of volunteering is important in order to understand what is going on in the different stages. Volunteers start to volunteer for specific reasons. It is like a socialization process in a more detailed manner. Probably the most important stage of socialization happens after one enters the organization. These reasons for volunteering can change and may result in different motives for continuing.

Implications of the review of the different theoretical frameworks
The different models have been of help in locating issues that have not been explored enough previously and to discover new approaches and insights. Firstly the definition of volunteering was made according to its many nuances and meanings, and that was much needed. Previously many researchers used the term as if it had only one exact meaning. The different theoretical frameworks were of value in order to see what needed to be added as components to the existing knowledge as e.g. the life-cycle of volunteering and how volunteering changes the volunteers. It helped to illumine what was missing in the process the volunteers went through. There were differences between newcomers, volunteers and veteran volunteers and those who have left the organization after burnout or other reasons.

References
Recruiting volunteers to sports clubs

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Keywords: sports clubs, volunteers, recruitment, induction, England

Aim
The aim of this presentation is to explore the nature of sports volunteer recruitment in English clubs and to offer implications for guidance to sports clubs on how to recruit volunteers, particularly from outside their clubs.

Literature
Volunteers who run sports clubs are crucial to the structure of sport in England and significant to government policies which seek to use the formal structure of sport as a delivery mechanism. An estimate made in 2002, based on responses from national governing bodies of sport (NGBs), was that in England there were over 100,000 sports clubs run by volunteers, involving over 8 million volunteers (Taylor et al., 2003). Sportswise (2011) report an average of 20 volunteers per sports club, and one paid member of staff.

Sports volunteers (Taylor et al., 2003) and sports clubs (Sportswise, 2011) report shortages of volunteers. Sportswise (2011) report that 53% of clubs identified maintaining, recruiting and retaining volunteers as a key challenge for the following two years. However, despite problems with shortages of volunteers, it is apparent that sports clubs almost always restrict their recruitment of volunteers to people available from within the club – i.e. ex-players, players or parents of junior players (Taylor et al., 2003).

Human resource management (HRM) literature acknowledges that management of sports volunteers is different from paid employees. However, it addresses issues of sport volunteer recruitment in the main by replicating best practice principles from the paid employment sector, including job descriptions, screening and interviews (e.g. Taylor et al., 2008; Wolsey et al., 2012). This tends to orientate towards a more formal set of processes, which translate to transactional psychological contracts and programme management (Meijs and Karr, 2004). In contrast to this, literature on volunteers and psychological contracts orientates towards more informal processes with relational psychological contracts and membership management. There remains, therefore, something of an empirical question about where on the spectrum between the two positions sports clubs are when they recruit volunteers.

Methods
The authors of this presentation, together with Coachwise UK, conducted research in 2011 for the Office of Civil Society, as one of a number of European Year of Volunteering projects commissioned by the UK Government.

The subject of this project was ‘Opening up Sports Volunteering to the Wider Community’. In the course of researching recruitment of volunteers from outside sports clubs, issues were raised concerning how volunteers are recruited, what approach previous guidance to volunteer recruitment took, and how such guidance could be improved. The research for this project consisted of two phases: first focus groups with four clubs and interviews with two key agents from National Governing Bodies (NGBs), all with experience of recruiting volunteers from outside their clubs; and second, testing draft new guidance on volunteer recruitment from outside clubs with six clubs and six key officers responsible for volunteering from NGBs, County Sport Partnerships (CSPs) and Sport England.

For this presentation, secondary analysis was undertaken of the Coachwise research project evidence, particularly to connect it with relevant literature from HRM on recruiting and managing volunteers in sport. A coding framework of seven criteria was used to identify where the research subjects (sports clubs, key agents from National Governing Bodies and County Sport Partnerships) lay on the spectrum from formal/programme/transactional processes to informal/membership/relational processes.

Results
The results demonstrate that in practice volunteer recruitment processes in UK sports clubs orientate towards the formal/transactional/programme management extreme. However, there are more than a few instances of practices from the informal/relational/membership management extreme. The criteria most consistent with the former extreme are fitting the person to the job rather than vice versa, and utilising formal induction processes. The most common exceptions in practice to more formal processes are pragmatic multi-tasking by new volunteers, and ad hoc coordination of new volunteers by a number of people within the club, rather than a volunteer coordinator. The use of external agencies such as NGBs, CSPs or community volunteer centres is unusual for sports clubs, more because of lack of knowledge than rejection of this option. However, whether recruiting from within the club or from outside the club, the research undertaken informs the nature of recruitment and induction of sports volunteers in clubs, particularly the appropriate balance between formal and informal processes.

References
The significance of local context for volunteering in sports associations

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Keywords: Volunteering in sport associations, local context, municipal differences,

Aim of the paper
On the one hand, the political expectations of volunteering are very high, and particularly so in sports. On the other hand, there is also a widespread perception that it is increasingly difficult for sports associations to cope with volunteers and to recruit new ones. Great attention is therefore placed onto how to promote voluntary work in associations.

Research on volunteering is dominated by an actor-oriented approach with focus on resources (education, work, etc.), attitudes and motives of the individual. Research on volunteering in sports associations, however, has shown that structural and cultural factors most typically affect volunteering - especially the association’s size and specific characteristics of the sport. We have however very little knowledge about the significance of social, political and spatial context for the extent and characteristics of volunteering in sports associations.

The purpose of this paper is to elucidate the impact of local context on the extent – and ease of - voluntary work in sports associations in Denmark.

Theoretical background and research questions
Studies have shown that a number of community characteristics affect association density. Of particular importance is municipality size, degree of urbanization and distance from major cities, while it is less clear what significance population demographics and local political support hold (Thøgersen and Ibsen 2008; Lundåsen 2005). Inspired by these results, the analysis in this paper is based on the assumption that local context also affects the way associations operate as well as the extent and characteristics of volunteering. The analysis will elucidate the importance of the following three dimensions:

1. Population demographic: Many studies have shown that citizens’ involvement in voluntary work depends on their age, education, economy, etc. (Koch-Nielsen et al 2005). We therefore assume that population demographic in the community also affects the extent of volunteering in associations.

2. Conditions in the local area for sports associations: Studies have shown that political and institutional opportunity structures affect the extent and characteristics of civil society (Kriesi 1995). In this context we therefore assume that municipal support for sports associations, and the number of facilities the associations can use, affects voluntary work in sport associations.

3. Urbanization degree and the area’s distance from major cities: Inspired by organization ecological theory (Hannan and Free Mann 1977) we assume that the prevalence of voluntary sports associations and the extent of volunteering in associations also is a result of a necessity to meet the citizens’ wishes and needs. In local areas not located in close proximity to major cities, the need for sports associations and for volunteering in the associations, is greater than in areas near major cities, where citizens can meet their wants and needs in other ways.

Methodology
The analysis is carried out on the municipal level, i.e. average figures for the extent, significance and characteristics of volunteering in sports associations in each of the 98 municipalities in Denmark. The analysis is based on a comprehensive dataset from a large study of Danish sports associations, which was conducted in autumn of 2010. 5,203 sports associations answered a large questionnaire, which constituted 50.4 per cent. of all sports associations that received an invitation to answer the questionnaire. The questionnaire included questions about how many volunteers and paid workers the association has, the association’s assessment of how easy or difficult it is to recruit and retain volunteers, and the association’s attitudes to volunteering. Associations’ responses to these questions constitute the study’s dependent variables.

Data on demographics, political opportunity structures and degree of urbanization, municipality size, etc. constitute the independent variables and comes from Statistics Denmark and different databases containing information on public support for sports associations, number of facilities in each municipality, etc.

Results (preliminary)
When this abstract was submitted, the statistical analyses were not completed. Preliminary analyses show, however,

a. that there are significant differences between municipalities on the extent and characteristics of volunteering in sports associations in Denmark,

b. that this difference to a small degree is due to differences between the municipalities in
   a. population demographic
   b. municipal support for sports associations (including access to facilities),

c. that this difference is, to a much larger degree, closely bound to geographic and spatial features of the municipality.

References:


Examining the volunteer lifecycle: a case study of sport volunteerism

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Aim
Volunteers have become a critical resource in the design and implementation of sport programs and events (Green & Chalip, 1998). Accordingly, organisations relying upon volunteers face challenges including costs associated with volunteer recruitment, training, maintenance and withdrawal. Hence, exploring potential temporal phases associated with volunteer tenure to optimize the volunteer experience and retain volunteers is needed. The purpose of this research is to investigate volunteers for a non-profit organization targeting the homeless population using a volunteer lifecycle approach. Specifically, this research examines psychological determinants and temporal phases to help understand volunteer stages and transition to identify when volunteers are at risk of withdrawing from Back on My Feet (BoMF).

BoMF is a non-profit organisation serving people experiencing homelessness, by engaging them in running as a vehicle to promote self-sufficiency, build confidence, and self-esteem. BoMF depends heavily on its volunteers to lead weekly morning running sessions at 5:30am. Homeless individuals must attend three sessions per week and maintain a 90% attendance record.

Theoretical background
Social exchange theory guides this examination of the volunteer lifecycle for BoMF. Social exchange theory posits that social exchanges comprise actions contingent on the rewarding actions of others, which can provide for rewarding relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Hence, human relationships are formed by the use of a subjective-cost benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives (Homans, 1958). In the BoMF volunteering context, social exchange theory would suggest that volunteers are more likely to continue volunteering for the organisation when the benefits outweigh the costs. Furthermore, previous research suggests volunteers’ transition through distinct stages and withdraws after 1-2 years (Haski-Leventhal & Bargal, 2008). The transition and stages can be conceptualized as representing a temporal involvement trajectory similar to the product lifecycle. Hence, this research examines the cost-benefit analysis within social exchange theory from a volunteer lifecycle perspective.

Given the substantial time and physical requirements related to BoMF volunteerism, we hypothesize a shorter volunteer lifecycle years will emerge.

Methodology
Quantitative data were collected from registered BoMF volunteers in November 2011. A questionnaire was administered to 487 registered volunteers who had provided BoMF with a valid email address. Of those, n = 439 completed the survey providing a response rate of 90%. Demographic analysis revealed that BoMF volunteers are affluent, well educated, and are predominantly Caucasian. Sixty-eight percent of respondents were female and 87% of respondents indicated that they were still active BoMF volunteers. The questionnaire assessed three psychological measures (Involvement with BoMF 9-items, Volunteer Satisfaction 3-items, and Intention to Continue Volunteering 3-items) All measures were assessed on 7-point Likert scales. Length of volunteer service was collected using categories of: 1 month, 2-3 months, 4-6 months, 7-12 months, 13-18 months, and nineteen months plus.

Results
Respondents length of service ranged from one month (n = 35) to over nineteen months (n = 59), with the highest proportion of volunteers in the 7-12 month range (n = 91). Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to compare length of service category across each psychological measure. Results revealed a linear growth pattern from initial volunteering to a peak of 7-12 months for BoMF Involvement (M=6.17) and Satisfaction (M = 6.54) before declining. The growth pattern for Intentions to Continue Volunteering (M=6.61) peaked at 4-6 months before declining. Notably, although the mean scores for the psychographic measures decreased after the 7-12 month period, a second increase was observed for those who had volunteered beyond 18 months.

The results confirm our hypothesis that the volunteer lifecycle that exists for BoMF may be shorter than reported in other contexts. The lifecycle appears to begin with a growth stage in the first three months, followed by a stabilization stage between 4-7 months. A maturity stage appears to occur between 7-12 months followed by a decline stage that occurs between 12-19 months. However, results suggest that a fifth stage of resurgence occurs at nineteen months, wherein the psychological indicators begin to increase again. This lifecycle suggests that BoMF volunteers with more than a year of service may perceive the cost of involvement beginning to outweigh the benefits and are at risk of withdrawing due to dissatisfaction. However, volunteers who have advanced past this point, demonstrate renewed vigour towards volunteering and the organisation. These results suggest BoMF should introduce various activities and interventions across the different lifecycle stages. Such efforts could allow BoMF to lengthen the maturity stage of the volunteer lifecycle to help postpone the loss of trained volunteers, as well as develop strategies for addressing the factors that contribute to volunteer loss.

References
Understanding volunteers at local recurring sport events

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The aim of this paper is to understand why volunteers do voluntary work. There is a growing interest in understanding the motivation of volunteers at big sporting events. The trend seems to be that less people do voluntary work in general, and that the motivation for doing voluntary work has shifted from collectivistic motivations towards being more individualistic (Wollebæk and Sivesind 2010). This can, according to the literature, be observed as the interest for taking part and volunteering in different kinds of sport events is increasing. Many of these events are “once-in-a-lifetime” happenings to the volunteer and not so much recurring events during a year or season. In this paper we explore the motivation for sport event volunteering in the Norwegian premier league soccer which rely heavily on volunteers for organizing the matchday: how do volunteers explain their voluntary work at such recurring sport events?

The described individualistic turn in voluntarism is what Hustinx and Lammertyn (2003) refer to as reflexive volunteering and which is seen as a consequence of shifting social patterns in late modernity. The motivation for volunteering is self-centered and voluntary work is seen as a field or a ‘market of possibilities’. This reflexive volunteering is contrasted by collective volunteering which is rooted in a “communal orientation” where duty or responsibility to a local community is the prime motivation (Hustinx and Lammertyn 2003, p.173). This typology should not be seen as some sort of polarization between the modern and the traditional, but instead as a continuum where “collective” and “reflexive” ingredients are blended together into a personal volunteers’ cocktail” (Hustinx and Lammertyn 2003, p.171). One might expect that there are variance in volunteers’ motivation across types of events, such as large recurring local events and mega events that takes place less frequently and always at diverse locations. When trying to identify and understand how volunteers at Norwegian football stadiums reason their own voluntary work this perspective seems fruitful.

Data was collected through qualitative interviews among volunteers in 3 different clubs. The 15 participants in this study was randomly selected among the registered volunteers in these 3 different clubs.

The bulk of the data collection took part during spring 2012. Some preliminary findings indicates that the motivation of volunteers at these events seems to be more communal than reflexive and individualistic.

References

Volunteering in sport

The Event Volunteer Potential of Sports-Club Volunteering

Authors: Niki Koutrou & Paul Downward

1. Aim of paper
The purpose of this study is to examine if the experiences of volunteers at women’s rugby clubs in the UK impact upon individuals’ sport participation and future voluntary activity in rugby clubs, rugby events like the world cup and other sport and general contexts.

2. Literature review
Volunteering refers to the enthusiasm, skills, non-obliged commitment, dedication and gift of time that individuals offer to others, with their own free will and expecting to receive no financial remuneration other than expenses (Zappala & Burrell, 2001). Sport volunteering in the UK accounts for 26% of the total voluntary activity, and largely takes place within the Voluntary Sport Club (VSC) system (Sport England, 2003). It provides the basis for the development of grassroots sports. Sport volunteering also takes place at sport events. Here, the oner-off or periodic nature suggests that they rely on volunteers with different characteristics and motivations compared to club volunteers (Downward & Ralston, 2006). It is known, however, that if the volunteering experience is satisfying then this may lead to higher levels of commitment with the sports organization, which may affect volunteers’ longevity and intentions to continue volunteering (Doherty, 2009). As recruiting new volunteers is five times more time consuming than retaining existing volunteers (Strigas et al, 2003), sport organizations could place more emphasis on understanding their volunteers’ characteristics and motivations and on developing a volunteer experience that may help to develop volunteering in both clubs and events, that is across the whole sporting experience. This paper aims to contribute to this literature, by exploring if aspects of the volunteering experience at women’s rugby clubs in the UK, influences the likelihood of volunteers to engage in future volunteering at their club, in sports events like the Rugby World Cup and in different or other than sport settings.

3. Methodology, research design and data analysis
Women’s rugby was selected as a case study, as the 2010 Women’s Rugby World Cup was held in England. This facilitated comparisons between club and event volunteers. With the cooperation of the Rugby Football Union for Women (RFUW), 150 clubs were identified as taking part in the national league structure of women’s rugby out of which 100 had an active online page at the time of the survey. Research participants were recruited via an email invitation including a link to an internet-administered questionnaire. A total of 168 volunteers completed the online survey which is deemed satisfactory considering that most women’s rugby clubs are being run by no more than 5 volunteers, though precise population data is lacking. The survey instrument included questions aiming to elicit the participants’ demographic characteristics, experiences, expectations, motivation, satisfaction with their club experiences and on their future volunteering behaviour in the club, and actual volunteering or not at the rugby world cup. Exploratory factor analysis was employed to summarise volunteer experiences, and then these factors plus other covariates employed in logistic and other regression analysis to analyse volunteering at the world cup, and future intentions to volunteer in the club and elsewhere.

4. Results, discussion and implications/conclusion
This study is the first that has examined the linkage between sports clubs and sport events volunteering and addressed the possibility of the former acting as a basis upon which the latter may be built. The Factor analysis yielded six reliable dimensions of satisfaction: satisfaction with their role and their contribution, with club’s support, with contingent rewards, with co-workers, with communications and with appreciation of them as volunteers’. Logistic regression analysis was then applied to identify which of these factors plus socio-demographic characteristics had an impact on their volunteering for the world cup, and linear regression on their future plans for sport volunteering and sport event volunteering. The results indicated no strong evidence of a volunteer continuum in sports between VSC and events. Even though playing the sport could act as a link between the activities, other aspects of volunteering mitigated the desire to get involved in other contexts with strong club identity being the most important constraint. Therefore, satisfaction with experiences in clubs and strong club identity might both encourage as well as constrain volunteers being involved in other settings. Consequently, event organisers should work closely with club authorities to help volunteers to make a better connection from their club to the sport more widely and with the role of clubs and events to support the sport generally, and to increase volunteers’ development opportunities through deploying their efforts in more than one setting.

5. References

www.easm2012.com 18-21 September 2012, Aalborg, Denmark
Participation in sport. Strategies and challenges
Motions in the city – activity and mobility in a segregated city

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Aim
The aim of this paper is to, with basis in three residential areas with different spatial and socio-economic characteristics in Malmö (Sweden), increase the insight regarding adolescents’ geographical/territorial range in connection to physical activity. Moreover, the aim is to map the places used for physical activity and, finally, to discuss the planning of places and spaces for physical activity based on my findings.

The three residential areas of the study are:
- Bunkeflostrand: a wealthy middle-class suburb with a wide range of places for physical activity.
- Hermodsdal: a low-status area containing multi-family houses and a very high share of people with a foreign background.
- Möllevången: a dense inner-city area with a mixed population but a relatively low socio-economic status.

Theoretical background
Several researchers, including Book (me), have studied the influence of built environment and socio-economic factors on physical activity behavior (for example Handy et al 2002; Saelens et al 2012). A lot of the studies focus on adults and a North American context. The Swedish context is a bit different with a long tradition of a strong Sport Movement today being contested and questioned, an overall high standard of all areas now showing a growing divergence in status and opportunities, and a fairly homogeneous population becoming more and more heterogeneous. The departure is taken in the existing body of knowledge and literature but has chosen a different theoretical framework mainly based on a time geographical perspective, developed by Hägerstrand (1974). Within this perspective activities are taking place, or not, dependent on a number of constraints: capability constraints, authority constraints, and coupling constraints. These are used to analyze the different space and activity patterns of different residential areas. Another central concept being problematized in the study is geographical/territorial range (Matthews 1992). Finally, the planning perspective is being illuminated by different planning studies and examples.

Methodology
To fulfill the aim a survey (n=358) and interviews (n=14) while walking around in the neighbourhood have been conducted among pupils at three schools located in the selected areas. Moreover, interviews with urban (landscape) planners in Malmö and field studies in the different areas have been carried out. The results have been mapped to illustrate the patterns and compared to other studies as this study is quite limited in size. Based on the results from the three areas I have moved on to discuss how planning could or should be organized, inspired by some good examples, in order to meet the desires, needs and restrictions of the adolescents.

Results
Unless type of residential area, there is a lot of self-organized physical activities going on and most activities are carried out in the local area. More than 84% of the adolescents in all three areas are active. The definition of physical activity is however a bit vague as the adolescents may interpret it differently. Play-oriented activities and strolling are included. In a study made by Swedish National Institute of Public Health (2010), 75-80% of the adolescents in the age-group of interest are physically active at least 3 days a week, most of them more often.

When it comes to organized activities (in clubs) the activity in the middle-class suburb is the largest. Also, the geographical/territorial range is larger among the adolescents in the middle-class area, while the other two areas show a higher degree of geographical constraint. The time geographical concepts of restrictions are useful when trying to explain differences in the use of places and participation in activities outside the residential area. The restrictions are fewer among the middle-class youngsters who have better access to resources like money, a family car, information, networks etc. One of the most interesting findings was that those being the most satisfied with their own area were the adolescents in the dense low-status with the lowest geographical range/mobility and a poorer supply of places than the middle-class suburb. The inner-city area offers the fewest activity places.

The pattern appearing in this study, which has included looking into different planning solutions for physical activity, indicate that in order to open up the city for different groups, new ideas, new ways of planning and new types of cooperation between for instance the municipality and the sport sector are necessary. In Sweden, we can’t rely on the Sport Movement to meet the needs, as we have done for a very long time. Non-organized or self-organized physical activities must be valued as much as organized activities and recognized within sport-space planning.

References
A study regarding the association between sport/exercise participation and socio-economic characteristics in Sapporo, Japan

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Abstract keywords
Sport / Exercise Participation, Sport / Exercise Category, Socio-economic Characteristics, Binary Logistic Regression Analysis, Sapporo

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
The purpose of this study is to consider the association between sport / exercise categories and socio-economic characteristics among Sapporo citizens.

Sapporo is the fourth-largest city in Japan by population, and is known outside Japan for hosting the 1972 Winter Olympics, the first ever held in Asia. With an average snowfall of 630 cm (248 inches), it is one of the few metropolitan cities in the world with such heavy snowfall.

Theoretical background or literature review*
Tsukahara et al. (2011b) clarified that on the premise that all sport and exercise participation status were recognized as a) non-participation (having not participated in any exercises and sports during last year) and participation (having participated in exercise or sports at least once a year), this seemed to be related with the one’s socio-economic characteristic variables such as sex, age group, family structure, employment status, income, as well as one’s sport experiences in high school or college extracurricular activities. Also, 2) as a result of binary logistic regression analysis, it was revealed that sport / exercise participation in Sapporo is affected by age, occupation, annual income, and most importantly by sport experiences in educational institutions.

On the other hand, according to Tsukahara et al. (2011a), which analyzes the determinants of snow sport participation from the viewpoint of socio-economic characteristics in Sapporo with the same data, it becomes evident that snow sport participation is controlled by different factors from the ones of all sport / exercise participation. In other words, it is expected that the socio-economic determinants for sport / exercise participation differ from one activity to another.

Methodology, research design and data analysis

Therefore, this study categorizes sports and exercises, and to evaluate the possible association between those categories and Sapporo citizens’ socio-economic characteristics with binary logistic regression analysis.

In order to carry out these tasks, this study analyzes the ‘Questionnaire regarding Sapporo Citizen’s Sport Participation and Environment,’ which was commissioned for the authors by the local government of Sapporo and carried out between December 2009 to January 2010 to investigate local sport participation trends.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions**
The findings in this study can be summarized as follows:
1) Exercise and Sports investigated in this survey are classified into 10 categories (Pool EXERCISE, Indoor EXERCISE, Road EXERCISE, Space Free EXERCISE, Indoor SPORT, Field SPORT, Outdoor LEISURE (summer), Snow LEISURE (winter), Golf, Park-golf), depending on factors mainly facility and human resource (can be played individually / collectively) requirements.

As a result of binary logistic regression analysis on each EXERCISE category, 2) it is clarified that there is little association between EXERCISE participation, especially in activities which can be performed without any specific facility requirements such as Road EXERCISE and Space Free EXERCISE, and socio-economic characteristics.

In contrast, 3) according to the results of our second analysis on SPORT and LEISURE categories, it becomes evident that both SPORT and LEISURE participations (except Park-golf) are strongly associated with Sapporo citizens’ socio-economic characteristics.

Moreover, 4) it is shown that even though the participation of two SPORT categories seems to be tied to a moderate annual income, the categories of Snow LEISURE and Golf are more strongly connected to the higher income and prior experiences in high school / college sports and athletics.

In conclusion, our research indicates that there is a wide variation in the association between sports participation and socio-economic standing. Also, most of them could be explained by the combination of several determinants such as characteristics of the activities (facility requirement factor and human resource one) and one’s socio-economic characteristics (sex, age group, occupation, income, prior sport experiences in high school or college extracurricular activities, etc.).

References – limited to 5

Exploring the impact of sport events on sustainable sport participation outcomes in local communities

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Aim of abstract/paper - research question and theoretical background or literature review*
Economic and tourism impact have dominated studies on impact of events, while the impact on sport participation has not received the same level of scholarly attention. There is little empirical evidence to support the common notion that "sport events stimulate sport participation", and if there is, empirical studies are mainly focussed on ‘mega’ or ‘hallmark’ sport events (e.g., Frawley & Cush, 2011). Non-hallmark events have been under researched when it comes to sustainable legacies in general, and the impact on sport participation in particular (e.g., Foley et al. 2012). However, small-to-medium sized sport events are more ubiquitous, and at the aggregate level, their impact may provide more sustainable benefits, as opposed to hallmark sport events (e.g., Girginov & Hills, 2008). The purpose of this paper is to explore if, and how past non-hallmark sport events have impacted sport participation and development in local communities through the perceptions of key stakeholders. The Pan-American Junior Athletic Championships (PANAMS), a medium sized international sport event, and the Canadian National Figure Skating Championships (SKATE), both hosted in 2005 in two different medium cities in a Canadian province, are taken as cases.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
Participants for the study were purposefully selected to include a variety of key stakeholders of both events. For the PANAMS, 21 participants were targeted and agreed to participate (8 members of the organizing committee; 2 members of the local track and field club; 2 coaches; 3 facility managers; 7 athletes). The SKATE sample consisted of 15 respondents (9 members of the organizing committee; 3 facility managers; 1 coach; 2 athletes). Face-to-face interviews for the PANAMS were conducted between October 2010 and May 2011; for SKATE between October 2011 and January 2012. A semi-structured interview guideline was developed, consisting of five general themes, related to sport participation and development: (a) awareness of sport participation initiatives at the time of the event; (b) expectations; (c) perceptions; (d) relationships; and, (e) reflections on lessons learned and potential tactics and strategies for future events. While these themes were similar for all stakeholder groups, probes were stakeholder specific. All interviews were audio taped and transcribed verbatim. The researchers identified a variety of themes. Axial and open coding was used; NVivo software assisted in the process.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions**
The interviewees perceived different outcomes for the two events. There were indications of sport development opportunities for the PANAMS, while this was not apparent for SKATE. The PANAMS interviewees indicated that the organization of the event enhanced the overall local human and physical infrastructure. They clearly had the impression that organizing the event, the availability of a new facility and new equipment created opportunities for personal growth for athletes, coaches and officials alike. The event benefited not only the development of track and field at the university and in the community, but also other sports post event. Although this was somewhat expected, expectations were exceeded. The key stakeholders for SKATE, on the other hand, perceived no, or at best, little impact with regard to sport participation and development. Almost all stakeholders emphasized that the event was a ‘high level competition’ which develops participating athletes by increasing their experience and furthering their sports careers. In addition, they referred to SKATE as ‘pure entertainment’, staged to increase economic impact and to draw spectators into the seats. Initiatives around SKATE, such as school programs, were initiated with the intent to bringing children into the facility to watch practices of the athletes; first of all to benefit the athletes by creating a ‘real audience’ during practices, and secondly to draw them to the event with friends and family. For both events, those who are already active in the respective sports seemed to be overwhelmingly the primary beneficiaries.

Stakeholders of both events somehow expected an ‘automatic’ effect on sport participation based on the creation of ‘awareness’, however, no strategies or tactics were intentionally undertaken. All interviewees recognized the potential value of sport events to stimulate sport participation in the local community post hoc, and acknowledged ‘missed opportunities’. A sustainable impact, although unleveraged, seems to be apparent for the event for which a new stadium was built (PANAMS). The question as to how to make events more effective to serve specific goals for sport participation and development in local communities requires further investigation. The focus should be on linking a cause/need/purpose/message to event portfolios and then to have a marketing plan that capitalizes on that, and that goes beyond the event. Events should be seen as one set of tools in an overall (social) marketing strategy.

References – limited to 5
Measuring levels of adult participation in sport and physical activity in Northern Ireland: findings from the Northern Ireland sport and physical activity survey (SAPAS)

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Keywords
Physical Activity, Participation, Health

Background
The measurement of participation in sport and physical activity in the UK has been driven by factors such as monitoring the investment in local authority facilities, evaluating the difference National lottery funding has made, and monitoring service level agreements between Government and national agencies. A new agenda has arisen which is to monitor the amount of physical activity people are undertaking in order to derive a health benefit as a link between physical activity and health has been firmly established. Regular physical activity reduces the risk of premature mortality, coronary heart disease, colon cancer, diabetes mellitus and osteoporosis and helps reduce depression and anxiety, improve mood and enhance a person’s ability to perform daily tasks (US Department for Health and Human Services, 1996; Department of Health, 2004, Department of Health, 2011).

This new agenda requires new research and much more sophisticated research instruments than currently exist. The purpose of this research is to evaluate the evidence and then to design and test a new survey instrument designed to assess levels of adult participation in sport and physical activity in Northern Ireland.

Methodology
This large-scale population based survey was commissioned by Sport NI and conducted by Ipsos MORI, Belfast. The sample universe comprises all individuals aged 16+ living in Northern Ireland. A total of 4,653 interviews were conducted continuously over a 12 month period (23 July – 10 August 2010). The survey was conducted face-to-face, in-home, using Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI). A stratified random sampling approach was applied for the selection of households. The data were weighted to reflect the age and sex profile of the Northern Ireland population and the geographical distribution across 26 district councils. The main aim of the survey is to enhance the understanding of sport and physical activity patterns and determinants across the adult population of Northern Ireland.

Results
The key preliminary headline findings from the survey are detailed below.

- 35% of respondents achieve the Chief Medical Officer’s recommended level of physical activity.
- Most physical activity is done at home, followed by activities at work.
- The most important physical activities in the work domain are manual labour and walking about while at work. The work domain as a source of physical activity is especially relevant for men and people from lower social classes.
- The main physical activities in the home relate to housework, DIY and gardening.
- 37% of Northern Ireland’s adult population participated in at least 30 minutes of moderate intensity sport in the last seven days. The figure increases to 47% when walking and cycling for recreation are included.
- When prompted with a range of reasons for participating in sport, enjoyment and keeping fit were most frequently mentioned by the respondents. Women are generally more motivated by losing weight, while for men the performance and competitive aspects are much more important. Relieving stress is an important motivation for people that work, especially for those with higher qualifications.
- 23% of adults in Northern Ireland are members of a club in which they can participate in sport or physical activities.
- 73% of sports club members participate in at least moderate intensity activities on at least one day per week.

Discussion
In today’s society, changing inactive lifestyles and increasing levels of activity presents a tremendous public health challenge - a challenge that cannot be ignored if health is to be improved. Physical activity, including sport participation, needs to be seen as an opportunity - for enjoyment, for improved vitality, for a sense of achievement, for fitness, for optimal weight, and – not least – for health. It is in this context that this research is relevant and necessary. Government, relevant agencies, communities and individuals in Northern Ireland need to become aware of current levels of activity and then reflect on how conducive homes, neighbourhoods and environments are to supporting more active living.

References
- Department of Health (2011). Start Active, Stay Active: A report on physical activity from the four home countries’ Chief Medical Officers.

Note. Findings from SAPAS were presented by Professor Simon Shibli at EASM 2011. I was unable to attend due to illness.
Is sport participation in England saturated? The unseen influence of participation turnover

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Abstract keywords
Sport participation, sport policy

Background and research question
Until recently, Sport England, the national agency to which the UK government devolves responsibility for community sport development in England, employed participation for 30 minutes at a time on at least three days a week as its threshold definition for regular sports participation. The related policy goal was to increase by one million the number of adults participating at or over this level between 2007/8 and 2012/13, an increase of just under 15%. However, following only glacial progress towards this goal (an increase of less than 2% in three years), Sport England has now adopted a goal of year-on-year growth in the number of adults participating in sport for 30 minutes at least once a week. However, around 40% of the adult population in England already participates in sport once a week, so what evidence is there that an increase in this proportion is achievable.

Literature review
Approaches to increasing physical activity levels have tended to be underpinned by models that assume progression through stages of engagement in which attitudinal change precedes behavioural change (Prochaska et al., 1992). However, much sport development practice tends to assume latent demand for sport participation that can be released and satisfied by the removal of barriers (Foster et al., 2005). Each of these approaches in isolation are flawed, because barriers are irrelevant without motivation, but stimulating motivation whilst barriers prevail leads to frustration and disengagement. As such, a model that considers the interaction of motivation and barriers is necessary (Weed, 2010a). However, a further problem with sport participation policy has been that it has rarely recognised that people move in and out of participation in sport over the life course, with participation frequency rising and falling, and often lapsing all together, as life circumstances change (Weed, 2010b), resulting in a considerable level of turnover that is not captured in national sport participation figures.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The presentation will report on multi-dimensional secondary analyses and synthesis of datasets from Sport England’s Active People Survey (n=363,724) and Sport England’s Satisfaction with the Quality of the Sport Experience (SQSE) research (n=44,287) between 2007/8 and 2010/11, including synthetic estimation across the datasets (Bajekal et al., 2004), to examine the extent to which a year-on-year increase in the proportion of the adult population in England participating once a week is achievable.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
Key insights, the detail of which will be outlined and analysed in greater detail in the presentation, are that:

- Since 2007/8, adult sport participation at any threshold level in England has appeared to be relatively static.
- Half of the adult population in England do not participate in sport at all (ie, have not done so in the last month), and a significant proportion (around a third of the adult population) appear to have little interest in doing so.
- Of those participating in sport at any level, around one third have been doing so for some time, around a third have increased their participation in the last year, and around a third have decreased their participation in the last year.
- On average, of those participating in sport at any level, one third were not doing so at that level a year ago, and a further third will not be doing so at that level in a year’s time.

Summary results from cross-sectional surveys do not show turnover in sport participation. However, synthetic estimation across the Active People and Satisfaction of the Quality of the Sport Experience surveys suggests that while around 40% of the adult population in England participate in sport once a week, a further 10-15% are engaged with sport and are likely to re-commence participation once a week or more within a year, whilst 10-15% of the population are likely to fall out of the group participating at least once a week within a year. Therefore, at any one time, more than half of the population (circa 55%) are engaged with sport and are likely to be actively considering participating once a week or more, whilst around a third are not interested in sport participation at all. If a further proportion are currently experiencing life circumstances that make sport participation a low priority, might this suggest that adult sport participation in England is saturated, and that, consequently, the pursuit of increased sport participation levels as a policy goal is futile?

References – limited to 5

Images of sports defined: attitudes of the Dutch population regarding fifteen types of sports

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Aim of abstract
Encouraging people to become more active in specific types of sport is a challenging undertaking. Especially in The Netherlands with a relatively high level of (club) sports participation (European Commission 2010). Nonetheless most Dutch sports federations as well as commercial sport suppliers aim to increase their membership levels. Determinants of participation in sports are hard to influence, like people’s attitude towards sports in general and – more specific – towards types of sport. This study makes a considerable contribution to the knowledge development regarding perceptions of different types of sport held by the general population and specific groups. The study also compares images of types of sports with empirical sports data. For example, the extent to which a sport is associated with injuries contrasts with factual injury incidence rates.

Theoretical background
The relevance of people’s attitude for explaining motivational and behavioural change is explicaded in the I-Change Model (De Vries et al. 1988). According to Maio & Haddock (2010) an attitude is an overall evaluation of an object that is based on cognitive, affective and behavioural information. Attitude is closely related to the concept of image. The terms image and attitude describe a similar phenomenon, but from a different perspective: an individual has a specific attitude (for example towards a certain type of sport) and an object of practice (like a type of sport) has a particular image among [certain groups] of people. An image is a collectively held picture of an object or practice (De Pelsmacker & Van Kenhove 2002).

Methodology
Data were collected by means of an online questionnaire among a random sample survey of the national Consumer Jury Panel of GfK Panelservices. This data collection project was commissioned by the Mulier Institute. The target group consists of a representative sample of the Dutch population aged 15-80. 4,200 questionnaires were completed, a response of 74%. The selected fifteen sports included both individual and team sports with different organisational structures and with a broad variety of participation rates (among different groups): badminton, fitness, golf, running, hockey, ice skating, skiing, table tennis, gymnastics, soccer, judo and karate, volleyball, cycling and swimming. Three randomly selected types of sports were presented to every respondent. Then respondents were asked which descriptions best fit which of the three sports. The presented descriptions were: ‘good for one’s health’, ‘injury sensitive’, ‘difficult to learn’, ‘elitist’, ‘cozy’, ‘individualistic’, ‘a physically tough sport’, ‘good for perseverance’, ‘old-fashioned’, ‘a men’s sport’ and ‘an exciting action sport’.

Results
An analysis of the data revealed that ‘good for one’s health’ is primarily associated with swimming, ‘injury sensitive’ with skiing and ‘difficult to learn’ with gymnastics. Furthermore, ‘elitist’ is predominantly connected to golf, ‘cozy’ to volleyball and ‘individualistic’ to running. Judo and karate are seen as ‘a physically tough sport’, cycling as ‘good for perseverance’ and ‘old-fashioned’ is linked with table tennis. Additionally, soccer is associated with both ‘a men’s sport’ and ‘an exciting action sport’. It is also found that attitudes of groups diverge for some sports and are similar for other. For example, the attitude of men and women towards tennis are alike, while the attitudes of both genders regarding ice skating are dissimilar. The data also show that perceptions regarding a type of sport occasionally contrast with factual information. For example, running is not frequently associated with injuries, while injury incidence rates for running are relatively high. In my presentation more sport specific results will be integrated. The results enable sports federations and clubs to develop knowledge driven projects which focus on increasing membership levels. However, further research is required to determine whether sports federations wish to change the images presented and if so, how they would do this. And what images are likely to be associated with increased likelihood of participation, among specific groups?

References
Movement in the wake of social change – about individualism and social relations in leisure time sport and exercise participation

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Keywords: sport and exercise participation, organizational setting, individualism, social relations

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
The aim of this paper is to investigate Danish sport and exercise participants’ opinions about the organisation of their sporting practice according to two parameters of social vs. individual settings and routine based vs. flexible organisation of the activities. In Denmark, participation in sport and exercise has steadily increased between 1964 and 2007 (Pilgaard, 2009). But not all organizational settings increase equally. Self-organized activities grow more rapidly than, and have exceeded club-organized sport, and also commercial settings seem to gain market share. Sport clubs are often associated with positive values like social inclusion, cultural integration, community, democracy and joy, whereas commercial and self-organized activities are seen as individual and less dependent on social relations (Lorentzen, 2001). The development is thus causing a concern that sport and exercise is losing its role as an important contributor of social capital (Lorentzen, 2001).

Theoretical background
Anders Fogh Jensen sees individuals in today’s project-oriented society as subject to social changes leading to a more individualized everyday life with values such as non-permanent placement, instability and short-term planning (Jensen, 2009). Some critical sociologists approach the development of flexibility and changeability with scepticism; the fragmented way of everyday life is said to reflect a general societal transformation that permeates every corner of everyday life where it becomes difficult to maintain social relations and to make stable social commitments (Bauman, 2002; Sennett, 1999). In this paper I ask to what extent participation in sport and exercise in the domain of leisure time has become an individual affair.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
A survey sample (n = 3,957) representative of the Danish adult population (aged 16 and older) collected in 2011 investigates participation in sport and exercise according to organizational settings (club-organized, self-organized or commercially organized). What are the opinions about individual vs. social settings and routine based vs. flexible participation in sport and exercise? And does it differ according to organizational setting? Many people today attend sport and exercise in more than one setting and in the analysis this will be taken into account. Four questions look into the respondent’s opinions about individual vs. social participation in sport and exercise: 1. Friendship/social contact means a lot to me when I participate in sport/exercise; 2. I prefer to participate in sport/exercise alone; 3. It does not matter to me whether I know the people I participate in sport/exercise with; 4. I have chosen my sport/exercise activity because of the social relations I get from it. Further, the following questions will investigate preferences of routine vs. flexibility:

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
The data is not yet analysed (but will be ready for the presentation at the EASM conference) but a hypothesis based on the theoretical framework is expecting club-organized individuals to be more socially and stability oriented in their sporting practice whereas self-organized and commercially-organized individuals are more individual- and flexibility oriented in their participation in sport and exercise. The results of participants in more than one setting will be interesting to explore.

Reference list
Sport commitment among older amateur athletes: a study of the 2011 National Senior Games

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Abstract keywords
Sport commitment, sport participation, older amateur athlete, senior athlete, competitive sport, National Senior Games

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
Active participation in exercise, physical activity, and sport is encouraged throughout the world due mainly to the quality of life benefits to be gained. Nevertheless, much of the world’s population does not exercise nearly enough, if at all, especially older age groups. As societies age throughout the world the proportion of those over 60 will increase from 11% in 2009 to 22% by 2050 worldwide (United Nations), the need to increase involvement in physical activity is greater than ever. One segment of the ageing population that does participate regularly in exercise is older amateur athletes, or ‘senior athletes’. Senior athletes’ participation in competitive sport is a growing phenomenon supported by an increasing range of organized competitions to choose from. Many senior athletes prepare year-round to maintain or improve their mobility, endurance, skills and performance in their sport(s). As a result, senior athletes are a particularly interesting group to study. Improved understanding of what drives these seniors to participate in sport will enhance efforts to involve a larger percentage of the ageing population in both sport and exercise.

The purpose of this research is to advance our understanding of senior athletes by analyzing not only how and why they participate, but also why they remain committed to organized competitive sport.

Literature review
Previous research offers various perspectives on the factors affecting participation in amateur competitive sport (Casper, Gray, & Babkes-Stellino, 2007; Gill & Deeter, 1988; Kolt, Driver, & Giles, 2004; Masters, Ogles, & Jolton, 1993; Scanlan, Russell, Magyar, & Scanlan, 2009). Scanlan et al. (2009) and Casper et al. (2007) each tested the Sport Commitment Model (SCM) with amateur athletes. In addition to finding sport enjoyment to be the key factor driving commitment, both studies identified a need to continue exploring and expanding the SCM. Other studies identify different commitment motives and propose an integration of the existing concepts to advance understanding. Kolt et al. (2004) identified six participation motives among active seniors, with health and fitness emerging as the most influential. In a study of marathon runners, Masters et al. (1993) proposed four main categories of motives: psychological, achievement, social, and physical. They suggest adapting their model by combining it with variables from related research and applying it do new demographic groups. Finally, Gill and Deeter (1988) analyzed ‘sport orientation’ and found competitiveness to be a key driver in sport participation, suggesting that further research be done to elucidate the characteristics of their model. Despite these varied results as well as recommendations for expansion and integration, there is a lack of research attempting to combine the existing sport participation concepts in an effort the advance the sport commitment model.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
This exploratory research utilizes both theoretical and empirical methods. First, the existing conceptual work is integrated in an effort to develop a more comprehensive sport commitment model for senior athletes. Second, the modified model is tested in an online survey. Survey participants include athletes registered for the 2011 Summer National Senior Games (NSG) held during two weeks in June in Houston, Texas. The NSG competition involved nearly 10,000 athletes aged 50 and older who competed for medals in 19 different sports. A test pilot was carried out during the event with 92 athletes. After revisions were made, an online survey was emailed to 7,943 registered athletes. A hardcopy version was mailed to a random sample of 340 athletes without email accounts. A total of 2,147 surveys were returned for a response rate of 25%. Respondents were 57% male and 43% female, ranging in age from 50 to 93 (M = 67). Both closed and open-ended question formats were used. Demographic information was also gathered. Cronbach alpha tests were used to estimate the internal consistency and reliability of each latent variable.

Confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modeling were also utilized to test the model using IBM SPSS Amos.

Results, discussion and implications
Analysis of results and implications is still being carried out at this time. In our preliminary analysis, the estimated alphas fit within the range of .89 and .95 demonstrating consistency of the selected variables. The results of chi-square and other typical indices suggest a reasonably fitting model. The structural equation modelling supports our initial hypothesis about the variables’ influence on sport commitment. Initial analysis of sport commitment predictors identified such as ‘social opportunities’ and ‘sport-orientation’ suggest opportunities for expanding the model to enhance our understanding of sport commitment among older amateur athletes.

References

Runners: types, identity and club affiliation

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Keywords: participation, typologies, running, recreational running, motives, identity, club

Background
Recreational running is the biggest physical activity in Denmark among adults (16+) and has witnessed a boom since the 1990s, as has also been seen in other European countries (van Bottenburg, 2006). In 1993 nine percent of Danes ran regularly, and by 2007 this had increased to one out of four Danes (Pilgaard, 2009). Despite many people running regularly, only a limited number of runners do so in organized clubs. 85 percent of Danish runners run self-organized and only seven percent are member of an athletic club.

Objectives
With this background a study was conducted on behalf of the National Olympic Committee and Sports Confederation of Denmark (DIF) and the Danish Athletic Federation (DAF) to help determine how DIF and DAF can raise club participation among runners. With this intention the study contributes important knowledge about runners in Denmark. It does so by giving answers to questions that address what peoples’ motives are for running, what their ambitions are regarding running, how they organize running, what they wish to gain from a club membership and what their running habits are.

Methods
The study is based on a survey with 4,052 runners and is supported by interviews and focus group interviews with runners. The survey was conducted as an internet questionnaire comprising 59 questions. About half of the respondents were club members, and the ability to compare members with non-members was important in processing the results.

Results/conclusion
With inspiration from Vos, Scheerder, Boen & Feys (2008), the study’s findings divide runners in to five different types: the traditional runner, the social runner, the challenge-seeking runner, the self-organized runner and the health runner. The types differ in their motives for running, organization of running and running habits.

One of the main findings in the study is that runners alternate between different ways of organizing running. 76 percent of the runners in the survey run alone, together with peers or colleagues and/or in a club. Only 14 percent only run alone.

Interestingly the study also finds that runners vary according to the emphasis they put on running as part of their identity and hereby adds important knowledge by identifying factors that influence runners in their choice to become club members. The role identity plays for the different types of runners is closely linked to their motives and running habits, and the study shows that identity seems to be a paramount factor in the runner’s decision to become a club member or not. Clubs are mainly for the most dedicated runners for whom running is a big part of their identity.

Even though half the non-members have considered club membership only few runners do join a club. According to the findings in this study this might be to do with the fact that athletic clubs primarily cater for the most dedicated runners which makes new beginners and less dedicated runners feel that the clubs are not for them. Therefore the study concludes that it is only by working with the different types of runners and putting forward tailor-made offers accordingly that clubs can increase memberships among runners.

With this conclusion DIF and DAF have decided on a project with the aim of getting 10,000 new runners as members of athletic clubs by the end of 2013 (an increase in DAF members of 25 percent).

References
Member’s retention in Portuguese fitness clubs:
The influence of expectations, positioning, well-being and satisfaction

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Abstract keywords
Retention, fitness, positioning, expectations, well-being, satisfaction

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
The objective of this study was to understand how positioning, expectations, well-being and satisfaction influence membership retention in fitness clubs in Portugal. We tried to answer the following question: To what extent do the positioning, perception of the service attributes by the members, the expectations, what is expected from a certain service; the well-being, pleasant being of body and mind; and the satisfaction, contentment of necessities and wishes, influence member retention in fitness clubs.

Theoretical background or literature review*
The influence of satisfaction in retention has been continuously explored [1]. However, it is important to underline that not all attributes have the same weight. Thus their effects on the satisfaction are different [2; 3]. It is therefore crucial to understand which are the most important to the retention [2].

A study [2] about services quality in retention links retention to the perception of the service attributes – positioning. If the member does not recognize the key aspects, the option may not be effective.

Other studies [1; 5] explain the retention through expectations. According to the authors, consumers use their expectations of the service to determine if this has an acceptable level of quality and satisfaction, becoming therefore necessary to understand the expectations regarding the organization.

Studies mention the psychological and physical well-being associated to consumption [4], arguing that the values relating the physical practice change according to well-being. Nonetheless, the relation between well-being and consumption in fitness is poorly documented and it became, in this study, an opportunity to directly explore its relationship with the retention in fitness services.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
Data from a sample of 2250 fitness club members were collected, through questionnaire, from a Portuguese Fitness Network. The sample is representative of both genders: female (54.6%; n=1228) and male (44.9%; n=1010). The majority of the respondents is in the age group “20-34 years old” (56%; n=1259), followed by “35-49 years old” (19%; n=428).

For the questionnaire, a list of attributes, mentioned in the literature and confirmed by expertise, was produced. A pre-test was conducted which led to formal adjustments in order to simplify the completion resulting in the final instrument. It was applied randomly by the staff to the members of the club and collected at the end of the workout.

In the treatment of the questionnaire data the factor analysis was used with extraction of principal components, in order to determine common factors to the original variables. Path analysis was subsequently performed, through multiple linear regressions and analytical model representation. The overall fit of the model was assessed through the coefficient of determination $R^2$, the proportion of unexplained variability was given by $e=1-R^2$ and the path coefficient was given by $\sqrt{1-R^2}$. Then the total effects were calculated through the direct effects and the indirect effects among pairs of variables. Finally, the proportion of causal explained correlation was calculated through the ratio of the total effect and the correlation coefficient.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions**
The model shows the direct influences of the different constructs on retention. Satisfaction influences significantly retention. Concerning positioning, facilities and equipment and human resources are the constructs which influence retention, as in the studies [2; 3]. Expectations also influence the retention, reinforcing studies [5]. However the most influential construct in retention is the well-being in the club. Members who feel well-being in the club through the positive effect of physical activity remain in the club, promoting retention.

The model also contains the constructs which influence satisfaction and have indirect impact on retention, through satisfaction. Positioning influences satisfaction on the construct, innovation and services, as in study [1], facilities and equipment, and human resources, as referenced in studies [1; 3] The constructs expectations and well-being in the club influence significantly satisfaction, with well-being in the club appearing as the most influential on satisfaction. Our study confirms that not all attributes have the same weight and therefore do not have the same influence on satisfaction.

Comparing the total effects and the respective causal explained proportions of the model, it can be seen that the constructs which have greater causal effect on retention are well-being in the club (72%), followed by facilities and equipment (22%), expectations (21%), human resources (16%) and innovation and services (9%). The results indicate that in the relationships between these constructs and retention, although significant, they are not very strong, suggesting that there may be additional attributes with impact on retention.

Fitness clubs should keep suitable and modern facilities and equipment, should bet on cultivating strong customer relationships and especially ensure that the member feels good at the club to renew the membership.
References – limited to 5


Determinants of fitness firms’ growth in Portugal
Empirical Evidence Using Panel Data Models

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Keywords: Financing, Fitness Firms, Growth, Sport Management, Labour Productivity, Panel Data, Sport Policy.

Aim of the paper
The main focus of this paper is to understand the determinants for growth in small and medium fitness firms; we consider this knowledge will help entrepreneurs and sport policy makers sustaining this market for socioeconomic and health reasons, reducing a number of implied public costs.

Literature
Regular physical activity develops the sense of community and belonging with context gains that will promote economic development and identity in population national representation (Chalip, L., 2005). Fitness industry has potential to grow in the EU and fitness firms are able to provide distinct services adapted to several market segments (Woolf, J., 2008). Being good for economic development and possible to be adapted in different economic activities, few is known about its key profitability determinants.

In the past eight years we found an extraordinary increase in the number of these types of firms operating in Portugal (higher than national average). Fitness centres have a special significance to improve and contribute to increase the global population physical activity, to better off their quality of life and to minimize health costs; in a certain way they grew based upon fashion and not reliable economic knowledge; therefore, knowing the determinants of these firms is important to help the market determine the minimum scale of efficiency to survive and operate a long time in this difficult market.

Most of the empirical studies on firm growth try to explore the relationships between growth and size, growth rate or firm age and the results have been non clearly conclusive, tests being either statistically positive or negative (Lotti et al., 2009). Other authors tried to explore the relationship between firm growth and internal financing concluding that financing constraints play a very harmful role on their growth (Fagiolo and Luzzi, 2006).

Although we do not focus on the causality effects, this paper is innovative in the field of firm growth (we use a broad set of determinant variables) and original while we have no knowledge on its application in the sport management field.

Methodology - database
To explore the relationship of firm growth with possible determinants we used 1) dimension, 2) age, 3) internal financing (cash-flows), 4) indebtedness, 5) interest payments, 6) public subsidies, 7) growth opportunities (intangible assets) and 8) labour productivity. Database is composed by 182 small and medium-sized fitness firms for the period 2004-2009. In order to avoid unbiased results due to the firm survival problem, we used the two-step procedure proposed in Heckman (1979).

Results - discussion
Empirical evidence allows us to conclude that in this type of firms: i) growth of fitness firms decreases with increasing size and age, indicating that fitness firms are looking to achieve a minimum efficient scale to survive in their markets; ii) internal finance, debt, and government subsidies are stimulating determinants of fitness firms growth, revealing that in addition to internal financing, access to credit are relevant funding sources to their growth; iii) paying interest obligations is a constraint determinant of fitness firms growth, which is an indicator higher difficulties during high interest rate cycles; iv) labour productivity is a stimulating determinant of fitness firms growth, requiring more qualified labour; and v) growth opportunities, measured by intangible assets variables, are not stimulating or constraining determinant of fitness firms growth, indicating that such firms can not substantiate their growth opportunities in effective growth. Other empirical evidence obtained in this study show us that the size, age, internal finance, labour productivity, and government subsidies, contributing to the increased survival possibilities of fitness firms, while interest debt to pay contribute to decreased survival possibilities of fitness firms.

For policy makers, given the small size of such firms and considering its importance to improved health and welfare of the population, we recommend in situations of insufficient internal financing, to promote special credit lines with reduced interest rates may be of particular relevance to the growth of this type of firms, contributing in order to reach a minimum efficient scale that enables them to survive in their markets. For managers/owners of fitness firms it is recommended a more effective utilization of their intangible assets (e.g. social networks) in order to transform their growth opportunities in effective growth.

References
Commercial business and voluntary sport clubs united in sport2go – a sport for all project that aims to recruit more youth to sport by adapting sport to the youth.

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Background
We see a tendency when it comes to young people’s participation in sports. Not only in Europe but also on a Global level we experience a massive challenge due to the fact that people are increasingly inactive.

The Global inactivity issue and the fact that classic sports clubs in general suffer from the difficulty to adapt to the needs and wishes of people today (Pilgaard 2009), have been the main reasons why we wanted to start up a project that aimed to activate and attract young people to sport.

The concept started in Belgium (Gent) where it includes more than 30 cities/districts today. This concept was the main inspiration for a project in Aalborg that aims to recruit more youth to sport. Sport2Go became the name of the project that started in the fall of 2010 in The City of Aalborg.

Sport2Go is now a national sport for all concept – and in 2012 more than 4 cities are starting up Sport2Go. The national sports organization DGI, works very hard to expand to more cities and municipalities.

Practise discription
The essence of the concept is that it is custom-made to the needs of the youth and it includes commercial partners as well as private instructors and voluntary sports clubs. Sport2Go is built on the belief that sport for young people should be fitted to their wishes and needs and that, among other things, requires that commercial business and non-profit sport clubs and organizations work together. The right price, the right activities and membership in a free and flexible way are some of the keywords.

The target group is everyone in the age of 12 and 25 and those with student ID.

Every day for 12 weeks (2 times per year) they can try more than 25 different activities, including fitness, all kinds of group exercise, climbing, tennis, squash, gymnastics, karate, self defense classes, horse riding, bowling, ballroom fitness etc.

When they have paid 275 DKK and become a member of Sport2Go, they can try all the sports in the Sport2Go program without extra costs. They do not have to register for the activities and are not obliged to follow a certain activity. Also they do not have to fill out paper forms and wait for a member’s card in order to register. They can pay online and attend the activities right away by using SMS tickets from Sport2Go.

Another objective with Sport2Go is to make the involved sport clubs adopt the experiences and the concept and thereby offer sport fitted to young people’s needs. That is the main reason why Sport2Go is not an all-year-offer.

Experiences
An evaluation shows that Sport2Go makes young people more active and activates a rather big number of young people who were not active before. More than 60% of the members are more active with Sport2Go than before and almost ¼ of the members were inactive before Sport2Go. (Evaluation report 2011)

More than 50% of the involved sport clubs and centers have been able to recruit members directly from Sport2Go. (A basketball club has had a new girl team and the local karate club has recruited almost 30 members in 2011.)

In general Sport2Go has succeeded in activating the youth of today, creating a flexible and accessible sports offer that takes the wishes and needs of the youth into consideration, creating a platform where the sport clubs and young people can meet and breaking down certain barriers for inactive people.

Sport2Go is considered as a fun way to do sport and without any obligations.

Sport2Go succeeds in activating and recruiting young people but are there certain areas of the concept that should be discussed? The suggested discussion topics below are topics that one are to consider before organizing a sport project like Sport2Go.

Presentation topics
- Are we spoiling the youth by fitting to their wishes?
- Is Sport2Go a competitor to sports clubs and organized sport in general or do they supplement each other?
- Can the concept be adapted to other places countries, clubs and organizations?
- Can commercial business and voluntary sport clubs contribute from each other?

References
- Belgian project called Sport Na School: http://www.sportschool.be/
- Sport2Go webpage www.sport2go.dk
- Sport2Gofacebookpage www.facebook.com/sport2go

Sport2Go has been presented on the Sportvision 2012 conference in Copenhagen March 2012. The focus was on the project as a way to recruit youth to sport – where this presentation should focus on one or more of the suggested topics.
Does sports participation promote health? Challenges for providers

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Aim of paper
Public policy emphasises the need for individuals to participate in sport and physical activity to promote their health, both in the UK as well as internationally (WHO World Health Day, 2002). This paper examines the challenges faced in reaping such benefits by examining the determinants of sports participation but, crucially, distinguishing between factors contributing towards health giving levels of participation and those that do not. It follows that better policy advice can follow from identifying the factors that promote health-generating physical activity from those that do not.

Literature review
Sports policy in England emphasises contributing to recommended physical activity guidelines through encouraging 30 minutes of moderate intensity sport and active recreation on at least three days a week (Sport England, 2008). Achieving such policy targets can be informed by relevant research on the appropriate policy levers. A large sport management literature has investigated the socioeconomic determinants of participation, stressing the impact of gender, age, income and education etcetera as well as the impact of facility provision. The research draws upon economic theories of time allocation, human capital formation, and sociological theory. However, the much smaller literature examining the impact of sports participation on health focuses only on non-validated single-item scales of subjective health and does not address the crucial distinction between participation in sport per se and participation of sufficient intensity to generate health (Downward et al., 2009. Wicker et al., 2009). Further, some medical studies that do distinguish these impacts do not account for the ordered nature of this choice, are based on relatively small samples and focus purely on socio-demographic variables and not supply side variables such as club and facility availability (Bergmann et al., 2008). This paper seeks to fill this gap in the literature by using large-scale datasets to examine if socioeconomic and sports facility variables affect sports participation of sufficient intensity to generate health benefits, to better inform policy.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
To model the health impacts of sports participation three waves of the Active People Survey, commissioned by Sport England, are used covering the periods 2007-2010. This generates a total sample of n=573,626. As the survey contains questions that address participation or not, its frequency over a four week period, its typical duration and, crucially its impact on breathing and sweating it is possible to identify an ordered dependent variable measuring non-participation in sport, and participation of either a recommended health level or not. The survey also allows measurement of key socio-economic independent variables as well as membership of sports clubs and satisfaction with sports facility provision. The data is supplemented by facility data collected over the same period in the Active Places Survey, also commissioned by Sport England, to control for endogeneity between club-based participation, satisfaction with facilities and participation. A Zero-inflated Ordered Probit (ZIOP) estimator is then employed to model the participation decision. This estimator accounts for the ordered but discrete nature of the dependent variable. It also allows the distinct analysis of general participation in sport or not, as well as the difference in intensity of participation. As the data also investigates participation based on the last four weeks, the estimator also accounts for excess zero responses that could be due to either never having participated in sport, or not currently doing so within that period.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
The results from estimates across the whole sample, and then separately for males and females, suggest that income and education, that is economic and human capital are robust determinants of recommended health levels of participation. Further, being a student promotes male participation of recommended health levels. Ageing generally reduces sports participation, but ageing individuals that do participate increase their levels as they age, though not to recommended levels. This is with the exception of retired males. Likewise the presence of children in the household does increase the overall chance of sports participation, but not to the recommended level for health benefits. Significantly, the results suggest that satisfaction with sports facilities and club memberships also promote sports participation, but it is only the latter that promotes the recommended health levels. The results re-emphasise the importance of encouraging sports club membership as a vehicle for obtaining health benefits from sport as well as some reorientation in ageing and family oriented activities perhaps in this direction to try to increase the intensity of participation.

References
Consumer engagement and Social Media: the case of Twitter and its impact on sport participation

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Aim
The aim of this paper is to evaluate how well sport organisations are using Twitter and if using this Social Media application is helping them to achieve an increased number of participants in the sport they stand for.

Theoretical background
Social Media has emerged as both the preferred communication channel by most Internet users (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010) and a solid source of information and marketing tool (Lukes, 2010). In this context, Twitter stand as one of the strongest and fastest growing Social Media application. As a response to Twitter’s public reception, and corresponding with Cahill’s (2011) suggestions that delivering online services or information through Social Media in a targeted, meaningful and user-friendly way is critical to remaining relevant to the modern consumer, commercial and noncommercial organisations alike have started to engage with Twitter. Nevertheless, engaging with Twitter is not an easy nor trivial task, as users of this Social Media have particular expectations regarding communication etiquette and content, which differ greatly from traditional communications channels and even other Social Media applications (Cahill, 2010). This way, organisations planning to enter or entering Twitter find themselves doing it while still learning the best and most effective way to engage with it. Furthermore, Chen (2010) finds that Twitter’s users engage in it in order to gratify a basic human need to connect with others, further suggesting that users of Twitter need to get something out of their experience in order to keep using the Social Media application. Subsequently, many organisations may encounter trouble obeying to Twitter’s rules of communication, thus obtaining results and fitting Twitter usage in their strategies can also be troublesome. Sport organisations are not exempt from experiencing this, as Twitter may be an appealing tool to increase sport consumption for commercial and noncommercial purposes.

Methodology
The research for this paper has been separated in two phases. The first one focused in inspecting the content of the Twitter messages of a selected group of sport organisations. The second phase focused in inspecting the impact of these messages on the organisation’s followers’ intention to participate in the sport these organisations stand for.

For the first phase, three sport organisations operating in the UK, seeking to increase sport participation in the sport they stand for, with presence on Twitter and at least one year of active participation, were selected. Organisations were also selected on the fact they represent sports with three different levels of participation: low, medium and high. Following this selection, the content of their Twitter messages emitted over the last three months (convenience sample) were coded in order to examine the data and determine the approach these organisations are taking when using Twitter, making possible to contrast their approach with the approach the literature suggest.

In the second phase, a significant number of followers of the selected organisations (convenience sample), who lived in the UK, were asked to fill surveys aimed to identify their intentions to participate in the sport each organisation stand for, and the link between their intentions and the messages they have received from the selected organisations’ Twitter accounts. Only surveys from people that have been actively following the selected organisations will be taken into consideration.

Results
With the analysis from the results of the research done for this paper still pending, it is expected for it to show that in some cases the intentions behind sport organisations having Twitter accounts are divorced from either their mission to increase participation or the expectations followers of these organisations have. For these reasons, it is expected most of the evaluated Twitter accounts to have little effect on an increased intention of participation of their followers. The analysis will be already done by the time the EASM Conference is held.

References
The strategic characteristics and industry position of Olympic broadcast rights:
Analysis of the impact of digital media using Resource-based view and structuralist approaches

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Since the 1984 Summer Games in Los Angeles, Olympic television rights have been leveraged and managed to become the most valuable broadcast rights in world sport. The total revenue raised from broadcast rights for the 2008 and 2010 Olympic Games was $3.018.5 billion (Olympic Marketing Fact File, 2011), which place the Olympic Games above football’s World Cup in terms of broadcast value, with broadcast rights for the 2010 World Cup being $2.408 billion (FIFA Financial Report, 2010). The selling of these rights is the International Olympic Committee’s (IOC) most important source of revenue, with broadcast rights accounting for 47 per cent of their revenue, narrowly ahead of sponsorship, which accounts for 45 per cent (International Olympic Committee, 2011). However, since the Athens 2004 Summer Games, we have started to witness a significant change in the Olympic broadcast as digital media, in the form of the internet and mobile, has been able to carry Olympic content. As technology has developed, the role of digital media in Olympic broadcast rights has gained importance, and following successful use of digital media in Torino 2006, Beijing 2008, and Vancouver 2010, a full analysis of the impact of digital media on the strategic characteristics and industry position of Olympic broadcast rights is possible.

This case study of the Olympic Games and the associated broadcast rights analyses the impact of digital media on Olympic broadcast rights. Olympic broadcast rights are conceptualized as having strategic characteristics and an industry position. The strategic characteristics of Olympic broadcast rights are analyzed using Barney’s (1991) Four Pillars of Sustainable Competitive Advantage, evaluating whether Olympic broadcast rights meet the criteria of being valuable, rare, inimitable, and non-substitutable, to determine the impact of digital media on monetary performance. The industry position of Olympic broadcast rights are analyzed using Porter’s (1979) Five Forces, evaluating the bargaining power of suppliers, the bargaining power of customers, threat of new entrants, and threat of substitute products, all of which contribute to the fifth force of competitive rivalry, to determine the impact of digital media on attractiveness and profitability of the broadcast rights market. The strategic characteristics and industry position of Olympic broadcast rights are compared pre- and post- the emergence of digital media.

This comparative design provided both a baseline and current measurement of the strategic characteristics and industry position of Olympic broadcast rights, so to determine the impact of digital media on Olympic broadcast rights as a resource for the IOC. Analysis indicates an overall increase in the value of Olympic broadcast rights, with increased revenue sources and dissemination potential, whilst increased live coverage reduces the previous weakness of disengagement with the world’s youth. However, cannibalization of television is a new threat to the value of Olympic broadcast rights. There are increased risks to the rarity of the rights due to broader content distribution and increased difficulty in protecting restrictions and exclusivity. New and less complicated partnership relations lower the imperfect imitability of Olympic broadcast rights. However, non-substitutability of rights is increased due to greater advantages over non-sport rights through a potential interactive experience. The threat of established rivals, such as the FIFA World Cup, is reduced as more platforms removes the weakness of multi-sport events such as the Olympic Games not being able to offer complete coverage on a single platform. However, the threat of new entrants increases as there are lower barriers to entry with lower broadcast partner investment required with digital media. The bargaining power of customers is limited as digital media introduces more broadcast partners increasing competition for rights.

The strategic characteristics and industry position of Olympic broadcast rights post-digital media were further analysed to determine strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats, which informed a series of strategic recommendations for the IOC. These included the development of sport-specific portals, scheduling to maximize market value of most popular sports in specific countries, the sacrificing of digital rights fees in exchange for technology investment by digital partners, and the delivery of television complimentary digital platforms to enhance coverage and limit the threat of cannibalization.
The effect of community sport on health, social capital and sport participation

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**Aim of abstract**
This study wants to give an empirical answer to the question whether community sport has an effect on sport participation, social capital, physical activity and mental health for adults (18-56) in the community.

**Theoretical background**
Physical activity, social and health-related issues have taken a strong position in our welfare society, which expand the traditional view on sport. They call for a collaboration between the sport sector, the social sector and the health sector. Policy makers realize that intersectoral collaborations are needed to resolve these problems, but find little research to base their decisions on. Most interventions focus on the internal validity of the intervention (Klesges, Dzewaltowski, & Glasgow, 2008).

This study wants to contribute to the body of knowledge by investigating the effectiveness of community sport in Flanders (i.e., the Dutch-speaking part of Belgium). Community sport is a community-wide campaign which involves many community sectors as recommended by the center for disease control and prevention (CDC, 2011).

**Methodology, research design and data analysis**
This study uses the RE-AIM –model as theoretical framework to measure the effectiveness of community sport. Two communities will be compared, one with an intensive community sport activity the other with no or little community sport activity. The communities were objectively chosen on the ground of their comparability for number of inhabitants, sex, age, work, education, ethnic origin. The sport initiatives offered in these communities are characterized by its collaboration between the health, the social and the sport sector. Therefore goals from every sector will be measured with a questionnaire constituted of five parts. In the first part general information will be questioned. The second part measures sport participation. The third part examines physical activity with the IPAQ (Craig et al., 2003) The fourth social capital (Okayasu, Kawahara, & Nogawa, 2010) and the fifth mental wellbeing (Goldberg et al., 1997) All people living in the neighbourhood between 18-56 years are part of the sample frame. All respondents will be ad random selected. To reach a power of 0.80, 335 inhabitants of each community need to fill in the questionnaire.

**Conclusions and future research**
For EASM 2012 we will present the theoretical framework of interactions between the social, the sport, and the health sector. The methodology and different questionnaires that will be used to measure the different outcome variables will also be further clarified.

**References:**
The inspirational function of role models for sport participation and development

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Introduction
In most countries, sport policy is directed towards two aims: on the one hand to increase the level of sports participation for the wider population and on the other hand to increase the success for a few athletes at elite level. Traditionally, mass sport participation and elite sport and are seen as interrelated and mutual dependent.

Mass sport participation provides a breeding ground for elite sport because of the continuous supply of young talents who can later excel as elite athletes. In turn, elite sport is regarded as one of the vehicles for attracting young children into sport because of the inspirational function of elite athletes as role models towards youth and the effects of international sporting success on the increasing public interest in sport (De Bosscher & van Bottenburg, 2011). This is the origin of the often noted but rarely analyzed pyramid analogy (Green, 2005; Grix & Carmichael, 2012; Sotiriadou, Shilbury & Quick, 2008; van Bottenburg, 2003).

However, evidence obtained from current available data, makes it difficult to assess the validity of these claims. Many authors confirm that the literature on this catalyst effect of elite sport for a wider population is scarce, fragmented and evidence is anecdotal (e.g. De Bosscher & Van Bottenburg, 2011; Grix & Carmichael, 2012; Hanstad and skille, 2010; Houlihan, Bloyce & Smith, 2009; Sotiriadou, Shilbury & Quick, 2008; Van Bottenburg, 2003).

The lack of evidence for the causal relationship between elite sport and mass sport participation did not prevent the ‘wide spread acceptance’ of the claim that the ‘creation of national heroes would ‘inspire others to emulate them’” [Steward, 2009].

Aim
In this research aimed to find out if role models had an influence on the motives of elite athletes (a) to start with their sport, (b) to stay in the sport, (c) to increase commitment for training and competition to become an elite athlete and (d) to change their behavior.

Methods
Using a retrospective analysis, a total of 164 (55%) elite athletes, who receive direct or indirect funding from the National Sport Agency (Blos), and their coach (n=138, 83%) completed a written online survey about the inspirational role of elite athletes.

Results
This research shows that only 10% of the elite athletes have been inspired by other elite athletes in order to start with their current sport. Mostly they were encouraged by their parents (59%) and friends (28%) to practice their current sport. This is different during the talent development stage where 62 percent indicated that elite athletes had inspired them to train more. There is no significant difference between gender, social statute and the international level of the elite athletes.

Talents have drawn inspiration from their “idols” mainly to train more intensively and at a higher level to become an elite athlete. Elite athletes turn out to have less influence on behaviors such as inspiration to buy specific branded clothing, to use a specific type of equipment, to live in a specific way or the inspiration to start training for a particular sport.

Also a majority of the coaches (71%) consider elite athletes as a role model for young athletes. In addition to train more intensively or at a higher level to become an elite athlete, more than 75% of the coaches are also convinced that their elite athletes inspire young athletes to start training for their particular sport or to choose to live in a specific manner.

Conclusion
In public policy of many countries, the increasing investments in high performance sport are justified on a process by which it is claimed that people are inspired by elite sport, sports people or sports events to participate themselves.

This research indicates that –according to elite athletes-role models did not have a large influence on their sports participation as young children. However, while they have an influence on the development of young people in sport by training more intensively and at a higher level to become an elite athlete, role models have less influence on behaviors.

References
The discourse of the trickle-down effect: an assessment of the consequences of hegemonic closure in sport

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Key words: Trickle-down Effect, Elite Sport, Mass Participation, Discourse Theory.

Aim of paper
Politicians and sport leaders around the globe often argue that elite sport has a positive effect on mass participation. The idea of the so called ‘trickle-down effect’ (Green, 2007, p. 942; Hogan & Norton, 2000), seeing international pride gained through medals won in the Olympics or other prestigious sporting events as a major catalyst for mass participation, is widespread (De Bosscher & Bottenburg, 2011, p. 581). Typically the concept is used strategically to push for large public investments in elite sport facilities or to justify the use of money to attract major international sporting events, cups, etc.

It is also used as an argument to support elite athletes and specific elite sport initiatives because it is thought that international athletic success stimulates and motivates children, youth, adults and older people to take part in sport themselves (Murphy & Bauman, 2007, p. 193).

However, this idea of a trickle-down effect is as equally unclear, problematic and vaguely documented as it is widespread (Grix & Carmichael, 2012, p. 74). It has become an established truth, a dominant discourse, without any underlying or further detailed analysis to back it up. But does the promise of enhanced mass participation as a result of elite sporting success call for closer enquiry? And what are the consequences of this hegemonic idea?

The paper seeks to shed some more light on the matter by asking the question: What do we know about the alleged relationship between elite sport and mass participation? Is it actually present, and what are the consequences if political decisions are directed by such [mythical] ideas?

Taking these questions as the point of departure and seeing the myth of the trickle-down effect as a hegemonic discourse which includes certain elements of knowledge while excluding others, the paper argues that such myths can have inverse effects on the goals they claim to foster.

Structure of paper, findings and conclusion
The paper is structured as follows: First, I give a short sketch of the extent to which the discourse of the trickle-down effect is diffused internationally in order to illustrate its persistence. Second, I review literature on the question showing that empirical findings cannot confirm any casual relationship between elite sport and mass participation.

Third, I point to the consequences of persistent myths using a discourse theory perspective capable of illustrating how blind spots established through hegemonic horizons of meaning block alternative paths of development.

This leads to the final part of the paper which applies the analysis to practice by concluding that if the discourse of the trickle-down effect is not challenged, this dominant discursive horizon might even lead to a decreasing level of mass participation that stands in sharp contrast to the beliefs it has reinforced through its global dissemination and institutionalization. In order to support the conclusion, several national examples of how the focus on elite sport has had negative impacts on mass participation are given.

References
Operation and management of sports and leisure facilities
Towards a multilevel performance assessment model
For sport facility partnerships

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Keywords: sport facility partnerships, infrastructure, performance, assessment framework

Theoretical background and aims
Sport service departments in local governments have a long history of partnering with other public and non-profit sector organisations to provide an array of recreation opportunities. Several studies (e.g. Frisby et al., 2004) show that these local government departments have undergone a strategic shift in pursuing partnerships.

Frisby et al. (2004) state that a local government is no longer the sole stakeholder in delivering sports programs. Rather than working from a silo model, where public service organisations operate as autonomous units, partnerships are said to create new opportunities through resource bundling. Several studies address the lack of a thorough assessment framework for the performance of such partnerships or networks (Hood, 1991, Voets et al., 2008, Frisby et al., 2004, Kenis and Provan, 2009).

The purpose of our study is to establish a theoretical framework for assessing the performance of sport facility partnerships. The paper starts from the “New Public Management” theory that interprets performance of public service departments, such municipal sports departments, in terms of effectiveness and efficiency. However, this theory needs to be extended for the assessment of sport facility partnerships on a municipal level. All types and varieties of partnerships are considered in this study: public/public, private/public, formalized/non-formalized, long term/project based, etc.

Research design
In the area of New Public Management (NPM) Voets et al. (2008) deal with the question how to assess policy network performance and suggest a multidimensional approach. Based on this model and a broader literature review, we suggest that the possible other dimensions that need to be considered, next to the production dimension (which focuses on managerial indicators and scorecards).

Towards a sport specific multilevel theoretical framework
Based on the framework of Voets et al. (2008), we argue that on a first level an assessment of the production performance of the sport facility partnership is necessary. This dimension follows the NPM interpretation of performance where goal attainment is a key criterion. The performance goals on this level are to be based on target groups, participation levels and cost effectiveness. A second dimension of performance of sport facility partnerships is related to its democratic quality, which is basically ingrained in the process performance of the partnership rather than in the services it delivers. According to Skelcher et al. (2008) we suggest that the democratic performance consists of three components: legitimacy, accountability and accordence of the partnership. On a third level our model considers the regime performance of the sport facility partnership, which reflects the robustness and resilience of this partnership. We suggest that this can be assessed by three components: membership, partnership institutionalization and quality of relationships.

Finally, based on the exogenous theory on public network performance of Kenis and Provan (2009), we suggest that the type of inception (mandated or voluntary) and the developmental stage of the partnership also need to be considered in the assessment of the performance of the sport facility partnership.

Conclusion and future research
In this study we try to gain a first insight in the performance of sport facilities partnerships on a municipal level in Flanders. We believe that this insight can deliver better conceived and managed sport facilities with a higher and broader democratic performance for city, area or neighborhood.

In this paper, based on a literature review, we propose a first theoretical multilevel assessment framework, which serves as a first phase, and will be followed by an empirical study in which we will try to define partnership typology clusters of municipal sport facilities in Flanders. Finally, we will fine-tune this theoretical model for each typology cluster.

References
Does type of management matter?
The case of tennis and swimming facilities in the Netherlands

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Aim
As local authorities in the Netherlands face the challenge of maintaining public sports facilities during the economic crisis, the need arises to analyse how these facilities are being managed and operated, and whether privatisation will influence the daily operation of sport facilities. This research investigates to what extent tennis and swimming facilities in the Netherlands are managed privately (commercially) or by local governments and whether this difference in type of management influences the performance of these facilities.

Theoretical background
Past research into the operation of sports facilities is mainly found in the United Kingdom, in particular due to the presence of the leisure facilities database of Sport England’s National Benchmarking Service. Most studies focus on organisational issues like performance, efficiency, customer satisfaction and service quality, with limited attention being paid to differences in type of management (Liu, 2008; Liu & Hsu 2010; Ramchandi & Taylor, 2011).

In their study on the performance of sports and swimming centres, Robinson & Taylor (2011) showed that the type, location and size of these centres represent major influences on performance. Liu, Taylor & Shibli (2007) included the variation in type of management in their research and concluded that management has a significant effect on operational efficiency of sports halls and swimming pools. Their results show that non in-house facilities outperform in-house facilities.

Methodology
Tennis and swimming facilities were chosen for three reasons: 1) the availability of a detailed dataset of facilities, 2) the clear distinction between different types of management (private/governmental) and 3) the fact that these types of management co-exist next to each other, making comparative analyses possible.

Data on the management and operation of tennis facilities were retrieved from the Dutch national tennis federation (KNLTB); yearly membership-fees data were collected by desk research. Data of the swimming facilities were retrieved from the dataset of the ‘Swimming centres monitor’ by the Council of Dutch local governments (VSG). The dataset for this research consisted of two groups of swimming facilities: one with facilities in municipalities with less than 30,000 inhabitants (n=90) and one with facilities in municipalities with more than 40,000 inhabitants (n=90).

The influence of type of management on performance outcomes was analysed through linear regression analyses and included the following control variables: degree of urbanity, the population of the postal code area and the land price per square meter of the municipality. The analyses of tennis facilities included the amount of tennis courts. In the analyses on swimming facilities the number of water-basins was added, as well as the opening hours and the presence of solitary facilities and covered facilities. The dependent performance variables were: price (entrance fee/yearly membership-fee), major and daily maintenance, availability for specific target groups/associations (number of hours) and the devotion of volunteers.

Results
For tennis four different types of management can be distinguished: local government, foundation, private (commercial) and the tennis club itself. Private ownership of the tennis facility, private daily maintenance of the tennis courts and both private ownership and management of the canteen lead to a higher yearly membership-fee. On the contrary, ownership of the local government of the tennis facility and the canteen as well as major and daily governmental maintenance of the tennis courts by the local government lead to a lower yearly membership-fee.

In swimming, there are three different types of management: local government, foundation and private (commercial). The type of management has not much influence on the organisation of swimming facilities. Noticeable effects appear more in larger municipalities (>40,000 inhabitants) rather than in the smaller ones (<30,000 inhabitants). In larger municipalities, management by the local government leads to more hours spent on schoolswimming, a lower entrance fee for all age groups and more paid employees. In contrast, private management leads to fewer hours spent on target groups, more hours available for swimming associations and a higher entrance fee for children.

Discussion
The discussion will confront the outcomes of this research with the outcomes found in the literature. Furthermore possible explanations for the differences found in tennis and swimming will be presented.

References
Success’ causes of some selected sport complexes from the managers and loyal customers’ view points in Tehran

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Aim of abstract:
The main objective of this research was the examination of administration manners and styles among 16 successful sport complexes in Tehran form the view point of their managers and loyal customers.

Theoretical background:
Today’s highly competitive, global marketplace has seen a proliferation of many different styles of organizational structure.

As observed by Graetz, Rimmer, Lawrence and Smith (2002), in order to be profitable, sport complexes must now function flexibly, with high market sensitivity and participative work environment. In order to perform in this responsive and competitive manner, sport facility operators must evaluate the most appropriate organizational structure to adopt.

This involves not only establishing structure and locations of responsibility but also ensuring that the appropriate procedures, resources and staff skills are in place to support the organizational sport complexes structure (Westerbeek, 2006).

Loyal and satisfied customers may generate a strong word-of-mouth promotion and referrals to prospective customers.

This is one of the most efficient promotional for a sport complex since most customers who are looking for providers, first ask advocates for advice. Thus positive word of mouth may not only enhance the sport complex image but also reduce acquisition costs, and therefore impact favorably on profit (Buhler & Nufer, 2010).

Methodology:
In this research, the researchers interviewed with 16 managers of successful sport complexes, and 45 loyal customers of these complexes in Tehran.

The interview’s questions were categorized in following issues:
1. The quantity and quality of sport services available
2. In what manner they attract and protect their customers
3. Attending the customers’ demands
4. Providing qualified sport facilities
5. Attractive marketing and advertising
6. To be unique among other sport complexes
7. Care about the competitors actions and reactions
8. Selected complexes’ manages are sensitive to the customers’ demands and well-awarded that if they don’t guarantee their needs, the customers will leave them.
9. They have powerful marketing manners in all over the city through advertising by internet, mobile communication, media, street billboards, and even in personal level.
10. The customers were loyal to their sport complexes because:
   - Qualified sport services were being offered.
   - The price charged and the terms associated with the sale.
   - The appropriate advertising, promotional and communication activities.
   - The distribution and logistics processes involved into fulfill the demands.
   - The people directly or indirectly involved in the consumption of a service (knowledge workers, employees, management and consumers often add significant value to the total service offered).

Conclusion:
According to the results of this research and in regard of Iran’s social and economical situation, each sport complex manager who wants to have successful complex, have to consider the following notations:
1. Attending the customers’ demands
2. Providing qualified sport facilities
3. Attractive marketing and advertising
4. Care about the competitors actions and reactions
5. To be unique among other sport complexes

References:
Automatic occupancy analysis of sports arenas

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Introduction
Over the last decades the demand for physical activities has been growing, which puts a high pressure on the sports arenas. From 1964 to 2007 the number of athletes has quadrupled with a steady increase (Pilgaard, 2009). Surveys also show that people are dropping the classic club sports in favour of more flexible sports (Brixen et al., 2010). This calls for a better and more optimal use of the existing sports arenas to keep up with this growing trend. In order to improve the utilisation of a sports arena, its existing use must be examined. This includes examining the number of users using the arena at the same time and the occupancy of the court. Administrators are especially interested in whether the arena is empty, used by a few people or full and the time for when the occupancy changes. The position of the users is also important as they might only use half a court, which means the other half could be rented out to another group. Manual registration of this is cumbersome and expensive and an automatic approach is therefore needed. For such a system to work in general it should be independent of the size of the court, lighting conditions and without any interaction with the users. This can be obtained with a camera. Detecting people with a camera raises some privacy issues though. The fear of being observed could keep some people out of the arenas. This work therefore proposes an automatic method to analyse the occupancy of a sports arena using thermal imaging. One of the advantages of thermal cameras is that persons cannot be identified, which is an important factor if the system is to be accepted by the users. On top of that, thermal cameras are invariant to lighting, changing backgrounds and colours, which make them more desirable for an automated application.

Method
The activity at the court is measured by a thermal camera mounted on one of the walls around the arena. The camera detects the long waved infrared radiation emitted by all hot objects which generates a greyscale image that represents the temperature in the scene. Hot objects will be bright and cold objects will be dark. This makes it relatively easy to make software algorithms that automatically separate people from the colder background.

For each image the persons are counted and their positions on the court are found using a prior calibration. By summing over several images this gives the number of persons and their position for every 5 minute period, which can be used to analyse the use of the arena. The detailed technical description of the system can be found in (Gade et al., 2012).

Results
Preliminary tests of the system have been conducted in collaboration with the local municipality in ten different sports arena, one week at each location. All arenas have 20x40 meters courts. During the full test period the system shows that it very precisely categorises activity level into zero, low or high activity. The average error in counting the number of people is 11.76 % during time with activity.

Comparing the observations during an average week to the booking schedule shows that 21.2% of the booked hours were not used while 23.4% were used by an average of two or fewer persons.

For all open hours (7 AM to 11 PM) the arenas were in average occupied by more than two people 51% of the time. The best occupancy rate for one week in a single arena was 64% and the worst occupancy rate for a single arena 39%.

The registration of the positions has been visually evaluated by comparing with manually annotated positions and shows great resemblance.

Discussion
The results show that the arenas are only occupied half the time. Furthermore only half of the booked hours are made use of. These results are obtained with the rule, that if three or more people are observed, the arena is registered as occupied, even though the capacity is much higher. The municipality used these results as basis for a dialogue with the users and managers of the sports arenas. It was received positively by everyone and for some it was a real eye opener. Having this data suddenly makes it clear for everyone that there is a lot of unused capacity that could be distributed more properly.

Work is currently being done to further improve the precision of the detection software. Future work includes automatic methods for detection of activity type, activity level and user type.

References
Crisis management for public sports facilities
The great East Japan earthquake example

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Purpose
There are approximately 220,000 sports facilities in Japan and about 25% are public facilities set up by local authorities. These facilities provide local residents with opportunities for health promotion, sports activities and social interaction. However once a large-scale disaster occurs, they also are called upon to assist in the safeguarding of the lives and property of local people.

Japan was devastated by the Great East Earthquake along with a massive tsunami on March 11, 2011. When more than 270,000 buildings were partially or completely destroyed and up to 400,000 people had to leave their homes to take shelter, public sports facilities played an extremely vital role. Especially, the gymnastic halls in various municipalities performed important functions being used as emergency shelters, volunteer centers or disaster relief headquarters.

And in Japan the local governments also have some public sport facilities, which due to administrative and financial reforms are currently being privatized. All of the public sport facilities surveyed in this study were operated by private businesses. Following this disaster it was not unusual for long operating private sport facilities to be temporarily closed down. Therefore, it is important to demonstrate crisis management for public sport facilities not only in the public sector, but also in the private business operator.

Theoretical background
In research on disasters such as hurricanes (Matheson & Baade 2006), tsunami (Klein & Huang 2007) and earthquakes (Yasui 2007) it has often been noted that sport facilities play an important role in post-disaster situations. There are some differences about the role or management of sport facilities according to the type of disaster; however, this study focused on the management of public sport facilities in a prolonged situation of having serious damage from a large earthquake and tsunami. Kawata (2003) divided emergency management into prior preparation as risk management and afterward action as crisis management. Then he subsequently arranged the concept of crisis management into a chronological order (1. Direct, 2. Urgent, 3. Emergent, 4. Recovery and 5. Social Mitigation).

Methodology
This study consists of two research methodologies. Firstly, research was conducted by interviewing public sport facility managers. Secondly, a questionnaire survey of local residents as facility users and its statistical analysis was undertaken.

First, Sendai City has five wards, each having a multipurpose gymnasium. All of which were utilized as disaster relief offices. Here we conducted interviews from June 2011 to February 2012. We interviewed 12 administrators of facilities such as manned gymnastic halls in charge of facilities to investigate damage to and utilization of facilities. In this survey, we used a semi-structured interview style. Interviews were about one hour in length. I recorded the interviews with the consent of interviewees to create a verbatim record for morphological analysis. This research utilized the aforementioned crisis management definition of Kawata (2003) to implement a chronological analysis.

Second, in October 2011 we performed a survey of facility users through a questionnaire to ascertain the relation between residents who experience disaster and sports activities. This research uses a direct distribution and detention method. Questionnaires were distributed, and 256 returned (RR 96%). The users answered about their motivations to participate in sports and recovery time from the disaster. The responses were analyzed for regional imbalances in post-disaster situations with a one-way analysis of variance and multiple comparison method.

Results
The words in the verbatim record of the facility administrators were classified into the five categories as described previously. Then, we interpreted the data based on the analysis of modification relations among them and strength of the relations. Specifically, as for ‘emergency response’, when the relation between ‘emergency shelter’ and ‘user’, ‘emergency action’ and ‘facility’ is linked there was a strong connection between ‘facility’ and ‘user’. This suggests that the use of the facility as a post-disaster shelter and emergency actions taken varied depending on whether the facility was designated as an emergency shelter or not, and that administrators were forced to take on a wider-ranging management role.

According to the results of the questionnaire survey, recovery time for sports in each ward showed a significant difference, $F(4,242)=4.47, p<.01$. The multiple comparison method showed a difference between low damage and high damage areas, $p<.01$. Concerning sport motivations, the area of health showed no significant difference, whereas social interaction, $F(4,242)=4.78, p<.01$, leisure, $F(4,242)=3.38, p<.05$, restoration of sport facilities, $F(4,242)=3.28, p<.05$, did show notable differences. Multiple comparisons showed a difference between low damage and high damage areas in sports participation motivation. This research indicates that disaster has an effect on the motivation to engage in sports.

References

For a country, organizing a sport event like the Euro 2016 football championship needs to upgrade existing facilities and to build new ones. As pointed out by Seguin’s report (2008), “France faces an evident delay in the modernization of its biggest stadiums which constitutes a handicap to promote professional sport (…) and which can compromise our capacity to be selected as the host country for such a major event”*. Indeed, small stadiums are too limited to receive the large audience attending major international competitions. Thus, among the thirty-five renovation or building projects, eleven have been selected. In order to do conduct these projects, various financial and legal plans are set up. Taking into account today’s financial limitations, it becomes impossible for local institutions to assume the full cost of the action. On the contrary, a private funding was unthinkable without the financial support of the local institutions. A legal Public-Private Partnership (PPP) appears between both actors to answer time and budget constraints for sport facilities building or for stadium renovation.

Thus, public organizations (local institutions) and private ones (private operator, sponsors, club) share all the responsibilities related to the action.

Considering this case as unique and exemplar, the aim of this paper is to in-depth investigate the relationship between public and private partners. Each actor has its own private interests to defend but at the same time, he needs to make them fit with the common interest i.e. the objective of the project (building or renovation of sport facilities).

Theoretical framework
This research is based on a mixed theoretical framework. The agency theory (Charreaux, 2000, 2004 ; Jensen and Meckling, 1976 ; Jensen , 2001) is combined with stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1999). The relevancy of recent insights from the partnership governance is also discussed.

Method
In order to provide insights to our research questions a qualitative research based on a standard case study is set up (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2003). The data collection process consists in conducting semi-structured interviews with various actors involved in the PPP for the renovation or for the building of sport facilities. Such an approach will allow us to compare the perceptions of the different actors interviewed. Asymmetries between them could thus be highlighted. A content analysis of the data will be made using Alceste software.

Results, discussion
The results of the study partially confirm the representations of the partnership governance. Some actors in particular private operators confirm the contractual governance as defined by Jensen and Meckling (1976). Indeed, private operators build sport facilities and act in an agent’s position in an order relationship. The partnership governance perspective is more perceived by local institutions that consider the importance of the tripartite equilibrium (local institution, private operator and the club) in the project. The local institution is more averse to risks than the other partners. Finally, the club is more involved in an agency relationship but as an agent. In that situation, the private operator remains the principal. The representations highlighted seem to result from the influence of partners’ actions and relationships.

(* English translation from the author)

References
Sport, media and journalism
Results of the international sports press survey 2011 – from an international and the German perspective

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Sport is one of the most important topics covered by the world’s media. However, there are only a handful of cross-national comparative research studies about sports journalism and sports coverage in the area of television. Global data about the quality and quantity of sports coverage in print media is not available.

This is of concern as there are many important questions to be asked:

- Does print media coverage of sports worldwide follow similar patterns across different national contexts, or are there national differences?
- What about the globalization of the sports world in contrast to the mostly national/regional focus of print media reporting?
- What kind of topics are being covered in print (types of sport and personalities)?
- Which sources are being used for articles, and are they of good quality?

The answers to these questions are of great interest considering the worldwide decrease in the relevance of print media, the decline in circulation and the increasing competition from television and the Internet.

The International Sports Press Survey (ISPS) 2011 provides the biggest content analysis yet of sports coverage in print media worldwide. It analyses 18,340 articles in 82 newspapers across 23 countries during April and July 2011 and bases it on two sample weeks (Switzerland was counted as two countries with French and German language media examined).

The ISPS 2011 was the result of a co-operation between the German Sports University Cologne (DSHS), the Macromedia University for Media and Communication in Hamburg (MHMK) and the Danish-based think tank Play the Game. More than 30 researchers collected samples of the biggest national and regional quality and tabloid newspapers of each country. For each newspaper, all articles covering sport topics – whether in the sports section or elsewhere, were coded. This was the third edition of the ISPS. Thus, the results can be compared to the previous, smaller, surveys of 2002 and 2005.

The results of the ISPS 2011 include statistics and analysis of many different variables - the number of photos, journalistic formats, types and number of sources for articles, the gender of the contributing journalists, the types of sport, the primary content, the regional perspective of the articles and the athletes covered.

In a brief and preliminary summary, we came to the following conclusions:

- There are different sport worlds in international print media: the covered sports vary between countries and continents, particularly with regards to the different sports seasons.
- Soccer seems to be the only sport with truly global appeal in the world of print media.
- Sports journalism is a man’s world: the overwhelming majority of articles are written by men and cover male sports.
- Seen in its entirety, sports journalism is of low quality: sport reporters rarely use many [quality] sources for their coverage and focus primarily on news about current sport competitions.

In the presentation first we will give an overview on the final results of the International Sports Press Survey 2011 from an international perspective as well as some special results from all over the world. Secondly we will focus on a special view of the German results. In Germany we had with data from eight newspapers the biggest cluster of the survey, so it will be interesting to compare the national data of Germany to the international situation. The presentation in Aalborg will be the first publication of the final results of the International Sports Press Survey 2011 in a congress worldwide.
Sports journalism in newspapers – entertainment or watchdog?

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Keywords: Sports journalism, newspapers, Denmark, International Sports Press Survey

Aim of paper:
At a time when the media landscape is undergoing continual changes and digital media platforms such as the internet and smartphones have increasingly become central distributors of fast sports news, it is central to look into the effect of fast news on sports coverage in newspapers (Boyle & Haynes 2009). To what extent do newspapers respectively prioritise fast news focusing on performance and entertainment, and classic journalism such as background stories, investigative journalism and being the watchdog (Kramhøft 2003)?

Theoretical background:
Sport and the media have a symbiotic relationship whereby sports attract audiences to the media, while media exposure attracts money to sports (Frandsen 2008). This has had a conflicting impact sports journalists, who are now expected to write about sports as entertainment while at the same time trying to live up to classic journalistic virtues (Rowe 2004).

Research design:
The focal point of this paper is a survey of sports content conducted in six Danish newspapers (three broadsheet, two tabloid and one regional). It is part of the largest quantitative survey of sports content, the International Sports Press Survey, which involved collecting data from over 18,000 articles in newspapers from 23 countries. The Danish survey consists of 1,522 articles collected on 14 days over three months in spring 2011. A statistical analysis was done on the coded subjects ranging from, for example, numbers of photos of particular subjects to numbers and types of sources, and the data was compared to a similar survey of the Danish newspaper content from 2005 (Jørgensen 2005).

Results, discussion and conclusions:
Results from the new survey show that Danish newspapers focus on the performances of top athletes and teams participating in only a few ‘TV sports’. The categories in focus are ‘results and reports’, ‘other coverage of sports performance’ and ‘preview of matches/competitions’. Together these categories make up 78 percent of the subjects covered, whereas sports politics, financing of sports and bookmaking, on the other hand, make up only five percent of the subjects covered. Similarly, persons and sources in focus in the reports are dominated by persons connected to the athlete/team’s performance. Most articles have few sources with only 26 percent of all articles having two sources or more.

These results point to a newspaper medium that editorially prioritises performance and entertainment rather than aiming to dig deeper by using many sources and uncovering the many important perspectives of a billion dollar sports industry. This choice of priority may cause the journalists to overlook the important subjects that have come to play an increasing role in sports, such as financing sports business, governance in sports, match-fixing, corruption and trafficking of players.

Looking at the 2005 survey, which also indicates that performance and entertainment took up most column space at that time, reveals that while the media landscape has changed due to the development of media platforms that are good at producing fast news, the newspapers’ content has not.

That the development of newspaper content has apparently not occurred alongside the development of media platforms that deliver at a faster pace? The answer could be because the newspapers constitute a medium well suited to classic journalism – being the watchdog, setting the sports agenda and publishing background stories – giving the newspapers a strong base in the media landscape and society. But newspapers cannot serve this function effectively if they focus too much on performance and entertainment.

This does not mean distancing newspapers from entertainment all together, but instead leaving more room for other types of journalism, because the continuing dominance of performance and entertainment raises serious questions about the societal role of print news and sports journalism in the future.

References:
Negotiating national identity through loss: analysis of newspaper coverage of the 2010 FIFA World Cup

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Aim
Sport has long served as an arena for the development of national identity. In many respects Australia’s contemporary national persona has been created through sport and its media coverage. Australia’s reputation as a sport loving nation has been forged by hosting major sporting events and by the international performances of its athletes at world championships and Olympic Games. However, at the FIFA World Cup, Australia has been less successful. It has qualified only three times for the tournament (1974, 2006 and 2010), and the expectations of the team, its results and the coverage of the tournament and the sport of soccer in the media have been mixed. This presentation reports on the findings of a content analysis of the newspaper coverage of the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

Theoretical background
Soccer in Australia occupies the unusual position in that it has the highest overall participation rates from the four football codes (AFL, rugby league, rugby union and soccer), yet is ranked fourth of the four codes in popularity and resources, and is often seen as a marginal code by the media and its position in global football success (Skinner, Zakus & Edwards, 2008). The history of Australian soccer closely follows the history of immigration to Australia (Danforth, 2001), as most post-Second World War arrivals to Australia came from Eastern Europe, and as such, soccer was the dominant sport of choice. These immigrant communities contributed to the expansion of the code in Australia and were the mainstay of its success; however, because of their marginal position in Australian society this also contributed to soccer’s further marginalization (Skinner et al, 2008). Soccer, as a sport, has been derided as un-Australian – or less Australian than other sports – because many teams and clubs were founded by, and remain linked organizationally, to non-Anglo ethnic communities (Hallinan et al, 2007). Historically, the Australian commercial media has not been generous in its coverage and treatment of soccer in Australia, however with the restructure of the national body (Football Federation Australia), the establishment of a national league (A-league) and recent qualifications for the FIFA World Cup, the focus on soccer in the Australian media, and subsequent expectations for success, have evolved.

Research method and analysis
Data analysis was conducted over a ten-week period, which included four weeks prior to the event, the month-long event itself and two weeks post event, and included all major daily newspapers in Australia with a circulation greater than 100,000, equivalent to 94% of all major daily newspapers sold. The data collection resulted in 2,566 articles related to the FIFA World Cup, of which 1,343 consisted of more than simply standard match reporting and technical analysis.

Results and discussion
Content analysis of the newspaper reporting was undertaken, with the major themes of patriotism, national identity and dealing with loss selected for further investigation. Subsequent analysis revealed that in the pre-event phase the media constructed a clearly articulated national sporting identity, which was then used as a reference point for media coverage subsequent to Australia’s loss to Germany in the first game of the tournament’s group stage, a significant turning point.

The contested nature of Australian sporting nationalism is used as a lens through which to examine the ways in which the media negotiated and reinforced a specific Australian national sporting identity through the Australian soccer team’s poor performance. The finding that a strong nationalism was projected during the tournament was unsurprising, given the context of an international event, with nations competing against each other. A distinctive Australian identity was evident, predicated upon notions of mateship and loyalty; however this national identity was complicated in this case due to the multicultural history of soccer in Australia.

References
Social media for community relationship management in Russian sport clubs

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Abstract keywords
social media, business communication, sport marketing, community relationship management, CRM, hockey club

Research question
The rise of social media (SM) in the past few years had an impact on management tools and techniques. This influence is vividly seen in marketing, event and customer relationship management (CRM). The majority of sport clubs around the world use SM for various purposes: advertising, attracting new customers, and maintaining connection with community. The study reveals peculiarities of SM usage in general and focuses on their value for community relationship management (CoRM) as a topic of interest. The aim of the paper is to provide the preliminary analysis of SM practices employed by the leading Russian clubs of Kontinental Hockey League (KHL). One of the main objectives is also to summarise the experience and highlight the burning issues within the topic.

Theoretical background
A growing body of international research provides insights into the benefits of putting to use SM in sport (eg., Clavio, Kian, 2010; Williams, Chinn, 2010). Scholars and sport managers admit the need for research on social networks landscape, their effective application and evaluation (Wallace, 2011). SM as digital channel of marketing communication is presented in various analytical reports and is the most developed question within the topic (Porter et al., 2011). Modern CRM systems gather detailed information about followers and fans to the customer database from their social network profiles. Ang suggests the term “CoRM” because members of brand communities or official groups in SM are not necessarily customers of one’s organization (Ang, 2011). CoRM also underlines the importance of communication not only between customers and company (classical CRM model) but customers and partners between each other (many-to-many CoRM model). Moreover in sport the community itself plays a very important role as a unit of sport clubs’ business model based on emotional cohesion and social networking. “4Cs” model of CoRM according to Ang includes connectivity, conversations, content creation and collaboration (Ang, 2011). In the framework of sport the fifth “C” may be added to this model as “cohesion” under which we understand emotional bonds, devotion to team and community of fans.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
In an effort to investigate the general SM issues and give the theoretical overview the desktop analysis of academic literature was used. For the study top ten Russian hockey clubs were chosen. The content analysis of the clubs’ official Facebook and Vkontakte (the most popular Russian social network) pages included such parameters as number of followers, ‘likes’, topics, form of communication (video, photo, links, status, notes), frequency of update and general on-line community strategy. In order to expose the way SM is used for CoRM purposes on-line questionnaires were sent to the managers and members of the community. The data was analysed with the help of “SPSS Statistics” software and descriptive statistical analysis.

Results, discussion and conclusions
The findings from this study revealed that the key problem is the lack of specialists and theoretical studies reflecting implication features of SM in the Russian sport industry. Four of the top ten KHL clubs with a huge community of fans do not have SM accounts. Some Facebook pages with more than 2,500 followers are not official and not managed properly. The prevailing form of communication (N=1512) is status updates – 63%, photo uploads – 21%, video – 14%, links – 1%. Frequency of update depends on the games played and season: spring – 37%, summer 6%. Respondents’ answers showed the absence of on-line community strategy and managers are unclear as to how SM can be used to benefit their sport organisations. They neither try to attract more followers nor organise campaigns increasing ticket sales or brand awareness through getting more “likes”. Two clubs have CRM systems integrated with social networks and only one club generated an offer according to the social profiles’ data but did not evaluate the result. Three clubs encourage many-to-many communication, open topics for discussion and ask questions that have from 7 to 284 comments. For members of the community conversations play the most important role (38%) but cohesion (29%) is also significant. Implications of CoRM featured as prospective and one of the future directions is closely related with thorough investigation in this field. Further we plan to analyse the best practices and work out some practical guidelines for Russian sport clubs.

References
Other sport management related issues
Evaluation design for a community based physical activity program for socially disadvantaged groups – the case of communities on the move

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Keywords
Community based physical activity program, (cost)-effectiveness, low SES groups, health promotion, evaluation design

Background
In the Netherlands engagement of low SES (Socio Economic Status) groups in sports and physical activity remains lower compared to high SES groups. In particular, migrant groups and people with overweight are more often inactive (Hildebrandt, 2010); (WHO-Global Advocacy for Physical Activity (GAPA), 2012).

Triggered by this inequality in physical activity and sports, the Netherlands Institute for Sports and Physical Activity (NISB) developed a multilevel community-based physical activity program from 2003 onwards. This so-called “Communities on the Move” program aims at enhancing physical activity in inactive low SES groups. The program is based on principles of participation, creating supportive environments and pleasure. Communities on the Move has been carried out in 37 municipalities, reaching over 100 low SES groups.

Preliminary results of the Communities on the Move program are promising. However, adequate scientific research is needed to scientifically demonstrate whether Communities on the Move is (cost) effective or not. The aim of this paper is to provide the rationale for an evaluation of Communities on the Move comprehensively.

Research design
The case of Communities on the Move will be the focal point, addressing the question: what is it about this approach that works, for whom, in what context, and why? The following research questions are formulated:

- Which effects can be documented with respect to physical activity and habitual behaviour, health, quality of life and life satisfaction?
- Which mechanisms explain the successes and failures of Communities on the Move for different low SES groups and how can these be addressed to support nationwide implementation?

Research questions
The question is to determine, describe and explain the interactions between the individual and his/her social and physical environments. People’s own resources and capacities to generate/maintain health (salutogenesis) play a central role (Antonovsky, 1996).

The study will be based on a multiple case, multiple level cohort study, in combination with reflexive monitoring and action research (Pawson & Tilley, 1997; Van Mierlo, 2010). Data are collected at four points in time at the four levels of impact at the start of local programs, six months later, 12 months and 18 months after the start respectively. Data will be collected through questionnaires, interviews, document analysis and focus groups. The data will be gathered for 16 local Communities on the Move programs and involve about 240 respondents. In analysing the qualitative data the Atlas program will be used, while the survey data will be analysed using appropriate cohort analysis techniques.

Anticipated results
It is a challenge to develop effective programs improving the health of low SES groups through physical activity promotion (Dugdill, 2009). This study should result in recommendations for improving health of low SES groups. Further research results are:

1. Assessment of (cost) effectiveness at the individual, program and community level of Communities on the Move comprehensively.
2. An elaborated monitoring and evaluation design for participatory community health and physical activity promotion.
3. The facilitation of wider implementation of Communities on the Move on both the national and local level.

Ultimately, the research will result in a report about the (cost-)effectiveness of Communities in the Move, an improved manual for community programs addressing different low SES groups, guidelines for research and practice and a PhD thesis consisting of peer reviewed articles.

References – limited to 5

Examining the capacity of spectator sport to facilitate psychological recovery after a disaster

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Abstract keywords
Social impact, psychological benefits of sport, disaster, psychological recovery, team identification

Aim of the study
Spectator sport has the potential to facilitate recovery among community residents affected by a severe disaster. For example, in referring to the victory of Japan’s national football team at the 2011 FIFA World Cup, a victim of the March 11 earthquake noted “I felt they were telling us never give up and get on with recovering from the disaster” (The Daily Yomiuri, 2011, para. 12). Despite such claim, research has yet to provide empirical support for this potential of spectator sport. The purpose of this study, therefore, is to examine how psychological and socio-psychological factors associated with spectator sport are related to resident psychological recovery in the context of the March 11 earthquake in Japan.

Theoretical background
Various psychological and socio-psychological factors have been shown to predict one’s level of psychological recovery after a disaster (e.g., Norris et al., 1999; Norris & Kaniasty, 1996). For example, the higher level of self-esteem an individual has, the less likely s/he is to experience depression after a disaster (Norris et al., 1999). Individuals also tend to overcome stress from a traumatic event when they perceive that social support is available to them (Norris & Kaniasty, 1996).

Importantly, the effect of spectator sport on some psychological and socio-psychological factors has been identified in the sport management literature, indicating its potential to contribute to one’s mental wellbeing (e.g., Funk et al., 2009; Wan, 2006). Specifically, research on team identification shows that a sport team can serve as a social group with which people identify, satisfying their socio-psychological needs (Wann, 2006). Furthermore, attending a sport event provides individuals with psychological benefits, such as increased self-esteem and sense of social connectedness (Funk et al., 2009). Consequently, this study hypothesizes that residents’ levels of identification with a local team and perceived benefits generated from attending its event are positively associated with their levels of psychological recovery from the earthquake.

Methodology
A survey was conducted at a professional football game in October 2012 in an eastern Japanese city that experienced substantial damage from the March 11 earthquake. The survey included measures on: participants’ demographics, levels of identification with the home team (Trail & James, 2001), perceived psychological benefits of spectator sport in terms of (1) self-esteem and (2) social engagement (Funk et al., 2009), degree of exposure to the earthquake (Norris et al., 1999), and levels of mental health (a proxy for psychological recovery; Ware et al., 1996). For the main analysis, this study performed a multiple regression testing the effects of team identification and the two benefits of spectator sport on resident mental health after controlling for three demographic variables (i.e., gender, age, marital status) and exposure to the earthquake.

Results and discussion
Of the 401 distributed questionnaires, 399 were returned (99.5%). Of these, the study excluded 102 responses provided by nonlocal visitors and/or including substantial missing data, yielding a final usable sample size of 297.

The regression results supported the overall model significance (F = 12.69, p < .001, adj. R2 = .22). Specifically, consistent with the study’s prediction, self-esteem (β = .21, p < .01) and team identification (β = .26, p < .001) were found to be the significant predictors of resident mental health. On the contrary, the analysis did not identify the significant positive effect of social engagement (β = .09, p = .18).

Overall, the results show that residents’ level of identification with a local sport team and self-esteem enhanced at its event are the significant predictors of their positive mental health status after the earthquake. That is, residents are more likely to recover from the physiological damage caused by the earthquake if they are highly identified with the local team and attain self-esteem by attending its game. The current finding contributes to the sport management literature by offering the first empirical evidence for the capacity of spectator sport to promote recovery during the post-disaster period. This finding is especially assigned with the social impact of sport, an emergent research agenda in the sport management discipline (Chalip, 2006; Kim & Walker, 2012). Moreover, the finding informs sport managers and policy makers about the potential of spectator sport organizations/events to effectively facilitate the rebuilding of society after disasters.

Selected references
Racial position segregation in intercollegiate football

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Keywords: Race, Athletics, Football, Segregation, Stacking

General observation suggests that racial position segregation may not be as prevalent in North American sports as in past years. Not that long ago, one might be hard pressed to find professional or collegiate sports teams with African American quarterbacks in football or African American pitchers in baseball. According to Grusky (1963) and multiple other researchers, there is a tendency for white players to be allocated to positions requiring extensive leadership and decision making ability (central positions) and for African American players to be allocated to positions requiring relatively less leadership ability but greater physical attributes (peripheral positions). In this study, we revisit the issue of racial position segregation or racial “stacking” in intercollegiate football.

Employing data from Rivals.com, we observe a player’s position in high school and college. We then estimate a probit model to predict the probability of a player changing positions as he transitions from high school to college. The probability of a player changing positions is modeled as a function of his weight, height, speed, and race. In addition, we include controls for high school performance indicators such as passing yards for quarterbacks, rushing yards for running backs, and receiving yards for wide receivers. Lastly, our model includes, as a control variable, the Rivals.com rating given to each player. Explaining the rating is beyond the scope of an abstract, but it is included to account for latent talent.

Our full dataset consists of the 1,006 players from the 2008 and 2009 recruiting classes that reported the necessary physical attributes and talent measures used as explanatory variables in our econometric analysis. For reasons explained in the paper, only players that signed with Bowl Championship Series (BCS) universities are included in our dataset. Descriptive statistics of our data reveal significant evidence that racial position segregation is widespread in high school football. In particular, the descriptive statistics suggest that African American high school football players are largely underrepresented at the quarterback, tight end, and offensive linemen positions and largely overrepresented at the running back, wide receiver, and defensive back positions. The data also offers much information about which players are likely to change positions and the positions they are likely to switch to when transitioning from high school to college.

Most notably, our probit results do not reveal any evidence that African American players who played wide receiver, tight end, offensive lineman, defensive lineman, linebacker, or defensive back in high school are significantly more or less likely to change positions in college than white players at these positions, other things equal. However, our results do suggest that African American high school quarterbacks and white high school running backs are significantly more likely to change positions in college than their white and African American counterparts, respectively. Thus, while other positions do not appear to become more racially segregated as players transition from high school to college, the quarterback and running back positions do appear to become significantly more racially segregated. According to the estimated marginal effects, the probability of an African American high school quarterback being moved away from the quarterback position in college is 38.5 percent greater than that of a white quarterback. Similarly, the probability of a white high school running back changing positions in college is 31.7 percent greater than that of an African American high school running back, all else equal. We discount previous explanations for racial position segregation, such as employer discrimination, customer discrimination, and self-segregation, as not being able to fully explain our results. We put forward that the most likely explanation for our result is statistical discrimination, resulting from imperfect information.

References

Examining senior women’s experiences in New Zealand sport organisations: a critical perspective

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The continuing underrepresentation of women at higher levels of sport administration has been well documented and researched. Most of our understanding of women’s experiences in sport organisations, however, comes from the ‘bottom up’ that is from the perspective of those who have not been able to achieve senior management roles in sport (Hovden, 2000). There is a lack of research with the few senior women who are employed in the administrative positions in their organisations. Many guides to increasing numbers of women in high level positions focus on ‘fixing the women’ (Bensimon & Marshall, 2003). In contrast we utilise critical theory to inform our perspective, opening up discussions about a variety of ways that women have achieved their senior roles and offering alternative pathways for organisational decision makers to increase numbers of women in senior management (Alvesson, 2008). By focusing on senior women’s experiences, we intend to create a greater understanding of senior women’s career pathways and the ways that they have navigated the traditional and conventionally male dominated environments of sport organisations. This focus will contribute to our conceptualisation of gender relations within sport organisations. The purpose of this research was therefore to investigate the career experiences of senior female sport administrators (CEO level) within New Zealand sport organisations.

The ten female CEOs of New Zealand sport organisations were identified through an internet search and the researchers’ personal networks. All ten were invited to take part in a face-to-face, skype, or phone interview. Eight consented to be interviewed and were asked questions regarding their preparation for a career in sport management and their subsequent career path, particularly their experiences in sport management. We focused specifically on areas such as preparation for leadership roles, mentorship, role modelling, and the nature of gender relations in the industry. Interviews lasted from 45 to 90 minutes and were recorded and transcribed. The researchers independently reviewed the transcripts for thematic development. The data themes were: varied backgrounds; pay; skills women need in the sector; mentors; and advice for students.

Two participants had degrees in sport, two had degrees in business, two had teaching backgrounds and two had no degree and considerable experience in the field. Five participants had extensive experience in the corporate and business world before joining the sports sector. Relationship building was considered to be the most important skill for women. A variety of strategies were outlined for a successful career in the sport sector, ranging from active critique of, and resistance to, old boys’ networks to ‘playing the game’ and exploring ways of becoming part of those networks and trying to facilitate change from the inside. Pay was recognised as being a particular problem for women in the sport sector as they were faced with a double bind of low pay in the sport sector, and traditionally lower pay for women executives. Again, diverse strategies were outlined to deal with this problem. Some respondents felt that women should be responsible for negotiating their rates of pay, whereas others felt that it was an organisational duty to ensure equal pay. Informal mentoring was considered to be more useful than formal mentoring. Advice for students varied from the pragmatic to get as much experience as possible, to the more whimsical ‘be true to yourself’. These findings will be presented and discussed in more detail. There was some critique of organisations and calls for change within organisations (Meyerson & Kolb, 2000).

We conclude that there are common stories regarding women’s experiences in the sport sector, but that the strategies to address them are varied and individual. As far as understanding gender relations, within sport organisations, this is encouraging as there is no one sole approach to achieving high level positions. This means that graduates and less experienced managers should feel confident addressing some of the constraints faced by women with a variety of approaches and not just fitting with current structures and norms. We will be able to use the findings to improve our preparation of our own students and to inform our teaching practice, using examples such as relationship building in a case study example.

References:

Workshop:

The contribution of science to practice in football
How much money would need Spanish professional football to avoid financial risk?

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Keywords: financial crisis, professional football, administration, Z-score.

Objective
In the present paper, finances of Spanish professional football clubs are analyzed. Altman’s models for predicting bankruptcy (Altman, 2000) are employed to classify their financial situation and to study the evolution experienced. Using Altman’s model, a programming problem is proposed in order to find the equity required for each club to reach a balanced financial position.

Background
Financial distress in business has become an issue for EU. Any measure to prevent bankruptcy and act in early stages of financial crisis will be welcome. UEFA has developed the Financial Fair Play Regulations in order to assure the sustainability of football. Spanish Football industry is passing through serious financial problems. Boscá et al. (2008) in line with García & Rodríguez (2003) assert that ‘the economic situation of Spanish football clubs presents an important fragility’. That statement is proved by Barajas & Rodríguez (2010). According with Szymanski (2010), in Spain only Real Madrid and Barcelona have a real financial muscle, the rest of the clubs struggle to compete, and most clubs have significant debt exposure.

Methodology
We have worked with a database that includes the main financial ratios for an average of 35 clubs of 1st and 2nd Division during the last 5 seasons (2007-2011). The most appropriate Altman’s Z-score for football is the Z-parameter for Z2, where Z2 = 6.56 (X1) + 3.26 (X2) + 6.72 (X3), where Z2 ≥ 0. For every team below the security zone (Z<2.9), its needs of equity to reach an scenario without risk for the last season (2011) are estimated through a programming problem. The specifications of the problem are the following:

- Objective Function:
  \[ Z = 6.56X_1 + 3.26X_2 + 6.72X_3 \]
  \( Z^* = 2.9 \)

- Under the restrictions:
  - Net Profit, Profit before Tax, Long term debt, Current Liabilities and Equity ≥ 0.

X= Working Capital / Total Assets; \( X_1 \) (Working Capital is function of Current Liabilities).
X = (Net Profit – Dividends) / Total Assets, where Dividends in football has been null.
X = Profit before Tax / Total Assets.
X = Equity / (Long term debt + Current Liabilities).

The needs of equity result from the difference between the estimated equity and the current equity.

Results
Comparing the financial and sporting rankings, we have found a small negative correlation [−0.12]. The biggest difference corresponds to UD Almeria. It finished in the last position at the end of the season being the 4th in the financial ranking.

Comparing the financial situation with previous season (2010), Z got better for 18 clubs and worse for 17. Only 8.6% of professional clubs in Spain have a z-score over 2.90. Among the clubs that went under administration during 2009 and 2010 only one could not improve its financial situation measured by the Z.

The average need of equity for those clubs that need to recover the financial stability is almost of €16 million. It is worthy to remark that the model could not reach the security parameter for Z in the case of FC Barcelona, Atlético de Madrid and UD Salamanca.

Conclusions
Financial situation of professional football in Spain –on average and in general terms- get worse season after season.

The financial ranking for clubs under administration seems to be right. Those clubs are placed in the lower part of the ranking in the 2 years before going under administration.

The need of capitalization for clubs in First Division is over €320 millions. From that figure onwards we could let start to talk about balancing the finances of Football. Nevertheless, just the issue of new shares only would cover the past losses. Further measures addressed to avoid the structural and permanent deficit appear as absolutely essential.

References
The network of value captures in football club management:  
A framework to develop and analyse competitive advantage in professional team sports

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Aim of abstract/paper - research question
Any effort to understand ‘success’ in a broader sense in professional team sports must rest on an underlying economic and managerial conceptualization of sport as a business. The purpose of this research is to introduce a ‘network of value captures’ encompassing a team sport club’s competitive scope, defined as a number of value captures [the array of product offerings and different customer groups served], the strategic vision and the extent of coordinated strategy. Competitive advantage of club is attained within some scope, and the choice of value capturing activities, defined as value co-creation between value captures, is therefore an important managerial decision making and a decisive task to – in economic terms – successful professional sport club’s management.

Theoretical background or literature review
Value and the notion of value as co-created are fundamental concepts within marketing research (Grönroos, 2011; Vargo and Lusch, 2004). Although, existing literature has predominantly focused on conceptualizations of value creating processes and on how consumers integrate resources to create value in their consumption practices, little attention has been devoted to the sports club’s setting, and how sports clubs co-create value between the different offerings – conceptualized as ‘team’, ‘sporting competitions’, ‘club’, ‘players’, ‘football services’, ‘event’, ‘facilities and arena’, ‘merchandise’, and ‘other commercial activities’ in this research – and the different customer groups – conceptualized as ‘spectators and supporters (fan base)’, ‘club members (club membership)’, ‘media’, ‘sponsors and corporate partners’, ‘local communities’, and ‘other clubs’. Research in strategic management was utilized to develop two additional strategic dimensions: the overall direction and ambition of a club (vision) as well as operational strategy (where and how to compete in business).

Our understanding of value captures is based on Barney’s (1991) conceptualization of resources. A club’s resources can only be a source of competitive advantage when they are valuable and recognized by the customer, as stated by Dolles and Söderman (2011). Resources are considered to be value captures when they enable a club to implement strategies (value capturing activities) that improve its efficiency and effectiveness.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
Based on a mere holistic understanding of a club’s competitive environment and its relative position in the market, our approach was based on Porter (1991) to construct a framework for team sport management by using the football industry as an example.

To a large extent empirical literature on stories of success or failure of professional football clubs are used in an inductive setting to develop our framework. In addition, to confirm our findings we requested comments from football club managers, football associations’ officials and sport management experts during about 20 narrative interviews. Some comments were very general in nature or related to fundamental concerns about the cases and models we used or the assumptions we made. Other comments were more specific and very detailed in nature. We responded to the more general, broad-based comments, concerns, and issues in order to develop a general framework that can be generally applied by the management in professional team sports.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
Having combined the eight ‘offerings’ with the six groups of ‘customers’ 48 relations appear, showing the competitive scope of a club. Each of these relations does constitute a value capturing activity through which a club can create value and competitive advantage. An offering value capture meets a consumer value capture when e.g. ‘merchandise products’ are sold to ‘supporters’. Thus, a mixture of such relations does constitute a network of value captures as exemplified for the football industry in this research, observing that not all value-capturing activities are equally important in every given situation.

We also emphasize that the eight ‘offerings’ and the six ‘customer groups’ are interconnected among themselves. This broadens the choice of strategic options and allows strategies of bundling value captures (e.g. when ‘Players’ and ‘team’ are presented to the ‘media’).

The framework as developed in this research can be applied at the level of the industry, the level of strategic groups or the individual club. Its ultimate function is to explore and explain the sustainability of competitive advantage in the management of professional team sports.

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Customer satisfaction surveys in the Finnish football league; the match day event experience from the spectator point of view

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During years 2010 and 2011, Sport Business School Finland, which is an operational body of sport research established by HAAGA-HELIA University of Applied Sciences and JAMK University of Applied Sciences, conducted a numerous studies that concentrated on the football spectators in the Finnish Football League, Veikkausliiga. These studies comprehended a practical point of view in customer satisfaction as simple functions and factors of the match day event were evaluated by the attending spectators. One of the key points of the survey and of the whole research project was to link the recommendations of the match day event to the different functions and services developed and produced by the event organizers (clubs). Simple correlations were made in order to study which areas of the match day event functions the respondents’ positive or negative recommending was dependent on.

The main objectives of the research were to study the customer satisfaction in football matches and point out the key success factors of a football match day event. The results can and ought to be used to improve the quality of the match day event by concentrating resources in the essential functions from the spectators’ point of view. Also, another purpose of how to utilize the study results was to create a guideline of the best practices in organizing a match day event and this way to conceptualize the event so that it would possible to develop a standard level of event quality for the spectators. The objectives were drawn based on the following research questions: 1) How satisfied the football spectators are with the different factors of a football match arrangements? 2) Which kind of connections can be found between the recommending of a football match event and different factors of a football match event?

The methodological approach of the survey was quantitative. The data was collected on Webropol software database by using web based questionnaires. The link to the questionnaire was published after the match on the web page of the home club, and the questionnaire was available for responses for the next 2-3 days. Consequently, there were no restrictions for survey participation and anyone who visited the web pages after the match was able to take part in the survey. A few exceptions excluded, the study was conducted after every match in 2010. During 2011, the data was collected after 6 matches for every club in the beginning of the season, during midsummer and at the end of the season.

The theoretical framework of the research was a combination of theories concerning the customer buying behavior (Principles of Marketing, 2002), services management and customer satisfaction (Services Management, 2003) and marketing of sport and leisure (Torkildsen’s Sport and Leisure Management, 2010). Theoretical framework suggests that a match day event forms a service concept and perceived service quality along with buying behavior factors influences on willingness to recommend and participate in the event.

The quantity of the total sample in 2010 was 4098 responses, and in 2011, 2039 responses. The key findings of the material pointed out that the Veikkausliiga clubs are quite successful in technical aspects of the match day event such as entering the stadium, ticket sales and the security of the event. Also the pre-event and post-event bulletins and the reportages on the clubs’ web pages were rated positively. The majority of the respondents felt that a football match is a good venue to meet friends and have social contacts. The functions that need to be further developed were mostly related to the marketing of the event and to improving the quality of the services before, during and after the event. The stadium infrastructure, for example the sanitary facilities, was also rated as quite modest in many event venues. The correlations suggested that the most significant factors for the people recommending the event to a friend were the atmosphere of the event, the fighting spirit of the home club players, and the interaction between the players and the spectators.

The future challenges for the Veikkausliiga clubs are in marketing, in creating service culture and services in the matches, as well as in the stadiums’ infrastructure. Presumably, the Finnish Football League has a huge amount of potential spectators, but the problem is how to reach them through marketing and partnering, and how to fulfill the first time customers and spectators’ expectations.

References:
The recruitment of professional football managers and players: the role of personal contact networks

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Introduction
Given that uncertainty and insecurity are permanent features of the working lives of professional football managers and players, an obvious question concerns how they cope with such issues. One way in which all employees alleviate the problem of uncertainty in workplaces is by drawing on a network of personal contacts in order to take advantage of employment opportunities (Blair, 2001). In professional football, managers and players are members of interdependent networks of personal contacts with agents and current and/or former managers, coaches and players. This paper examines the central role that personal contact networks play in the recruitment of professional football players and managers. Moreover, this paper examines a central characteristic of these networks of personal contacts; that of trust.

Research Methods
Located within the interpretive paradigm, this research was based on semi-structured tape recorded interviews with twenty-five players, five agents and twenty managers. The interviews were conducted between 2004 and 2006. All five agents had represented both players and managers in the UK and Ireland. Of the twenty-five managers who were interviewed, ten had managed clubs in England and three had managed at full international level. Of the twenty-five players who were interviewed, eighteen had experience as full-time professionals with clubs in the English Premier League. Three players had played at full international and eight at Under-21 level. The interviews were transcribed verbatim and then subjected to a process of inductive content analysis which organised the data into a number of interpretable and meaningful units of meaning or themes. These data were triangulated in 2011 with informal interviews with a number of football agents and English Premier League and Championship managers, players and physiotherapists.

Literature Review
Social resources such as informal networks and personal contacts are not unusual in determining how and where professional football players secure employment (Roderick, 2006). In professional football, ‘friendship networks generally fulfil the functions of directly offering a job opportunity, informing a person of a potential job opportunity, or recommending a potential employee via a third party’ (Roderick, 2006: 256). Magee (1998: 107) highlights the ‘grapevine’ as a central point of recruitment and, in this regard, suggests that professional ‘football is often described as a who-you-know sport’. Elsewhere, Perry (2000: 7-8) provides ‘evidence of huge on-the-job research, sophisticated networking and intelligence gathering’. In professional football, the practice of informal ‘testing of the water’ is widely practiced and usually involves contacting prospective players or managers as a means of gauging interest in, or facilitating a potential employment opportunity (Roderick, 2006: 182). Moreover, in professional football, informal or illegal practices such as ‘tapping up’ are common features of player (Magee, 1998; Roderick, 2006) and manager (Perry, 2000) recruitment. However, relatively little is known about the type and function of these personal contact networks and, more importantly the role they play in the recruitment of players in general and managers in particular. This paper attempts to fill this gap by examining their role more fully which provides an understanding of the mechanisms that facilitate the recruitment of professional football players and managers. Moreover, this paper utilises the concept of interpersonal trust (Noteboom & Six, 2003) in examining how personal contact networks influence player and manager recruitment in professional football.

Discussion
A recurring theme identified the significant role that trust plays in the sharing of information about potential job opportunities within both managers’ and players’ personal contact networks. Arguably, these personal contacts may be viewed as an exclusion mechanism where the flow of information concerning possible employment opportunities is limited to those who are members of particular contact networks. This could detract from what many would consider as good employment practice. An additional theme that emerged from the data collected concerned the practice of tapping up in professional football. More specifically, this practice tapping up of prospective players and managers involved informally contacting them via their trustworthy personal contacts.

Conclusion
This paper highlights the central role that trust plays within networks of interdependent relationships in the recruitment of professional football managers and players. More worryingly however is the prevalence of ‘tapping up’ in the recruitment of managers and players which, raises serious questions about the commitment of the football authorities to govern player and manager recruitment.

Bibliography
Management of football organizations from a business studies perspective

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Abstract keywords
Football Management, Football Organizations, Business Studies, Literature Review

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
Previous research has attempted to show how sport and business differ. This is especially so when it comes to team sports like football. This range from the fact that football organizations compete in leagues to that the product (the football match) is unique. Consequently there are claims that there should be specific theories for the management of football organizations. However, what is lacking is a more thorough discussion on these theories and to what extent they actually differ from those theories used in business studies. A critical stance towards the discussion also raises the question why it is so important to state these differences? Is it really the case that business studies theories are of little use in order to understand and manage football organizations or could it be argued that currently the potential of business studies theories are underestimated?

The aim of this paper is to critically discuss management of football organizations from the viewpoint of business studies.

Theoretical background or literature review
The paper will depart from earlier attempts to discuss the relation between sports organizations and other types of organizations. This includes among others Knoke & Prensky (1984) on the relevance of organization theories for voluntary associations, Stewart & Smith (1999) on the differences between sports and business, Thiel & Mayer (2009) on the characteristics of voluntary sports clubs management, Hamil & Chadwick (2009) on Managing Football, and Bridgewater (2010) on Football Management. The aim is to highlight key arguments and then critically assess and juxtapose them with discussions from the general business studies field. Assisting in this is a business organization model based upon e.g. Forslund (2011).

Business studies are understood as all discussions on how to create and manage effective businesses. This includes accounting, marketing, finance, organization theory, logistics, leadership and so on. Most important however is the general underlying idea on how we can understand what an organization is, the different offerings a business have and the complexities that businesses face in everyday operations. This leads to a much more complex image of what it means to manage a business organization and thus helps us problematize the relation between this and the management of football organizations.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
Literature review followed by a construction of a conceptual model that can be used to discuss the management of football organizations.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
The results are not clear at the present, but will be when it is time for submission. Preliminary findings include that there are severe simplifications and misunderstandings that plague discussions on differences between sport and business organizations. This prevents us from more clearer assess and understand sport organizations in general and football organizations in particular. The attempt to use a business organization model to conceptualize management of football organizations seems promising and indicates that there are great potential in using business studies theories to develop the field.

References
A review of UEFA’s football social responsibility strategy

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Since 1999, UEFA has used revenue from fines imposed by its disciplinary bodies to develop partnerships and make social investments through humanitarian and other types of non-profit organisations working in areas related to football. The underlying premise is that football plays an important, positive role in European society; it is not just big business, but a community activity that is based on and fosters the preservation of social, educational and cultural values. Therefore, having initially adopted a rather cosmetic approach, as illustrated by the typology put forward by Bayle et al. (2011:18), UEFA’s social involvement has evolved from more of a charitable/philanthropic concern to an integral strategy characterised by a commitment to eradicating deep-seated social issues in Europe (Gasser, 2009).

UEFA has positioned itself strategically to build on football’s role as a positive force in society primarily with the aim of strengthening the health and integrity of both European football and European society as a whole. European society is therefore identified as a key stakeholder. It is necessary for an organisation to arrive at a shared vision of social responsibility, as well as a consensus on the objectives (functional and social), the strategy to adopt and the resources to commit. In his seminal work, Carroll (1991:43) argued that “there is a natural fit between the idea of corporate social responsibility and the organisation’s stakeholders”. Such an approach is based on the principle that the success of an organisation must be measured according to the satisfaction of the parties involved. Social responsibility is a collective issue; hence, society is best served when an organisation adopts a sustainable development approach.

In line with this ideology, UEFA’s approach in the field of social responsibility has also been about balancing the demands of all its key stakeholders, dealing fairly with them and managing all interactions – legal, professional and commercial – with a concern for the impact on all involved. This ethic underlies UEFA’s definition as an organisation. By acknowledging the role that each stakeholder plays, UEFA ensures that it cooperates fully with them in an effort to come to a shared consensus on matters of key strategic importance. Through developing partnerships with agencies such as the European Union (EU), for example on issues such as racism, violence, corruption, obesity, xenophobia and homophobia, and by helping its member associations to develop similar partnerships at national level, UEFA reinforces the vision of football as a communal, cultural activity instead of a free-market business. Politicians have long used sport to try to shape society. Recently, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and international organisations have also embraced sport as a means to mend rifts in society, foster development and raise awareness of a wide array of problems. More and more programmes aim to harness the power of sport to drive positive change, a trend highlighted by the European Year of Education through Sport supported by the European Commission in 2004, the UN International Year of Sport and Physical Education in 2005 and the European Year of Intercultural Dialogue in 2008. In this context, European football faces a rising tide of expectations about its social role.

However, as it will be argued in this paper, the evaluation of social responsibility projects involving football is slightly problematic as, to date, there has been very little research undertaken in this area to collect data and evaluate the impact of social projects of this kind. This problem is two-fold: first, as observed by Smith and Westerbeek (2007:52), “although corporate social responsibility has been thoroughly articulated, the social responsibilities implicit to sport remain under-developed”, and hence under-researched generally; second, there is an evident lack of data in football-specific CSR research (Walters and Tacon, 2010). UEFA itself has been quite sporadic in this matter, commissioning external evaluations to be undertaken on some of its social responsibility projects but not following a systematic approach. One justification leading to this outcome was that resource allocation to finance and manage such activities has not been sufficient. In order to sustain and improve this level of involvement in social matters, UEFA needs to consider increasing the budget allocated for this purpose, comply with international standards, which would in turn allow for improved medium-to-longer term planning and allocation of funds to partnership organisations. As UEFA enters a phase of reflection on its strategy, it is timely to redress some of these issues that will be highlighted in this presentation, which will have implications for the success of the new strategy for social investment over the next four-year period.

References
Implementing the corporate social responsibility performance scorecard in professional football clubs

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Keywords: Corporate social responsibility, Performance evaluation, Implementation, Strategic management, Football management

Aim of the abstract
Generally, the lack of strategy thinking along with weak performance measurement application is seen to hamper progress in sports management. This contribution focuses on corporate social responsibility (CSR) as an opportunity-driven concept in the context of European professional football clubs and their public/private partners.

The aim is, generally, to infuse conceptual knowledge and analytical findings as well as first-hand experience from implementing the CSR Performance Scorecard at a leading German football club. Especially, managers of clubs or associations are encouraged to see, plan and apply wide-ranging opportunities and measure organisational CSR performance according to their organisation’s specific needs.

Practice description
This contribution describes the process of implementing the CSR Performance Scorecard at a leading professional German football club. It also shows how the concept is applied on the club level today, how positive side effects have been generated throughout the process and which barriers still exist in fully embracing modern CSR.

The original CSR Performance Scorecard model that was developed based on wide-ranging research and in consultation with several leading European football clubs required alternation in order to satisfy the club’s specific approach. The conceptual model considers economic, integrative-political and ethical-emotional dimensions that each include a limited number of organisational goals (according to established management practice with balanced scorecards). Debatably, the original model does not include an environmental dimension.

While the club is industry leader in CSR, throughout the process, which started in 2010, it became obvious that there is yet no “organisational readiness” for a comprehensive strategic management system like the full CSR Performance Scorecard. Here the structure of the adapted scorecard after management and stakeholder consultation:

- Customers
  - Increase brand value
  - Bond fans
  - Bond strategic partners
- Society
  - Build up social capital

With the adapted scorecard at hands, a first round of evaluation was conducted throughout 2010/11. Results build the baseline for future measurements that are directly linked to CSR activities, hence monitoring the club’s CSR progress and performance.

Context description, actors involved
In 2010 the club became interested in further developing the concept of the CSR Performance Scorecard in professional football, which was conceptualised for their CSR partner Sport Foundation by researchers from the German Sports University Cologne Department for Sports Economics and Sports Management (Breitbarth, Hovemann and Walzel, 2011). Until today, the evolution of the concept includes research and consultation, amongst other, with Liverpool FC, SV Werder Bremen, Bayer Leverkusen, FC Basel, UEFA, DFB and several industry partners/sponsors of respective organisations.

The concept and the implementation process as been published, presented and discussed at various stages throughout its evolution - for example in a special, by-invitation-only workshop at the 2010 German Sport Economic Congress in Cologne and the worlds largest CSR conference, the 4th International CSR Conference in Berlin. Several publications are available (e.g. Breitbarth, Hovemann and Walzel, 2011; Hovemann, Breitbarth and Walzel 2011; Kremer and Walzel, 2011)

Implications and learning
This contribution provides the case for a progressive, formalised approach to CSR in professional football. The club has been the first professional sports organisation, certainly in Germany, to start implementing the CSR Performance Scorecard in order to create additional organisational value.

Learnings and implications for managers of sports clubs and associations, industry partners of professional football clubs, sports management consultants and applied researchers lie conceptual knowledge, the analytical findings as well as first-hand experience provided. This includes:

- How CSR management enhances competitiveness
- How counting makes it visible, and counting makes it count
- How the CSR Performance Scorecard can be implemented
- How positive side efforts are generated and additional value is created
- How barriers to embrace CSR as a strategic management issue can be overcome

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• management - current trends and future developments), 53 (6), 721-737.
‘Getting the tactics right’: implementing CSR in English football

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Introduction
The practice of CSR seems to have a growing appeal for the sport scholarly community, and the sport of football has not been immune to this development (Walters and Chadwick, 2009). Although there exist no regulatory provisions that require English football clubs to assess their overall social or environmental impact in any detail, or with any degree of formality (James and Miettinen, 2010), football clubs in England are now heavily engaged in implementing a range of social and environmental-based programmes. This paper draws on findings from a larger empirical study and provides a descriptive account of some of the key issues associated with the way CSR is being strategically implemented in English football. It does so, by using a football tactical ‘line up’ analogy in an endeavour to accentuate eleven points that pertain to strategic CSR in this particular context.

Methodology
This study employed a qualitative research design. Primary data was gathered from a series of semi-structured interviews with key individuals in setting the CSR strategy in their football clubs. The study was populated by the top two divisions of English football. Thirty-two CSR managers were interviewed through snowball and purposive sampling. The sample provided a good mixture of football-playing status as well as the geographical remit where the football club, and by extension the CSR strategy, is implemented.

Strategic line-up: 1-4-3-3
Tactical formations are a recognisable pattern of play resulting from the use of certain players in fairly clearly defined functions on the pitch (Orejan, 2010). The position of the goalkeeper in football can rarely be understated. An important element for the strategic CSR implementation in English football is, therefore, the facility or venue where the foundation resides and manages its operations from. The back line of defenders with regards to CSR implementation in English football consists of ‘players’ such as health, education, staff and geographical remit. The first two are seen as the fullbacks and they are the two of the major themes that both Premier League and Football League clubs pay more and more attention to by gradually integrating them in their strategic agenda, albeit with plenty of room for improvement; these two players are the ‘environment’ and ‘communication’. The place of the centre forward in this tactical formation is given to the, perhaps abstract, concept of ‘Big Society’. The centre forward in our analogy needs to be ‘fed’ with quality passes from the rest of the team. That is, should the other ten ‘players’ underperform, then the goal for the front line consists of the two wingers and one centre forward. The ‘wingers’ are, in essence, the two areas in which English football foundations/clubs have started paying more and more attention to by gradually integrating them in their strategic agenda, albeit with plenty of room for improvement; these two players are the ‘environment’ and ‘communication’. The place of the centre forward in this tactical formation is given to the, perhaps abstract, concept of ‘Big Society’. The centre forward in our analogy needs to be ‘fed’ with quality passes from the rest of the team. That is, should the other ten ‘players’ underperform, then the goal for the front line consists of the two wingers and one centre forward. The ‘wingers’ are, in essence, the two areas in which English football foundations/clubs have started paying more and more attention to by gradually integrating them in their strategic agenda, albeit with plenty of room for improvement; these two players are the ‘environment’ and ‘communication’. The place of the centre forward in this tactical formation is given to the, perhaps abstract, concept of ‘Big Society’. The centre forward in our analogy needs to be ‘fed’ with quality passes from the rest of the team. That is, should the other ten ‘players’ underperform, then the goal for

References
Perceived competitive balance in three European soccer leagues: Implications for league management

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Keywords:
Competitive Balance, Perceived Competitive Balance, Uncertainty of Outcome Hypothesis, Soccer, League Management

Aim and research question
For managers of professional sports leagues or championships, the maintenance of a sufficient level of competitive balance (CB) represents an important task in order to enhance the attractiveness of the league for fans and media and, thus, to improve the business success of the league. This idea can be traced back to the uncertainty of outcome hypothesis (UOH) introduced by Rothenberg (1956) and Neale (1964). Since then the UOH belongs to the core of economic knowledge about league and championship management.

Within the mainstream of sports business analysis it is the state-of-the-art to rely management implications and recommendations on measures of ‘objective’ competitive balance (OCB), i.e. (advanced) statistical instruments measuring how competitive balance in leagues has actually developed (inter alia, Pawlowski, Breuer & Hovemann, 2010). However, many studies do not find a reliable correlation between statistically measured OCB and business success indicators such as attendance or viewer figures (inter alia, Pawlowski & Anders, 2012). Furthermore, it remains an open question so far, whether these ‘objective’ measures of competitive balance represent a good fit to how fans perceive competitive balance. The paper aims to close this research gap by analyzing how perceived competitive balance (PCB) differs from OCB. It does so by using a unique primary data set about fan perception of CB. The results offer important management implications: the sometimes concluded ‘unimportance’ of CB (due to the lack of statistical correlation between OCB and business success like attendance figures) potentially leads to wrong management recommendation since (as the findings suggest) PCB matters to the fans and affects their patterns of consumption.

Theoretical background
If fans would follow the model of perfectly rational behaviour, then there should be no difference between the statistically measured CB in European soccer leagues and the PCB by the fans. However, behavioural economics together with constructivism suggest that bounded rationality and subjective perception create incompatibilities between OCB and PCB. For instance, framing effects imply that changes in CB influence perception more strongly and in a non-linear way than CB-levels. Furthermore, attention levels should depend on competition importance and media intensity. Therefore, CB between (few) top teams may be more important for fan perception than the balance of the league in total. Eventually, instead of an ‘optimal’ CB, fans are rather interested in a satisfying CB, implying that a discontinuity effect emerges: PCB changes above the satisfying CB are not perceived to be relevant for consumption behaviour whereas a drop of PCB below the satisfying level may cause discontinuous, perhaps even extreme consumption reactions.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
To inquire the PCB by the fans a written survey amongst soccer fans in Europe was conducted. In contrast to previous research on soccer fans’ perceptions in Europe (inter alia, Königstorfer, Groppeklein & Kunkel, 2010), three countries (Germany, Denmark and the Netherlands) with different quality levels of the leagues were selected (following UEFA ranking Germany is 3rd, the Netherlands are 9th and Denmark is 12th). Since it is often argued that fans in the stadium are less sensitive to changes in CB compared to those watching soccer on TV, both, fans in the stadium and in the bars (where soccer matches are live broadcasted) were inquired. To further control for possible heterogeneity between fans of different teams, cities were chosen with different types of first division teams performing either “constantly good”, “constantly bad” or ‘volatile’ during the last ten years. Overall, the inquiries took place before/during 14 matches in the first divisions of the respective leagues and the complete data base contains n=1,689 observations. With questions on both, the PCB by the fans and the conditional intention to “consume the product” (i.e. attending a match in the stadium or watching a match on TV) it is possible to estimate conditional demand functions. Furthermore, ordered probit and logit models with robust and clustered standard errors by favourite teams are employed to detect different factors influencing the PCB by the fans.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
The data collection has already been completed and the data set is currently in the process of being analysed. First results indicate that behavioural economic theories are relevant in this research context since framing effects, attention level effects and satisficing effects indeed play a role. PCB differs from OCB and for league and championship managers it is relevant to align their strategies with PCB (and not only with OCB). Final results are expected to be ready by June.

References


Workshop:

Elite sport organisation and management
for world class performance
Why hasn’t Malaysia won a gold medal at the Olympics?

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Abstract keywords
Elite sport systems, national governing bodies, capabilities

Aim of paper
The research set out below seeks to understand why Malaysia appears to be underperforming on the international sporting stage.

Theoretical background
Success on the international sporting stage is an aim for many governments, leading to increasing expenditure on the systems, organisations and athletes that create this success. Consequently, a growing body of research investigates the factors that might lead to, or contribute to international sporting success. Research has been carried out to identify factors in the sport system that might be adopted by countries to enhance their chances of winning on the world stage (de Bosscher, et al, 2006; Green & Oakley, 2001; Houlihan & Green, 2008). At the organizational level, Robinson and Minikin (2012) have argued that sporting success is the result of the competitive advantage that sport organisations can create by developing athletes capable of achieving international sporting success. Malaysia has had some international sporting success having gained a record number of medals at the 2010 Commonwealth Games (CGs). However, it has only won 2 silver and 2 bronze medals in the Olympics since 1956 and is slipping behind neighbours Thailand, Vietnam and Indonesia at regional competitions.

Methodology
A mixed methods approach was employed to collect information on the Malaysian sport system that involved desk research, the application of the Readiness Assessment Tool (Robinson and Minikin, 2011) and interviews with key stakeholders. Examples of the documents analysed were the Sport Policy for Malaysia and the strategic plans of key stakeholders. Interviews were carried out with key personnel in the Olympic Council of Malaysia (OCM), the National Sports Council (NSC), the National Institute of Sport (NIS), and the Ministry for Youth and Sport. Documents and interview data were analysed primarily using categories developed from the review of the literature on elite sports systems.

The Readiness Assessment Tool questionnaire was distributed to all 53 members and associate members of the OCM. The results presented below are based on 28 of the 36 full members and 5 of the 17 associate members of the OCM. The accuracy of the responses was verified against a recent survey of NSAs carried out by the OCM and by interviews with selected National Sport Association (NSAs) covering each of the broad levels of development.

Results and discussion
A comparison of the Malaysian elite sport system against the SPLISS pillars (de Bosscher et al, 2006) shows a mixed picture:

- Finance: the government has systematically invested in sporting success since the hosting of the 1998 CGs.
- Integrated approach to policy development: Malaysia has a Sport policy and a Sport Development Act.
- Foundation and participation: the government sponsors programmes that encourage participation.
- Talent identification and development system: there is a systematic talent identification system.
- Athletic and post career support: those of school age are trained in special sport schools, however, little other lifestyle support is available.
- Training facilities: these are centrally provided.
- Coaching provision and coach development: Most professional coaches are foreign and there is little evidence of systematic coach development.
- Competition: elite athletes have opportunities to compete internationally.
- Scientific research: Elite athletes have access to scientific support based on research.

On the face of it, Malaysia has many of the requirements of a successful elite sport system. However, detailed investigation shows that the system and the main developers of elite athletes, the NSAs, lack real development. The results of the Readiness Assessment Tool show that the NSAs of Malaysia can be considered to be moderately developed, while the pillars encompassed in the SPLISS framework require a high level of organizational development. Specifically, the research showed:

- There is a lack of strategic planning in NSAs
- Very few sports have a holistic competition structure and most sports have no club structure
- Virtually no NSA keeps membership records
- The financial policies and procedures of all NSAs need substantial development

This research suggests that although many of the pillars that lead to international sporting success are in place, they are either not well developed, or are only available to a limited number of athletes. More importantly, it is clear that the NSAs, responsible for elite talent development in most countries, do not possess the capabilities required to create competitive advantage through medal winning athletes.

References

Factors behind excellence in sports

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The common understanding is that rich nations like the United States of America, China, Australia, Russia, United Kingdom, and Canada excel in international sport competitions. In fact, statistics show that gross domestic product (GDP), GDP adjusted for Purchasing Power Parity, size of the Population, and the Land Mass of the nations were very highly correlated with the medals won by different countries in the 2008 Beijing Olympics (Chelladurai, 2009). The population of a country and its land mass are also said to be critical factors in achieving sporting excellence.

An equally important factor is the popularity of a sport within the country. For instance, the popularity of basketball in the US is one reason why the best players are groomed in that country. Similarly, the popularity of football in Brazil, England, Germany, and France and Rugby in New Zealand, Australia and South Africa would account for the emergence of great players from those countries.

In addition, it has also been suggested that national sport policies and the associated priority funding fostering systems leading to sporting excellence are significant factors in nations emerging as victors in international competitions (de Bosscher, de Knop, van Bottenburgh & Shibli, 2006). In this connection, there have also been references to the systems of governments and their sport policies. Currently, the Chinese system of the government’s heavy involvement in promoting, directing, and funding of sport excellence is contrasted with the American system where the federal and provincial governments do not engage themselves in the promotion or funding of excellence in sports. Instead, the all levels of educational institutions are focused on promoting pursuit of excellence in sports. Those systems that lie in between these two extremes such as the Australian, British, Canadian, French, and German systems mimic both the extremes in specific features. More specifically, these governments do fund heavily some aspects of pursuit of excellence such as facilities, coaching, training centers, athlete support, competitions, and so on. But they refrain from managing, controlling, and/or regulating the activities of the relevant sports organizations and/or the athletes. The foregoing perspectives have also been affirmed in scholarly investigations of sporting excellence among nations (e.g., De Bosscher, Shibli, van Bottenburg, De Knop, and Truyens, 2010; Houlihan & Green, 2008).

Robinson and Minikin (2012) offered an alternate explanation by arguing that the nations achieve success by creating competitive advantage on the sport arena. In their view, the ability to use resources effectively and the skills and knowledge of an organization provide the potential to create athletes with the ability to achieve at an international level.

But there is another side to it. It is true that monetary wealth as indicated by the gross domestic product (GDP) of nations expressed in terms of purchasing power parity was correlated at the .832 level with number of medals won at the Beijing Olympics. This explains 69% of the variance in the relationship (Chelladurai, 2009). But that statistic masks the fact that there still remains 30% to be explained in medal count in the Olympics. By dividing the GDP (Purchasing Power Parity-PPP) of nations by the respective population size, we can identify the surplus or discretionary wealth available to be spent on sports. The resultant per capita GDP-PPP is correlated with medals won at the .23 level which explains only 5% of the variance. Thus, it is apparent that monetary wealth is not a necessary or sufficient condition for excellence in international sport competitions.

This become evident when we consider that poorer and smaller nations like Azerbaijan, Cameroon, Cuba, Estonia, Ethiopia, Jamaica, Kenya, Mongolia, Thailand, and Zimbabwe have also won some medals including gold medals in the Beijing Olympics. They have also produced outstanding athletes in football, basketball, and baseball.

Thus, there is a need to identify and articulate a generic model that will be applicable to all nations without reference to wealth, population size, and land mass of nations. The purpose of the present research is to investigate the experiences of those exceptional athletes from poor and small countries, and identify those factors that have instigated them into the pursuit of excellence, those that sustained them in their endeavor, and those that contributed to their reaching the pinnacle. By synthesizing and integrating these factors, we propose to advance a model containing features that are sufficient and feasible for all to pursue excellence in international contests.

References
In search of the Swedish elite sport development system – approaching a micro-level analysis

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Abstract keywords
Sport policy, meso-level analysis, critical success factors

Theoretical background or literature review
This study answers the call made by De Bosscher, De Knop and van Bottenburg (2009) for more detailed scrutiny of sport policy factors leading to international sporting success. As proposed by De Bosscher et al., research on sports policies of nations needs to proceed at a sport-specific level since elite sports development is largely organised on a sport-by-sport basis. Another point of departure for this study was that such research must pay attention to different cultures and different sport systems since “a system leading to success in one nation may be doomed to fail in another” (De Bosscher, De Knop, van Bottenburg & Shibli, 2006, 209). These two notions formed the basis for a study of how the Swedish elite sport system operates and supports elite sport efforts.

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
Taking the aspect of individual sports rather than national systems and the aspect of the Swedish culture and larger elite sport system into consideration we asked two questions: 1. How is performance development organised at the level of eight individual sports? 2. How are these sport specific performance development systems influenced by and integrated into the wider national elite sport system? Our aim was to explore how the answers to these two questions can combine into an understanding of the performance and results of Swedish elite sport.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The selection of the individual sports was guided by the ambition to sketch a varied and multifaceted picture of the conditions that dictate the opportunities for elite athletes to fulfil their potential. Therefore a mix of male and female, large and small, Olympic and non-Olympic, well established and newly established, winter and summer, team-sport and individual sport, successful and less successful, commercial and less commercial national teams was selected for scrutiny. The selection of informants was based on the argument put forward by De Bosscher et al. (2006) that athletes, coaches and performance directors are the primary stakeholders in elite sport and thereby have the ability to validly evaluate the throughput of each sport specific elite sport system, which was the main concern for this study. In total we asked eight athletes, eight national team coaches and eight performance directors questions corresponding to the nine pillars of sports policy factors influencing international success (De Bosscher et al., 2006).

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
Results show remarkable variance between the eight performance development systems across all nine pillars. Nevertheless, all sports can be considered successful when looking at championship medals and international rankings. All informants also highlight similar critical success factors such as the extensive sports for all policy in Sweden which enables many children to enter sports, the well-educated and driven leaders at club levels and the possibilities for athletes to combine their carriers with studies. They also point to the same problems: the lack of long-term planning, the lack of transparency in the distribution of government funds, and that the overall financing of sport doesn’t allow for all prospective talents to fulfil their own potential.

These results lead us to the conclusion that many critical success factors in Swedish sports are not to be found at the national policy level, neither so much in each sport specific performance development system. Instead, we suggest that they are to be found among the athletes and leaders – and the relationship between them – at the club level. In order to gain a deeper understanding of the performance and results of Swedish elite sport, research efforts must in the future be directed at the operations at club levels.

References – limited to 5
**Strong beliefs – ambiguous feed-back signals:**

**How elite skiers engage in critical self-reflection**

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**Aim of paper**  
All elite sport organizations are facing the same fundamental challenge; how to develop teams and athletes to achieve excellence and win major international competitions. They are consistently engaged in making the best even better. To succeed they need to identify talents, employ different types of expertise and experienced coaches. On the other hand, to develop individual talent, athletes must take advantage of the resources and support available to them. At the same, they are the most important source of information about how and to what extent training methods can be successfully adapted to their individual needs. For this reason it is important to understand the challenges that athletes face when reflecting upon their own practices. Their capacity for reflection and communicating experiences to coaches, teammates and other support personnel is a key to sustained success. The aim of the paper is to shed light upon how reflection is often not critical (tend to search for signals that confirm the beliefs embedded in the plan), the brooder tend to be too critical (questions the plan and the implementation of it), whereas the analyst engages in reflection over aspects that do not indicate how the athlete responds to the training. The experimenter is in many ways different than the three other types; this type continuously reflects over to what extent the plan is properly implemented. Furthermore, there is evidence suggesting that the experimenter is more likely to sustain successful. We also found that the wider organization play different roles in relation to the four types.

The research was designed as a qualitative case study (Yin, 2009). We wanted to understand how athletes reflect in every-day training, and how self-reflection may influence the potential for individual development. This includes both commonalities across individuals and differences between them. Individual athletes may be viewed as observation units that provide insight into self-reflection, which is the unit of analysis. However, we were also interested in how such reflection may be influenced by the wider organizational context. Through a stepwise coding process, testing our own expectations and hypothesis, we identified four types of athletes regarding how they engage in critical self-reflection: the 1) conformist, 2) the brooder, 3) the experimenter, and 4) the analyst.

**Results, discussion and implications**  
Common for all four types is a shared set of beliefs about critical success factors, which to a large extent is institutionalized within Norwegian elite cross-country skiing. However, there is considerable variation between the types regarding what they notice, and how they interpret their own experiences in the training situation. The conformists’ reflection is often not critical (tend to search for signals that confirm the beliefs embedded in the plan), the brooder tend to be too critical (questions the plan and the implementation of it), whereas the analyst engages in reflection over aspects that do not indicate how the athlete responds to the training. The experimenter is in many ways different than the three other types; this type continuously reflects over to what extent the plan is properly implemented. Furthermore, there is evidence suggesting that the experimenter is more likely to sustain successful. We also found that the wider organization play different roles in relation to the four types.

The paper has three major contributions: first, it represents a unique empirical insight into how the most successful athletes in their sport engage in self-reflection. Second, it identifies general mechanisms for reliable learning that may be of great importance to practitioners. Third, it illuminates how organizational factors play a key role in facilitating critical self-reflection and thereby reliable learning.

**Theoretical background**  
It is the individual athletes that engage in reflection. Mindful organization foster reflection to strengthen reliable experience-based learning (Weick & Sutcliffe, 2001). To be mindful implies the willingness to use new information (experience) to make new distinctions. More precisely, it is a mindset that emphasizes the conditional nature of knowledge by continuously question underlying assumptions in light of new experiences (Langer, 2000). Mindful organizations seek to stimulate reflection on all levels. The extent to which organizations succeed may vary, but for organizations involved in developing world class athletes, stimulating mindful reflection is central. Key elements in reflection are sensemaking and interpretation (Weick, 1979). Sensemaking consists of noticing signals and framing. Signals are situational cues that athletes become aware of, whereas frames serve as cognitive schemes intuitively adopted in the noticing process. Interpretation, on the other hand, involves a process of evaluation and a search for significant patterns in light of beliefs and expectations embedded in the plan.

**Methodology, research design and data analysis**  
The research was designed as a qualitative case study (Yin, 2009). We wanted to understand how athletes reflect in every-day training, and how self-reflection may influence the potential for individual development. This includes both commonalities across individuals and differences between them. Individual athletes may be viewed as observation units that provide insight into self-reflection, which is the unit of analysis. However, we were also interested in how such reflection may be influenced by the wider organizational context. Through a stepwise coding process, testing our own expectations and hypothesis, we identified four types of athletes regarding how they engage in critical self-reflection: the 1) conformist, 2) the brooder, 3) the experimenter, and 4) the analyst.

**References:**

The ecology of successful talent development in ice hockey. An ongoing study on Swedish sport clubs

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Abstract keywords
Talent, Talent environment, Swedish sport, Ice hockey

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
The study focuses on the significance of the club environment in the talent development process

Theoretical background or literature review*
The discussion concerning talent and talent development shows many different views and perspectives. Some emphasize the innate potential as something vital and significant, while others instead emphasize that it is a matter of ambition and the time and effort the individual puts into serious and systematic training. They seem to agree that it is a long process and that the early victories not necessarily indicate success in adulthood. However they often disregard the environmental factors. The clubs were studied using the Environment Success Factors working model and the Athletic Talent Development Environment model (Henriksen 2010). The models describes how Preconditions, Process and Organizational Culture and Development will impact both individual and team development and on the development of a successful club culture.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The organizations were studied through document analysis and interviews with board members, coaches, players and parents. The interviews were taped and transcribed. And the data was analyzed using the ESF and the ATDE models.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
The results indicate among other things that there is an extensive cooperation and exchange of ideas and experiences between the coaches, the clubs found support from the family very important and they included elements of other sports in the training and encouraged active participation in other sports a later specialization. The final analysis of the collected data in this ongoing project are fulfilled in mid April and the results will be presented in early June. The EASM presentation will also include a discussion regarding the implications of the results.

References
Institutionalizing sustained sporting success: top down or bottom up?

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Introduction
Research on international elite sport has shown that, at a general level, elite sport organizations in Western countries have become more similar during the last decades (Augestad, Bergsgard & Hansen 2006; Houlihan & Green 2008). General characteristics of this development are targeted elite sport policies, increased funding, centralized talent development programs, strict priorities, and professionalized support systems (DeBosscher, De Knop & van Bottenburg, 2009). However, recent research has also demonstrated that this broad trend of convergence on a general level may go hand in hand with major divergence at a national or sport-specific level in terms of the organization, coordination and centralization of elite sport efforts (Andersen & Ronglan, 2012).

Aim
This paper aims to explore and trace quite different paths to sustained sporting success in individual sports. The chosen cases are the development of Swedish golf and Norwegian women’s handball in the period from mid-1980s to 2010. It will be demonstrated how both cases represent remarkable sustainable success stories in terms of international results over a period of 25 years. In specific, the objective of the paper is to describe and discuss the two stories as examples of a top-down and a bottom-up process.

Contextual background and research design
The two investigated cases are examples of lasting elite sport successes grounded in a “Scandinavian sport model” (Ibsen & Seippel, 2010) dominated by broad based voluntary sport organizations which include both mass and elite sport development. Thus, the societal and organizational contexts for the two stories were quite similar. Within this framework different phases of two cases’ gradual institutionalization of their success spirals are described and compared. The data was generated from results statistics, document analyses, media texts, and interviews with key actors. Comparison of categories such as mass sport foundation, infrastructure / facilities, strategies, and key actors, made it possible to illuminate similarities as well as differences between the cases.

Discussion and conclusion
The paper discusses the two cases as examples of (1) a powerful bottom-up process leading to a remarkable increase of both performance level and number of elite players (Swedish golf), and (2) effective implementation of strategies decided on a central level to improve and maintain the competitiveness of the national team (Norwegian handball). The different paths – ‘bottom-up’ versus ‘top-down’ – may help to kill the myth that ‘one size fits all’: there is no such thing as one way to excellence. Even within a quite homogenous Scandinavian context, obvious differences regarding strategies and initiatives emerge when we take a closer look at the success stories. It seems clear that societal, organizational and sport-specific contexts must be taken into account when trying to understand why specific initiatives and efforts to develop elite sport succeed or not. Despite the fact that elite sport is a highly competitive domain, subject to strong pressures towards convergence and centralized strategies, there is considerable space for local ingenuity in identifying and making most out of their local resources.

References
The legitimacy and funding of the Finnish high performance sport centers

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Aim of the paper
High Performance Sport Centers (HPSC) have become one critical factor of a successful elite sport system. Since the formation of Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) in 1981 many other countries have adopted similar structures in elite sport development, where athlete training, coaching development, sport research and sport medicine are combined in effective way (Armstrong, Hansen & Gauthier 1991). However, nations have organized and classified their HPSC’s in many different ways (Digel et al 2006). This paper analyses the funding and legitimacy of the Finnish system of HPSC’s by asking following questions: What kind of strategies are the HPSC’s adopting in pursuit of gaining and maintaining their legitimacy? How does the public funding system of sport institutes support HPSC’s and development of elite sport in overall?

There is a wide range of more or less independent HPSC’s in Finland. Sport institutes (14) are the traditional and more institutionalized centers located mainly at rural areas, while the sport academies (19) are new network-kind centers with the main task to combine training and studying in cities (Mäkinen 2012). The main focus of this paper is on the sport institutes, which were established by sport federations in 1927-1977 to support their needs in education and training. Four sport institutes were named as national elite sport training centers already in 1987 and later in 2000 more detailed classification, with national and regional level centers, was created. Today sport institutes operate under the authority of the Ministry of Education and their main duty is related to education in the field of sports and physical exercise. In addition to this they are offering a wide range of services to the sport (HPSC), leisure and welfare sectors. It could be argued that sport institutes are operating in multiple, continuously changing environments, where the maintenance of legitimacy is a challenging task. The different legitimation strategies are analyzed according the model of Suchman (1995), who identifies three forms of legitimacy: pragmatic, moral and cognitive.

Methodology
Data from 14 sport institutes were gathered as part of evaluation project of the Finnish HPSC’s. The data included: 1) documents (annual report, strategies and plans of sport institutes including HPSC’s), 2) questionnaires to the managers of HPSC’s and elite sport managers of NGO’s 3) interviews with the managers of HPSC’s and the principals of the sport institutes. The state funding of sport institutes is based on the law of liberal civil education. The allocation of that state support to different domains of sport (youth sport, elite sport, adult mass sport and sport for special groups) is analyzed in years 2001-2010.

Results and discussion
The Finnish HPSC’s are part of the sport institutes. The legitimacy and funding of those centers has been unsolved issue for 25 years. Main reasons for that have been the policy of the state and the collapse of the sport movements in 1994. HPSC’s have not been recognized as official tasks of sport institutes by the Ministry of Education, which in turn influences to the funding of the centers. The annual turnover of all the institutes (14) in 2010 was 75 million Euros, which included 16 million Euros of state support to sport activities. The calculatory proportion of elite sport was only seven percent (1.1 m€) of the total support.

A major challenge within the fragmented Finnish sport system is that the core tasks and resources of elite sport are dispersed in several independent organizations. Finnish Olympic Committee, which has the main responsibility for developing and coordinating elite sports, doesn’t have resources or power to extend control to the operational level. In order to develop their elite sport activities, the independent sport institutes need to form partnerships with the National Sport Federations. Many of the federations don’t want to centralize their elite sport activities in one center. Instead they try to reduce the costs of elite sport by asking for bids from many centers to provide elite sport services.

References
The impact of development on recruitment strategies of football clubs

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Abstract keywords
Football Clubs, Recruitment Strategies, Football Academies, Transfer Market, Economic Development

Aim of paper
A firm invests in human capital by in-house training of its employees and/or by recruiting employees that have been trained by other firms. An interesting analogy can be drawn to the professional sports sector. A sports club may establish a youth academy to train its own players, and/or rely on the transfer market to recruit players trained by other clubs (Szymanski and Smith, 1997).

In European countries, most sports clubs employ both recruitment strategies. They operate a professional youth structure comprising of a variety of youth teams for different age categories to train their own players (Ferrari et al., 2009), and they hire players on the transfer market. Before 1995, transfer market recruitment was mainly organized through a network of agents and scouts operating on the (domestic) transfer market (Cornelissen and Solberg, 2007). From 1995 onwards, several court cases transformed the transfer market into an international one. Consequently, transfer market recruitment of foreign players accelerated.

A particular sports sector where clubs’ recruitment of foreign players has been strongly increasing over the past two decades is the football (soccer) sector. Unlike in other sports, recruitment of foreign players by European countries’ football clubs has been facilitated by the emergence of football academies in developing countries, predominantly in Africa and Latin America.

It has been argued that a motivation for establishing football academies in developing countries is that the training cost/quality ratio of football players is particularly favorable in these countries (Poli, 2006; Darby et al., 2007). This suggests that the economic development of the country where a club wants to recruit players from (the ‘origin country’) is an important factor that affects football clubs’ choice of recruitment strategy. However, this argument is only based on ad-hoc evidence. The goal of this paper is to develop a general theoretical model that allows analyzing the impact of an origin country’s economic development on the recruitment strategies of football clubs. In this way we aim to contribute to a better understanding of the economic rationale behind the establishment of football academies in Africa and Latin America by European countries’ football clubs.

Theoretical background
Some studies discuss the social and economic implications of player recruitment through the establishment of a football academy within their own club (e.g. Monk and Russell, 2000; Monk and Olsson, 2006; Ferrari et al., 2009) or through the establishment of partnerships with clubs or academies in developing countries (e.g. Darby et al., 2007). These studies lack any formal analysis. In contrast, economists do have paid some attention to modeling costs and benefits of player recruitment through the transfer market (e.g. Szymanski and Smith, 1997; Dobson and Gerrard, 1999, 2000; Bougheas and Downward, 2003).

Methodology
Our theoretical framework models the recruitment decisions of a football club which is assumed to have two potential recruitment channels available to source players from one particular origin country. The club may establish a football academy in that country and employ players trained in this academy, and/or the club may recruit players from this country through the regular transfer market. The quality of players recruited through the football academy depends on the size of the club’s investments in the academy’s football facilities, while the quality of players on the transfer market is fixed and observable from previous performances in football competitions. Taking into account the different costs and benefits of these recruitment strategies, the club decides on the fraction of players to recruit through its football academy and the quality of these players.

Results
First, we show that, because of the fixed costs of establishing a football academy, the equilibrium quality of players trained in the football academy differs from the quality of players available on the transfer market. Second, we show that if the fraction and quality of players recruited through the football academy are strategic substitutes (complements), the equilibrium quality of players trained in the football academy exceeds (falls below) the quality of players available on the transfer market. Third, we show that multiple conditions have to hold simultaneously for the origin country’s economic development to be either positively or negatively related to the equilibrium fraction of players recruited through the football academy.

References
An investigation into the potential for a higher education institute network to deliver sport science support services to sports in the UK

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Abstract key words:  
Service Provision, University Institutions, Elite Performance Programmes

Abstract body:  
There is uncertainty over the sporting landscape in the UK after the London 2012 Olympic Games as it is widely accepted that the current level of public investment will reduce to performance sport as of April 2013. The Talented Athlete Scholarship Scheme (TASS) is a government funded agency tasked with developing and supporting a network of athlete-friendly Universities that deliver support services for all levels of elite athletes, nominated by their sports, in further and higher education.

A joint research project as part of a Knowledge Transfer Partnership between TASS and Northumbria University; funded by TSB, ESRC and ONE aimed to assess the requirements of sports for support services based in Higher Education Institutes (HEIs) in the UK post-2012. A questionnaire was developed (containing 68 questions) and administered to appropriate individuals within summer and winter Olympic/Paralympic Sports (n=55). Northumbria University Ethics Committee approved the experimental design.

The results indicate that Quality of Service is the most important factor, with all sports ranking it as important when deciding on which service providers to use. Funding levels were a concern for 22% of sports (the 2nd highest ranked factor behind Quality) however only 20% felt that the current High Performance system was unsustainable.

69% of the NGBs indicated they thought they would use TASS services delivered through HEIs after 2012 and when directly asked how likely the NGB is to use a HEI Network to deliver to their athletes, 59% responded positively; whilst only 17% responded negatively.

In summary, a HEI network would need to provide a high quality service which was competitively priced in the market place amongst other providers. Sports are cautious due to funding uncertainty, but the majority would consider buying into support services from a HEI network as they see value in partnerships with HEIs to complement their performance programmes.
Experiences from the frontline of management for world class performance – working in the UK sport research & innovation team

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UK Sport’s Research & Innovation Team supports the top athletes and coaches in the British elite sport system, answering specific performance questions they are confronted with in their daily training or during competition (http://www.uksport.gov.uk/pages/research-innovation). Developing an effective elite sport focused research programme - basically from scratch and during the pressured buildup period Home Olympics bring with them - required the Research & Innovation Team to achieve a very steep learning curve. Having shared this journey for more than five years, the author will provide an overview of his experiences as well as some reflections in light of his own research background (Böhlke 2007, Böhlke and Robinson 2009).

In his presentation, the author will start by offering a brief overview of the current setup of the UK Sport Research & Innovation Programme as well as the specific ways of working the Research & Innovation Team developed over the years. This will then lead to a reflection of some key factors underpinning the setup of this programme as well as the Team’s ways of working: some of these factors are of a structural nature (e.g. available resource situation); others are more procedure-focused (e.g. effective project management processes); but the author will also highlight that some factors influencing the success of their work are actually more of a tacit nature (e.g. successful management of relationships).

Based on these reflections, and in light of the second target of the workshop (i.e. identifying future research agendas), the author will conclude his contribution with a discussion of potential future research approaches.

Disclaimer: The presented views and opinions are those of the author and might not reflect those of UK Sport.

References:
Workshop:

Sport policy the significance of government
Managing the civic activity by the results - economic impacts of the state’s result-based funding system in Finland

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Aim
The working paper will discuss the effects of the structural change of the Finnish sport movement and the corresponding implementation of the state’s result-based funding system. The data has gathered from the 15 largest national sport organizations (NSO) in Finland. Research questions are how the new funding system is received and adapted and what kind of courses of action it has favored. The paper will focus mainly on changes in NSO’s income structure.

The paper is based on research project carried out by five researchers between October 2010 and March 2012. The project was launched and financed by the Ministry of Culture and Education. The research report of the project will be published in Finnish May 2012 by the National Sports Council. (The writer of this abstract is the leader of the project.)

Theoretical background
The major outcome of reform of the Finnish sport movement in the early 1990’s was the establishment of the domains. The domains are:
1. children’s and youth sport and physical activities
2. competitive and top sport
3. recreational and health-related physical activities (adult sport)
4. sport for special groups
5. school and student sport.

These domains are run by their own independent domain organisations like Young Finland in children’s and youth sport. Each National Sports Organisation (NSO) is expected to recognize these domains or groups of sport participants and to reorganise their activities along these domains. This partly egalitarian idea was strengthened when the state revised the grounds of its sports appropriations for NSOs. New system was grounded on a result-based funding in which the result areas followed mainly the domain areas. The achieved level of physical activity became the key result. It was measured by the numbers of participants in each result area. The main emphasis was on the results achieved in children’s and youth sport: fifty percent of the total subsidies were distributed according to them. The system is still in effect with some minor changes.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The research material consists firstly of economical reports NSOs have to deliver to the Ministry of Education and Culture yearly. Years of analysis are 1997, 2001, 2005 and 2009. Secondly, six executive managers have been personally interviewed considering their views of the result-based management system.

So far, the results that the national sport organizations have achieved in different result areas have been evaluated based on measured physical activity or total number of licenses of certain sport. This information has been collected mainly by surveys. This method of evaluation has raised discussion, since the role of the NSOs in arranging actual possibilities for physical activity is markedly smaller than the role of local sport clubs. In addition, the vertical link between local and national level has become weaker. Hence we can question whether the level of physical activity result is an outcome of the efforts made by national level sport organizations. For this reason, we focused in this study more on NSOs economical investments in different result areas. This was possible since the ministry has demanded NSOs report their incomes and expenses by result areas yearly.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
In their interviews present NSOs executives indicated their indifference towards the aims of the state’s result based funding. Also the analysis of NSOs financial investments in different result areas confirmed that the NSOs were not following the emphasis set by the state for each result area between years 2001-2009. However there was a clear rise of investments in youth sport between years 1997-2001. Also earlier studies (Koski & Heikkala 1998, 172–173) seem to indicate that the result-based funding system had the largest influence just before its implementation in 1995. One source of the prevailing “arrogance” of the NSOs against result-based funding system lies on their diminished dependency of state subsidies. NSOs have been successful in their efforts to raise the share of their own incomes while the state subsidies have been almost static. The economical analysis shows especially high raises in license, member and sport event incomes whereas sponsorship, media and other (external) commercial incomes have risen modestly. In practice, this can be seen as higher member fees, which the NSO executives justified this rise mainly by more professional services. This clearly implies that in the NSOs views, members are increasingly also customers. In their interviews, they also contrasted hard and fluctuating (external) fund raising with more permanent (internal) incomes collected from their loyal members and sport participants. The paper will discuss in the framework of welfare economics, whether this way of action is diminishing the consumption of sport as a positive externality.

References
A realist approach to policy evaluation for London 2012 Olympic legacies in a non-hosting region: a pilot study – an evaluation of the workplace challenge programme

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Abstract keywords: Olympic legacy, realist evaluation, logic model

Abstract
Hosting the Olympics has been seen as a catalyst that would bring about positive changes in the host city and country. As a result, there has been a burgeoning set of studies that addresses the issues and legacies generated by the Olympics, with a particular focus on the host city. However, in the literature, there is a dearth of materials that specifically tackle the Olympic legacies for non-hosting regions. Furthermore, there has been a growing concern to evaluate the impacts of programmes / initiatives for many aspects of social policy (see e.g. Sallis, Bauman & Pratt, 1998; Rossi, Freeman, & Lipsey, 1999), and this has been more recently reflected in sport policy (such as Cavill, Foster, Oja, & Martin, 2006). The critical question for policy analysis that remains is why an initiative/programme has ‘worked’ in one particular context but not another. “What works for whom in what circumstances” is the central notion of the Realist Evaluation (RE) developed by Pawson and Tilley (1997). So far, as a promising contribution to the literature on theory-driven evaluation, the RE approach has not yet been widely applied in sport policy.

This study aims to evaluate and monitor the legacies of the London 2012 Games for a non-hosting region, i.e. Leicestershire (located 100 miles north of London). A number of legacy programmes/initiatives have been implemented to deliver the legacy vision across Leicestershire, and evaluated in this research. A piloting case study – an evaluation of the Workplace Challenge Programme (WCP) – had been completed at this early stage. It assessed the impacts of this intervention on regional sport and physical activity (PA) participation. In particular, it also aimed to tease out to what extent outcomes are additional to to that which would have happened anyway, if the Games had not come to the UK. The WCP is an intervention developed by the LeicesterShire-Rutland County Sport Partnership to increase participation in sport and PA to staff in Leicestershire workplaces. The design and delivery of the WCP in 2011 was largely a product of concern that obesity levels were rising across Leicestershire and that insufficient numbers of population were participating in the recommended 150 minutes a week of sport and PA.

The first phase of the research analysis was to develop a thorough understanding of the WCP approach and its intended outcomes, by developing an analytic logic model which spelled out the anticipated relationships between inputs, throughputs, outputs and outcomes, and the causal logic which underpins those anticipated relationships. Preliminary discussion with key policy actors about the extent to which the existence of the programme could be directly attributed to the Games has suggested that it was not an Olympics 2012 related initiative. Therefore, the focus of the evaluation in terms of assessing additionality of the London 2012 Games had shifted to whether the Games boosted interests and thus the level of outputs. Using a range of techniques, including qualitative semi-structured interviews, a quantitative survey, documentary analysis, and key stakeholder consultation, evidence emergent from the programme-level evaluation was then employed to help to identify the mechanisms producing desired changes in behaviours and related policy outcomes, and thus to assess the additionality.

The evaluation results (will be more fully developed in the presentation) demonstrated that the WCP represented a successful approach to encourage engagement with a regular sport and PA, as there was a significant increase in the percentage of participants achieving the recommended amount of participation in sport and PA from 34% at registration to 47% by those who completed the post survey evaluation. It was also evident from survey studies and reinforced in interviewees’ responses that the WCP helped to bring up social and psychological benefits, such as fostering social conversation between colleagues, meeting new people, feeling ‘fitter’ and ‘happier’ etc. In terms of the element of additionality, the fact that the London Games were coming to the UK had little direct influence on decisions to participate in the programme. Nevertheless, it has been reported that the Games did encourage participants to sustain and try different sports. The conclusions point to some of the lessons learned for future policies, as well as the improvements which might be made to the 2012 WCP, and the implications for outcome-oriented evaluations.

Reference
Sport policy in all spheres of the society

Author: Poul Broberg
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1. Aim of abstract
Sport Policy cannot be restricted to take part in the smallest government ministry or being handled by the minister lowest in the ministerial hierarchy. Sport Policy must fight for its right to be considered as an important policy tool in nearly all aspects of the government policy. To be regarded as such Sports Policy must be developed in mainly three areas being: Content, evidence and its ability to lobby professionally among government ministers and parliamentarians.

The aim of this abstract is to explain how the National Olympic Committee and Sports Confederation of Denmark has worked with content, evidence and upgrading of its lobby efforts in order to strengthen the position of Danish sport in government policy.

2. Practice description
Using a new political program named “Sport for All”, The National Olympic Committee and Sports Confederation of Denmark has launched initiatives directed at content, evidence and upgrading of its lobby efforts

- Content
Sport is often said to be able to contribute positively to policies focused at education, integration, environment and health. Seen from the NOC of Denmark’s perspective sport has not been good enough to maximize its influence on these selected areas because sport has been too preoccupied with including education in sports policy instead of working for that sports policy will be included in education policy. It is the ambition of the NOC of Denmark that our fundamental sports policy “Sport for All” the coming two years shall be supplemented by concrete policy proposals concentrating on selected areas, where it is identified that sport can contribute to secure the objectives in an overall government policy, which has a much wider target group than is the case of the specific sports policy.

- Evidence
An upgraded sports policy is a policy, which is able to be evidence based by backing the policy proposals and recommendations with statistics, analyzes and scientific papers. Sometimes it even seems like sport is afraid of stepping into the path of evidence, because this path could prove all the festive speeches of sports abilities wrong. But the steps of evidence are necessary if sport shall extend its contribution and influence on the development of the society in the long run.
- Professionalizing the lobby work
If Sports Policy shall get out of its niche, Sports organizations must start to use the same methods in lobbying as are being seen in other branches? This means being closer to more ministers than the one having the responsibility for sport. Being close to more parliamentarians than the spokespersons for sport. Developing its network among professionals in most government ministries and among political party professionals.

The first step to take is getting more knowledge of the parliamentarian’s attitudes and views on sport policy. This was the step taken by the NOC of Denmark before the general election in September 2011; the NOC asked all +700 candidates six questions on sports policy.

3. Context description, actors involved
The context is the parliamentary elections in Denmark in September 2011 and the formation of a new Danish government, where sports can start from zero, when it comes to get more accept and acknowledge of sports policy’s opportunities and positive contributions to parts of the government policy related to health, education, environment, growth and employment.

The actors involved are The National Olympic Committee of Denmark, all parliamentarian candidates for the Danish parliamentary election in 2011, government ministers and the political party’s spokespersons for health, education, environment, growth and employment.

4. Implications and learnings
Sport has still a lot to learn from the more experienced interest organizations in industry, education, banking or health. The learning is especially imminent, when it comes to the following areas in the lobbying for sports influence on the political agenda:

- More evidence based approaches, when sport wants to set the agenda that is a little away from the usual sports policy sphere.
- More analysis and statistics, which can underline concrete political proposals in areas like health, education, employment and growth
- Broader networks among political parties and politicians in order to take advantage of contact to politicians, who are important spokespersons in fields as finance, taxes and education.

The implication is that sport need to play at the same political lobbying level as other lobbying organizations are doing from other industries, if sport wants to extend the influence to more spheres of the society, than where sports policy and sports organizations are used to be present and exercise their influence.
In from the margins and back again? Reflections on the political salience of youth sport policy in Britain

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Abstract keywords
Policy, Politics, Youth Sport

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
This paper examines some key policy issues associated with the decision, in October 2010, of the Conservative-led Coalition government in Britain to withdraw funding for the national infrastructure of School Sport Partnerships, which had attracted over £2 billion of investment since 2002, and to replace this with approximately £126 million to support the creation of a new School Games initiative.

Theoretical background or literature review*
Drawing on aspects of the figurational sociological approach of Norbert Elias (Elias, 1978), the paper discusses the ways in which the School Games has enabled government to re-prioritise competitive sport as a key policy objective for youth sport, whilst marginalizing other policy goals and interests more explicitly associated with physical education. In doing so, particular attention is drawn to the significance of the unintended outcomes that have emanated from the differential power relations characteristic of youth sport policy figurations.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The paper draws on publically available pronouncements (e.g. government minutes, media reports, policy documents) to examine the policy decisions taken by the British government in relation to its decision to withdraw funding for School Sport Partnerships and replace it with monies intended to support the launch of the School Games.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions**
Despite the apparent commitment to youth sport as expressed in the inauguration of the School Games and the publication in 2012 of the youth sport strategy, Creating a Sporting Habit for Life (DCMS, 2012), there is currently little evidence of strong political commitment to youth sport per se beyond a vague, convenient, and largely symbolic association with the London 2012 Olympic and Paralympic games. Instead, it is suggested that the political interest in, and salience of, youth sport has been stimulated largely by non-sport decisions taken by a coalition of actors in broader, generally more powerful, policy sectors such as education. It is tentatively concluded that these developments in youth sport policy can be interpreted as evidence of a gradual trend towards policy-taking from wider agendas, and of the beginnings of policy making processes in which non-sport-specific objectives may increasingly coming to dominate the direction of future sport policy.

References – limited to 5
- Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) (2012). Creating a sporting habit for life. London: DCMS.
Planning of sports facilities - The Ringsted Case

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Abstract keywords
Sports science, sports facilities, network governance theory, decision-making, implementation

Theoretical background
Danish sports policy is characterized by a clear division of responsibility between government and municipality. While the government is responsible for the economy of the national organizations, the municipalities have the primary responsibility for local sports activities and sports facilities. Another characteristic of sports policy in Danish municipalities is the perception that the municipality must create the settings that the local sports clubs then should fill in without intervention by the municipality. And the municipal subsidy to sports goes mainly to establishing and maintaining sports facilities (about 90% of the municipal expenses to sport in general are consumed by sports facilities) (Ibsen, 2008).

Even though the role of government in Danish sports policy historically has been seemingly unobtrusive and consensus-seeking, there are signs of the old corporative structures between the local sports clubs and the municipalities are being replaced with other kinds of networks (partnerships, less formal networks and often put together for the specific occasion). In a long historical perspective the roles of the local sports clubs and the municipalities are thus going through considerable transformation processes in regard to the planning of sports facilities and how they are being managed (Bergsgard & Norberg, 2010).

This research project is part of a PhD-project put through in four Danish municipalities: Høje-Taastrup, Ringsted, Slagelse and Syddjurs. The purpose of the PhD-project is to attain knowledge about the correlation between sports facilities and participation in sports and physical exercise. The empirical part of the PhD-project includes:
1) a mapping of all sports facilities in the four municipalities,
2) an analysis of the changes of the sports facilities in Ringsted Municipality (1980-present), and
3) a study of children’s and adults participation in physical exercise and sports, which localities is used and peoples position and wants toward these localities.

Aim of abstract
Within the field of sport management the role of government is evident as a regulator of the sport sector environment and as an actor in the distribution and redistribution of publicly controlled resources e.g. sports facilities. However, there is still a relative shortage of analyses of the motives for government intervention and the consequences of the enacted sport policies.

This analysis therefore aims to shed light on the changes in sports facilities from 1980 to today, and what can explain these changes. The analysis will focus on two competing hypotheses. The first is that the development of sports facilities is the result of the (changing) needs and interests of sport and exercise participation has undergone, i.e. a relatively rational decision given by the citizen’s interests and desires (logic of consequentiality). The competing theory is that the expansion is more a result of the present dominant organizational and institutional interests (especially sports), interaction with other interests (e.g. local interests) and the dominant idea of sport (sports discourse or the logic of appropriateness).

Research question
How did Ringsted Municipality conduct their policy in regard to the changes in sports facilities from 1980 and up to today?
- Which actors were involved in the decisions – and which networks do they participate in?
- How did the actors influence the decision process?
- Who acted as meta-governor and how?

Methodical approach
This part of the study is limited to Ringsted Municipality. Firstly, the mapping of the sports facilities in Ringsted Municipality will be compared with a corresponding mapping of the sports facilities in the same municipality, which was done in 1980 (Jespersen & Riiskjær, 1980) whereby an assessment of development for 30 years can be made. Secondly, the analysis of adults’ sports participation in the same municipality in 1980 will be used as a basis for evaluating the degree to which this knowledge on sport participation was used in the development of sports facilities. Thirdly, selected sports facilities in the municipality, which has been build since 1980, are examined to clarify the interests and desires (logic of consequentiality). The analysis is made from a governance perspective. Both the sociological organization and interdependence theoretic approach to governance networks are expected as valuable contributions to the analysis.

Theoretical approach
The analysis is made from a governance perspective. Both the sociological organization and interdependence theoretic approach to governance networks are expected as valuable contributions to the analysis.
Results
Data is currently being collected and results will be available by the time of the conference.

References
Public steering of privately owned sports facilities

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Analysis of how the public sector in the most efficient manner can steer different public institutions has been comprehensive. However this has not been the case regarding sports facilities, which are surprising in a Danish context when you look at the scope and scale of the public funds, paid to sports facilities. The public sector in Denmark uses more than 400.000.000 EURO on supporting sports facilities and more than 80 % of the funds used by Danish Municipalities on the field of sport is used to sports facilities. Furthermore the number of registered sports facilities is more than 3600 - more than the number of public school and day care institutions in total.

The aim is to analyse how different ways of steering can support sports facilities in general and especially sports facilities in sparsely populated areas. Due to the financial crisis and a rise on the public budgets due to demographic changes the possibilities of municipalities to support sports facilities in sparsely populated areas declining. The ambition is to develop knowledge and models that can be used to develop better public steering of privately owned sports facilities.

The project will contribute to new knowledge to general research in public administration but will especially contribute to expand the knowledge about how municipalities can steer sports facilities in an efficient manner.

Little attention has so far been paid to how municipalities can heighten the efficiency of how they use their funds when it comes to sports facilities. The research question is on that background: “Which advantages and drawback does different methods of steering privately owned sports facilities result in when the aim is to achieve high percentage of usage and efficiency”

High percentage of usage is defined as number of users and the percentage of sports court in use. Efficiency is defined as percentage of usage seen in relation to the amount of public funds invested. Furthermore, efficiency is also the ability of the sports facility to attract funding from other sources than the public sector.

Theoretically the project draws on: a) Marketization [Ejersbo and Greve, 2008], b) Communitarianism [Ståhlberg, 1998] and c) Budget theory [Christiansen et al, 2008]. However it is necessary to adapt these theories to the logics which is present in the field of privately owned sports facilities. Many of these are based on voluntary efforts when they are built, when they are managed, when a voluntary board controls them and when they are maintained (Ibsen and Habermann, 2006).

Methodologically the project will be based on case studies of 6 privately owned sports facilities in the Municipality of Faaborg-Midtfyn after a new steering model based on marketization and communitarianism has been implemented. Since the new steering model has been implemented on January 1st 2012 it is possible to measure the effect of this change. This development is compared with 3 privately owned municipalities in the Municipality of Aalborg where the steering model hasn’t changed.

The theoretical expectations are that marketization will have an effect on the percentage of usage and efficiency. However the effects of the changes in steering model will be even stronger when marketization is paired with the communitarian approach. Finally no change is expected in the municipality of Aalborg. Furthermore it is expected that sports facilities in sparsely populated areas will have more difficulties in attracting revenue from other sources than the public sector due to the limited market in those areas.

In weeks 9 and 13 in both 2012 and 2014 the percentage of usage is measured. This is done by self-report and is validated through the use of Thermal Cameras to check whether the self-report corresponds with the activity measured with the Thermal Cameras.

In the quest for validating and developing causal theories facility managers, board members and local sports organizations will be interviewed in two rounds: a first time in the autumn of 2012 and then again in 2014.

The paper to be presented at the EASM conference in Aalborg will consist of a further elaboration of the theoretical and methodological foundation for the project. Finally the results of the first round of self-report from weeks 9 and 13 2012 and validation of these self-report through the use of Thermal Cameras will be presented.

**References:**
The politics of sport regulation and policy in post-apartheid South Africa – paradoxes of global and community imperatives

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Introducing the 2011 National Sport Conference, the National Sports Minister averred that many strategies to transform sport in post-Apartheid South Africa had failed. This included racial transformation, policy formulation and was evident in the relative lack of success by South African athletes and teams. He argued that the lack of a strategy and the failure of developing a single “developmental theory for post-apartheid South Africa” were key paradigmatic shortcomings in both policy and implementation. In response, the development of new policy and strategies for implementation are currently subject to vigorous deliberation throughout civil society and government sport institutions. The current National Sports Plan (2011), for instance, is being presented as a national “strategy (shifting) from policy to action”. Nonetheless, these debates are not new. In 2005 and in 2010, the South African Sports Ministry lamented that it was inconceivable that after nearly two decades of democracy, contestation over sport transformation and development remained the most vexing and divisive issue for post-apartheid sport.

In this paper I examine post-apartheid sport strategies and policies, critically assessing the increasing tension and contestation between elite and community sport, highlighting the way in which unresolved tensions between global and local imperatives have deepened inequalities in post-apartheid sport rather than mitigated them. The paper will explore the factors that influenced national post-apartheid sport objectives, and the ways in which global interest groups shaped the local policy discourse. I will argue that an acceptance of global imperatives by the post-apartheid South African government has shaped sport policy and strategy in ways that are often detrimental to community sport and civil society sport organizations at the local level. During 1990, international sports bodies such as the International Olympic Committee pressurized South African sports bodies to reintegrate into international sport, undermining the calls by local sport activist organizations to focus on complex post-apartheid realities such as reconstituting sport institutions and redistributing scarce resources. Over the ensuing decade, pressure intensified on national sport institutions to embrace global changes and commit to an elite and increasingly global sport discourse. I explore the ways in which these tensions, contestations, discontinuities and contradictions influenced South African sport policy, institutions and resource distribution at community levels in particular. I critique state centered post-apartheid sport discourses that have privileged international and elite competition, to the detriment of community sport between 1990 and the present.

Conceptually, I locate my analysis within a Foucauldian governmentality framework (Foucault 1991), focusing on the field of power and its negotiations at global and national level. I focus on the way in which the post-apartheid South African state negotiated these influences in shaping the post-apartheid sport policy agenda at local level (Houlihan 2009). Focusing on power relations and governmentality assists in critically assessing the ways in which the South African government continues to shape the policy agenda, rhetoric and delimits and subordinates the roles of various institutions and actors in a global and local context. Building on analysis by Sam and Jackson (2004) in the context of New Zealand, I assess the paradox inherent to South African sport policy, specifically the policy conundrum between the need for centralized government agency and action that often occurs at the expense of empowered, but ultimately fragmented civil society institutions at the community scale. A qualitative methodology was employed focusing on critical engagement with policy documents and in-depth interviews with 18 national and local sports policy practitioners, exploring the tensions highlighted above.

References:
Whose story counts? The place of sport discourse in relations between north and South Korea from 1978-1997

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Abstract keywords
Sport, North and South Korea, Olympics, Nationalism, International Relations, discourse analysis

Introduction – Research Aims and Background Literature
This paper undertakes a critical historical analysis of the discourses of N.Korea and S.Korea in their interaction in relation to sport as evidenced in their media. The aim is to provide an account of the changes in the government’s role in the global sports movement played in the debate between two Koreas. The political debate is bound up with a specific set of discourses of N.Korea and S.Korea in their interaction in the context of inter-Korean policy, sport relations, and how such ‘domestic’ policy is bound up with the circumstances or dominant structures of international relations (IR).

The focus of the paper is on the decades before and after the Seoul Games. It addresses the role which the sport discourse in relations between the two Koreas. The political debate is bound up with a specific set of discourses of N.Korea and S.Korea in their interaction in relation to sport as evidenced in their media. The aim is to provide an account of the changes in the government’s role in the global sports movement played in the debate between two Koreas. The political debate is bound up with a specific set of discourses of N.Korea and S.Korea in their interaction in the context of inter-Korean policy, sport relations, and how such ‘domestic’ policy is bound up with the circumstances or dominant structures of international relations (IR).

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Methodology, research design and data analysis
This constructivist approach draws on Fairclough’s approach to critical discourse analysis (CDA). CDA was administered to press reports of North and South sport relations with the articles of No-Dong (N. Korea) and Dong-A (S. Korea), from 1 January 1978 to 31 December 1997 for two decades. Those contents which related to inter-Korean sport relations were subject to analysis, and these related to specific international sport events which involved intensive diplomatic activity and commentary namely: the 35th World Table Tennis Championship in Pyung Yang; the 1980 Moscow Olympic Games; the 1984 LA Olympic Games; the 1986 Seoul Asian Games, the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games, the 1990 Beijing Asian Games, the 1992 Barcelona Olympic Games and two additional events which received relatively less significant treatment in the

References
Workshop:

London 2012 success and failure of national elite sport policies
The Swiss elite sport system – striving for excellence

Authors: Marco Stopper & Andreas Ch. Weber
Institution: Swiss Federal Institute of Sports Magglingen SFISM

Background
Since the establishment of the Federal Office of Sports FOSPO in 1998, the state adjusted and clarified its role by defining strategic areas of activity within the Swiss sport system. Digel, H., Burk, V. & Fahner, M. (2006) as well as Houlihan, B. & Green, M. (2008) used different approaches to compare elite sport systems of nations. The international comparative study 2011-2012 by the SPUISS Consortium offered a tested and evaluated 9 Pillar Model, developed by De Bosscher et al. (2008) with established instruments, to benchmark the Swiss elite sport system.

Objectives
The overall sports policy inventory aims to offer a structured overview of the Swiss sports policy with particular focus on the strengths and weaknesses of the system. The elite sports climate surveys assess the areas of improvement from the perspective of the different stakeholders. The project aims to support decision-makers in the Swiss elite sport to improve the elite sport climate and to reach a higher effectiveness of the nationwide support. The stakeholders participated actively in the review process: the communication between the different players has been forced in order to facilitate the implementation of future measures for improvement.

Method
A national project team has been established to coordinate the data collection by the Swiss Federal Institute of Sports Magglingen SFISM, involving the Federal office of Sports FOSPO, and the Swiss Olympic Association SOA. The two data collecting instruments have been adapted to the elite sport system in Switzerland and translated into 3 languages. An online survey has been put in place to survey the athletes, coaches and performance directors. In order to improve the response rate of the elite athletes, meetings with national teams were arranged. To collect the data of the overall sports inventory, experts for each Critical Success Factor (CSF) have been interviewed. Interviews with senior officials have been conducted subsequently to validate the collected data and to determine the strengths and weaknesses of each pillar. The sample of 1158 athletes, 677 elite coaches and 58 performance directors has been defined. The results of the surveys enable to prioritize the need for action within the elite sport system.

Results
Some main preconditions to understand the Swiss elite sport system are crucial. Switzerland has a deep rooted federalist, basic democratic tradition, which influences the structures and the organization of its elite sport system. Hence the elite sport system grew organically. In the Swiss elite sport system the operative responsibilities are historically and culturally rooted in the private sector (SOA and National Governing Bodies), while for strategic decisions also the public sector represented by the FOSPO is involved. In general, the acceptance and understanding of “excellence” in elite sport is rather poor by the Swiss population.

By completing the overall sports inventory of the Swiss elite sport system, the strengths and weaknesses of each pillar have been recognized. Some areas of activity resulted well developed (organization, participation, coach training and competition), while in others a room for improvement became evident (finance, athletes support and scientific research).

The response rates of the surveys resulted very high: athletes (n=776), coaches (n=366) and performance directors (n=41). They show a very consistent view on the areas of investment, which have to be improved. The athletes ranked the “Financial support for (elite) sport” with 75% as one of the three main areas with the highest room for improvement. Followed by “(Elite) sports culture” (35%) and “(training) infrastructure” (33%). The coaches ranked “Financial support for (elite) sport” with 71% as well in the first place, followed by “(Elite) sports culture” 50%, while they identified as third major area of improvement the “Talent identification & development” with 35% of mentions in the first three places. The performance directors replicate however perfectly the results of the athletes: 81% “Financial support for (elite) sport”, 49% “(Elite) sports culture” and 44% “(training) infrastructure”.

The findings suggest the need to establish transparency in the financial flows in the Swiss elite sport system. The (Elite) sports culture has to be encouraged as well as a complete career guidance and long term athletes support provided. The clubs, as main carriers of competitive sport, have to be assisted in the further development and professionalization in line with their needs.

Conclusion
The results of the elite sport climate survey support the findings of the overall sports inventory. Furthermore the surveys emphasize and set priorities to the investment areas which need to be improved most from a primary affected point of view in order to stay focused and reach “excellence”.

References
Success driver in the Japanese elite sport system: an examination based on evaluations of the elite sport climate by elite athletes

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Aim of abstract/paper and theoretical background
In recent years, many countries have adopted the elite sport system framework first developed in the former Soviet Union and former East Germany, which itself was developed against the political background of these countries’ attempts to spread an ideology (Green and Houlihan, 2005; Bergsgard et al., 2007; Hill, 2007). While the elite sport system is made up of an infrastructure and practices to improve a country’s international sporting competitiveness (Houlihan and Green, 2008; Böhlik and Robinson, 2009), the elite sport climate refers to “the social and organisational environment that provides the circumstances in which athletes can develop into elite sport athletes and can continue to achieve at the highest levels in their branch of sport” (van Bottenburg, 2000). In short, the elite sport climate is a subconcept within the elite sport system, and it can also refer to the competition environment surrounding athletes that is created by the elite system. De Bosscher et al. (2008; 2009) conducted a survey on elite sport climate of elite athletes and elite coaches, who are deemed to be the primary users of the elite sport system, in order to evaluate items that are difficult to measure objectively and quantitatively. Therefore it is possible to examine the success factors in elite sport by evaluating the elite sport climate from the viewpoint of the consumer of the elite sport system (De Bosscher et al., 2009). The aim of this research was to examine policy-related success drivers of Japanese elite sport system by conducting an evaluation of the elite sport climate with Japanese elite athletes as the survey subjects (n=105). The subanalysis investigated which specific policy-related factors describe difference between medallist (Elite $\alpha$) and non-medallist (Elite $\beta$). This suggests that elite athletes with a higher level of achievement are less satisfied with the ‘scientific research’ climate.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The questionnaires were administered by mail and at athlete group survey. A total of 155 questionnaires were sent to Japanese elite athletes (selected by few criteria) belonging to those NGBs that agreed to co-operate with the survey and 105 were returned, giving a response rate of 69.5%. The survey items pertained to basic attributes and the elite sport climate. For elite athletes to evaluate the elite sport climate, 21 Critical Success Factors (CSFs) associated with 7 pillars (‘organisation and structure of sport policies’, ‘talent identification and development system’, ‘athletic & post-career support’, ‘training facilities’, ‘coaching provision & coach development’, ‘(inter)national competition’, ‘scientific research’) were selected from the 126 CSFs in 9 elite sport policy pillars that had been extracted by specialists in elite sport policies in various countries (known as the SPLISS Consortium); moreover, an overall evaluation scale for the elite sport climate was used. Each pillar’s evaluation score was calculated based on “the scoring system (De Bosscher et al., 2009; 2010), a method to calculate a single score by compiling the measurement items for each pillar. The subjects were classified into Elite $\alpha$ and Elite $\beta$ and a t-test of the independent sample was conducted, with an overall evaluation of the elite sport climate as the dependent variable and sporting achievements as the independent variable. Finally, the scoring system was used to calculate each pillar’s score for both Elite $\alpha$ and Elite $\beta$.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
The result showed that the elite sport climate was very well maintained for the evaluation items of ‘talent identification and development system’, ‘athletic support’, ‘training facilities’, and ‘coaching provision and coach development’, and these items could be considered to be policy-related success drivers in the Japanese elite sport system. In contrast, the elite sport climate was not adequately maintained in terms of ‘post career support’, and this item could be regarded as an underdeveloped area. The subanalysis revealed that there was no correlation between athletes’ overall evaluation of the elite sport climate and the winning of medals at international competitions, which suggested that the elite sport climate for Elite $\alpha$ and Elite $\beta$ are maintained to the same standard. Furthermore, on analysing the differences in evaluation in each pillar according to sporting achievements, it was found that Elite $\alpha$ evaluated ‘scientific research’ lower than Elite $\beta$. This suggests that elite athletes with a higher level of achievement are less satisfied with the ‘scientific research’ climate.

References – limited to 5
Organizational structure of Brazilian elite sport

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Keywords: organization, centralization, elite sport

Aim: The aim of this research is to understand how national organizations are structured to develop the elite sport in Brazil.

Theoretical Background: In several countries, the organization and structure of sport policies, as well as their implementation and control are made through programs developed by government or national sports institutions, which aim to develop the sport in the whole country (Green & Oakley, 2001, Digel, 2002a, Houlihan & Green, 2008). Recent researches show that the centralization (management by one institution) of decisions and actions, as well as a clearer understanding of each organization’s tasks are key points to lead a country to achieve international sport success (De Bosscher, De Knop, Shibli, Van Bottenburg & Bingham 2009).

Methodology: The actions carried out by the national government and institutions responsible for the national elite sport development were analyzed. The analysis has been based on the Pillar 2 from SPILL model – (Sports Policies Leading to Sport Success), as proposed by De Bosscher, De Knop, Van Bottenburg, Shibli, and Bingham (2009). The present study is descriptive.

Information was obtained by analyzing documents and the literature, from the identification of resources available in libraries, online search engines (Pubmed, Medline and Scopus) and scientific journals. Legal and institutional documentary sources in websites of government agencies (Ministry of Sport) and sports entities (Brazilian Olympic Committee and National Governing Bodies) were also analyzed.

Results: The organization of Brazilian elite sport can be divided in two axis. The first axis includes National Olympic Committee (NOC), National Governing Bodies (NGBs), Governing Bodies (Federations) and Clubs, sporting associations, and municipal clubs. The second axis includes the Ministry of Sports, the National Secretariat of Elite Sports, Municipal and State Secretariats of sports. The tasks of each organization are: Ministry of Sport (National secretariat of elite sports) - Responsible for building up a national policy on sport and developing the elite sport; NOC - Responsible for developing Olympic sports nationally; Municipal and State Secretariats of sports - Responsible for developing elite sport at regional level; NGBs - Responsible for developing each sport nationally; Governing Bodies (Federations) - Responsible for developing each sport regionally; Clubs, sport associations and municipal government - They develop elite sport locally.

Discussion and conclusion: The country carries out actions focused on the development of elite sport derived from the NOC and the Ministry of Sports. However, we it has been verified that there are a number of isolated actions. Although some these actions are similar, they do not follow centralized guidelines. Furthermore, there is communication among the Ministry of Sports and NOC, but it is limited financial resources transfers issues. According to Green and Oakley (2001) and De Bosscher, De Knop, Van Bottenburg; Shibli, and Bingham., (2009) the overlap of tasks jeopardize the national polices for the development of sport nationally. In addition, there is a communication among NOC, NGBs and State governing bodies (federations), but it is insufficient to the organization of a national-regional sports network because the communication is restricted to the financial funds. In many countries which have international sport success, like China and Australia, the national sport program is implemented and coordinated by a national organization and achieve all levels of sports organizations.

Finally, clubs, sport associations and municipal government are responsible indeveloping elite sport locally, and, according to Meira (2011), these organizations are the main responsible ones for the development of elite athletes, because the programs and projects from NOC and Ministry of Sports do not achieve the primarily proposed goals.

References:
SPLISS as an instrument for the evaluation of elite sport policy
The case of Portugal

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Keywords: Sport policy, experimental design, data collection, Elite Performance, athletes, sport national government bodies, sport development

Aim of the paper
The aim of this paper is to broadly describe, interpret and assess the political national impact of an international Project – SPLISS – in Portugal. We consider that anytime we get to involve governmental administrative bodies so they are available to participate in a research project we will achieve better results; the reason of this is viewed as innovation in common work practices and transmit a new self esteem component for a huge amount of people that work with several governments and different political orientation.

Literature
We broadly follow the literature for the initial SPLISS (Sport Policy Factors Leading to International Sporting Success) proposal [De Bosscher, V. et al., 2008; Green & Houlihan, 2005]. The complementary literatures is mostly Portuguese, in order to cover past works and attempts to contribute for national sport policies. This is the case of a website where we got two notes on the subject (Forum Olímpico de Portugal); one is the Castejon (1973) concept of “sport level” – ratio between elite athletes and the total number of athletes. This is also a concept used in SPLISS for the overall report comparing countries’ performance in the sample. We already knew there were no published sport data but for number of clubs, the number of organised federations athletes and the local authority expenses in sports (Carvalho and Nunes, 2012).

Methodology – database
In fact sport numbers (data) are not abundant in the country, meaning the policy is conducted by instinct or feelings of the officials in charge, changing each time the government changes. Good sportive results happen most of the times in individual sports (athletics) or professional collective (soccer). International comparisons are very important and we had to discover an efficient process to get good indicators.

The recent elected government announced they were committed to reorganize data and national government sport bodies. We thought this was an excellent opportunity to ask for a meeting and start an experimental interventional approach for research. SPLISS project was critical in order to book that meeting; when we presented the SPLISS team as our research background this pulled politicians to understand the importance of being within this international Project. We got the involvement of the Secretary of State for Youth and Sports and all the process was implemented in all the other important administrative bodies such as the National Institute for Sports and the Olympic Committee with their intense collaboration.

Results – discussion
Although we individually started the data collection in October 2011, writing and calling to the public mail and phone numbers, only with a personal involvement and staying in Lisbon we could reach all the 9 pillars queries completed by the national staff in charge. We got 150 out of 500 athletes questionnaires; 23 out of 48 coaches and 12 out of 30 Olympic National Government Bodies. The information was considered by the administrative staff very interesting, mostly:

1. to inform policy makers and researchers about international policy developments in an increasingly competitive environment; and to allow participating nations to benchmark themselves against other competitive rivals. [SPLISS goal]
2. to develop an instrument that can be used by policy makers to evaluate the effectiveness of elite sport policies; to refine a theoretical model of the sport policy factors leading to international sporting success; and to improve the methodological approach for making international comparisons. [SPLISS goal].

In this sense we consider we achieve an important goal of mobilization of administrative staff. However, we feel this impact will be very fragile and quickly lost because the whole “administrative machine” is not prepared to internalize this work culture and will let data to be out of date in a year. This raises the need to involve the government in next times so it becomes accountable for the future and be able to establish innovative practices. Universities, Army, Police and National guards have no special contribute for sports policy in general. We intend to develop a methodology to follow up this starting point in the next days, discussing a lot of unfilled fields in the questionnaires and finding out a way to sustain the monitoring process.

SPLISS final results will be presented at EASM Conference; data collection and discussion will take till the end of April 2012.

References
London 2012: recent trends in the international competitiveness of national elite sport systems

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Elite sport systems can be analysed from the perspective of inputs, throughputs and outputs, respectively. They need inputs in the form of population and talent base, infrastructure, funding and other resources. Throughputs in the form of efforts to achieve organizational and managerial efficiency determine how inputs are transformed into outputs. National success in international sport competitions is not the only measure of the system output but it is most often given priority in policy discourse. In this analysis, results in Olympic Summer Games are seen to represent international competitiveness of national elite sport systems.

The aim of this study is to contribute new knowledge about the development of elite sport systems, in general (following up on studies such as Houlihan & Green, 2008) and about the international competitiveness of elite sport systems, in particular.

The paper analyses recent trends in the international competitiveness of different elite sport systems on the basis of a detailed analysis of the results from the London 2012 Olympics. Two indicators will be used: medal points (no. 1: 5 points, no. 2: 3 points, no. 3: 2 points) and top-8 points (no. 1: 8 points, no. 2: 7 points; ... no. 8: 1 points). Total medal points and top-8 points for all disciplines in London 2012 will be calculated and compared with similar figures from earlier Olympic Summer Games (since 1952) to identify how results from London 2012 fit with long-term results patterns. This will follow up on earlier studies such as Stamm & Lamprecht (2000).

In addition, the results from the recent Olympic Games will be compared with ‘simulated Olympic Games’ i.e., results from world championships and equivalent competitions and rankings for all Olympic disciplines) for every year in-between the Olympics since 1996. This analysis is based on a unique existing result data base. It is the aim of this comparison to evaluate to what extent Olympic results represent long-term trends or rather short-term coincidence and fluctuation. More specifically, it is analysed how the results in London 2012 fit with short-term result patterns.

The expected results section include a focus on the following major trends: China is expected in continue its rise and possibly surpass the United States not only far as gold medals is concerned as in Beijing 2008 but also as measured by medal points ad top-8 points. The position of Russia will be stable. Great Britain will continue its steady rise ad take full advantage of hosting the Games. Australia will continue its decline and Germany will remain under par. France has the broadest elite base in terms of competitiveness in the largest number of sports but is still not able to translate this into overall results that are at level with Great Britain and Germany. The recent resurgence of Japan will show in its best results since the Tokyo Olympics. Other interesting expected trends are the strong improvement of countries such as New Zealand, Azerbaijan and Brazil, the equally strong decline of Cuba and the continued nadir of previously predominant countries such as Bulgaria and Romania. Also the trends for the Nordic countries and the emerging economic super power India will be covered.

Furthermore, an attempt will be made to provide preliminary explanations of the recent trends. Ultimately, the international competitiveness of national elite sport systems depends on the inputs and throughputs of elite sport systems. However, it may also depend on measurement error (Storm & Nielsen, 2010a) and various idiosyncratic events and unique factors. First, the potential and actual problems with the applied indicator for international competitiveness will be outlined. Second, trends in results will be analysed from the perspective of developments of various input measures such as economic growth and elite sport funding. Third, changes as far as throughput is concerned are more difficult to integrate. Efficiency in the use of available resources can to some extent be seen as a derived measure (in principle, output per unit of input). However, this provides no insight in the actual throughput. The evidence of such mechanisms is at present rather limited, fragmented and unsystematic. Reference to such evidence (e.g. De Bosscher, 2007, and Storm & Nielsen 2010b) will be included in the analysis to the extent that this is possible.

References:
New forms of governance of the sporting elite: between deterritorialization and systemic integration

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Keywords: elite sports, local authorities, governance, INSEP, geopolitics, SPLISS

The question
The French model of sport organization is now facing an institutional crisis because of the emergence of new actors. Originally highly centralized, relying on the public service delegation given to sports federations and the provision of State executives within those federations, there is now a trend towards decentralization of public policy in high-level sport.

Local authorities (regions, departments, cities) have not only become the largest institutional funders of sports (31% against 9.7% by the state), but they also see their roles expand. Prerogatives relating to elite sport, traditionally reserved to the State are now an integral part of their duties. Thus, their activities are diverse and multifaceted as they fund the athletes and the high level structures, and extensively support the creation of sports facilities and sporting events. The development of territorial marketing strategies which use sport as a collective representation and identity factors, but also as electioneering factor, highlights these new forms of engagement in the management of elite sport.

The success of the elite sport athletes who do not pass through the central structures of the state can question the centralized and vertical model of French high level sport, which is achieved by clarifying the new role of local authorities. This analysis, conducted by the National Institute of Sport Expertise and Performance (INSEP) in partnership with the French Institute of Geopolitics (IFG), through two case studies (Brittany and Pays de Loire) can reveal the existence of sub-systems of organizations specific to each geographical region. It is therefore interesting to understand their role in the national model, understand the issues, while highlighting the rivalry for power and governance that is generated.

The methodology, the theoretical background
This study is led at the crossover of different disciplines. It’s necessary to understand the rivalry of power and the political stakes of the local level. This can be permitted by a geopolitical analysis of the territory, understanding the history, the political heritage, the geographical systems and sub-system and finally the sociological approach of the elite athlete audience. The literature review led us to sport governance theme like they can be developed by Chantelat & Bayle and to the analysis of local systems as they were described by Honta or Koebel.

The paper is the result of the research which has been made possible thanks to integration in SPLISS project. This study has been followed by a deeper investigation within the French model of elite sport governance. We have collected data from various sources [reports from political representatives, official or non official studies and reports, and public statistics] and above all we have conducted interviews with different actors to study the implication of local authorities in the centralized French model.

The implications, the discussion
This still running study, show the existence of a real local model of elite sport with characteristics related to the geography, to the cultural and the political heritage. Some original policies are developed in the local scale, showing that these local authorities are able to supply failures resulting from the State withdrawal from sport like in the example of Regional Training Centers abandoned by the State and recovered by consortium of local actors. Existence of local networks for the subsidy of elite athlete, of local athlete collectives show that elite sport is also considered as a vector of visibility and identity by the different level of local authorities. This situation can lead to local tension between those different geographical scales to know who can earn the benefit of elite sport athlete and clubs performance.

References
Brazilian judo expectations in London 2012

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Aim of the paper
Traditionally, Brazilian judo always conquers good results in the Olympic Games. With the increase of financial resources in the last Olympic cycle (2008-2012), the aim of this study is to analyze if the Brazil’s judo team results in London 2012 will achieve the expectations by the Brazilian Judo Federation.

Theoretical background
According De Bosscher et al (2008), this method can make a rise of concurrence in this sport. In October 2010, the Brazilian Olympic Committee (BOC) announced that intends to improve the performance in London 2012 and be among the top ten countries in 2016 Olympic Games. The superintendent of the BOC confirms that Brazil depends on sports such as sailing, judo, volleyball, athletics, swimming and football to conquer good results in the mentioned events.

Methodology
To analyze the results expected by Brazilian judo in London 2012, will be used the “market share” method. Elite sport success can be measured in several methods. Medal table ranking, total medals won and medal ‘points’ system. Market share is a system based on the relation between points won as a proportion of points available to win. According De Bosscher et al [2008], this method can make more accurate diagnosis and enable meaningful analysis in elite sport success. To calculate the market share is necessary to use a point system, where gold medals worth 3 points, 2 points for a silver medal and 1 point for a bronze medal or can be use a point system where 1 medal worth 1 point. In this study the two types of point system will be used to calculate market share. Reminding that in official judo competitions there are two bronze medallists.

Results/discussion
There is a problem to analyze the results of this study. For Mintzberg [1979], organizations exist to produce results in line and linked with their own culture, their mission and their goals. One reason is that the Brazilian Judo National Body has no official expectations (goals) for London 2012. In other words, even getting in the last Olympic cycle about €5.000.000,00 of public resources for investments, excluding the proceeds from the six large Brazilian private companies that sponsor this sport in Brazil (approximately €9.600.000,00 in 2011), the Brazilian Judo Confederation has no clear goals for the competitions in London 2012. On the other hand, the Brazilian Judo won 5 individual medals at the last World Championship held in Paris 2011. The market share of 7% or 9% was achieved, leaving Brazil in third position in the ranking according to this method of measuring success in elite sport. During the official announcement of the largest Brazilian judo delegation for the Olympic Games (14 athletes) in May 2012 was commented in media that Brazilian Judo Confederation expects the same number of medals won in Beijing 2008 (3 bronze medals), but in London 2012 they expect that medals are higher quality. The market share of Brazilian judo team in the last summer Olympics were 3% or 5%.

Implications/conclusions
Since 2009, the BOC gives special treatment to some National Governing Bodies. The Brazilian Judo Confederation is one of them: received a considerable increase in financial resources for investment in elite sport (government and sponsors). In addition, there was improvement in the organizational structure, increase participation in international competitions, and indications of scientific support in the athletes’ preparations. On the other hand, there were no progress in the development of young athletes; there is no training center in accordance with the international parameters and no investing in coaches training. After the judo results in London 2012, will be possible to further analyze the performance achieved by Brazil in this sport. What will be the market share achieved and whether it will be in accordance with the investments that were made?

References
National sport policy and Olympic success: South Korean case study using SPLISS model

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Elite sport performance has always been the top priority of Korean sport policy during the last half decade, while more attention were given to community sport development relatively recently. The Olympic Games are the sites where the effectiveness of national sport policies are came into view, coupled with the influence of economic power and the size of population. South Korea has stayed no worse than 12th place in the medal tally since 1988 Seoul Olympics and ranked 7th in 2008 Beijing Olympics, which can be seen remarkable for a small country with relatively less experience of international sport competition than European countries. Using SPLISS model (De Bosscher, De Knop, Van Bottenburg and Shibli, 2006), the author examined various aspects of South Korean sport policy including sport structure and governance, financial support, sport participation, talent identification and development, athlete career support, training facilities, coach provision and development, national and international competition, and scientific research and innovation. The result showed South Korean system is highly effective with strong athlete development, although the unbalance among different policy pillars were discovered. The result was discussed compared to the success and failure at 2012 London Olympic Games to find implications for future Korean sport policy as well as for sport policies of other countries’ in similar context.
A review of the performance of the United Kingdom in the London 2012 Olympic Games

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Aim
This paper extends the work of Shibli and Bingham (2008) who devised a model which forecast that China would win 46 gold medals in Beijing 2008. Although China actually won 51 gold medals, the forecast of 46 proved to be the most accurate of its type, beating forecasts based on economic variables and forecasts based on short term form and expert opinion. The forecasting model used has been revised and developed on the basis of the lessons learnt from Beijing and has been applied to the case of the UK in its host Olympics of 2012. The model forecast that the UK will win 27 gold medals; 56 medals in total; and that medals will be won in 15 sports and 18 disciplines (Shibli et al. 2012). This paper will review the four forecasts to provide an analysis of the model’s performance in London 2012. Furthermore, there will be a detailed analysis of the variance between forecast performance and actual performance.

Theoretical background
The theoretical background to this paper is based on two premises. First, that success in the Olympic Games is an increasingly managed phenomenon, rather than being reliant on the size of a nation’s population size and economic wealth. Recent evidence (De Bosscher et al. 2008) suggests that the explanatory powers of forecasting models based on macro-economic variables is diminishing and that policy factors such as a strategic approach to elite sport development are becoming increasingly important. At the same time, the use of short term form measures such as results from the most recent world championships to predict performance in the Olympic Games, can under estimate the performance of the host nation as demonstrated by China in 2008. This observation may well be attributable to the qualifying concessions that are offered to the host nation in most sports.

Second, host nation advantage provides a quantifiable benefit, which will result in a larger medals’ haul than if the Olympics were held elsewhere. Influences such as home crowd support, familiarity with venues, and enhanced scores in subjectively judged sports, positively affect the performance of the host nation. Research by UK Sport (2008) found that across 150 sporting events in 14 Olympic sports there was a home advantage effect which could be quantified as being worth an uplift in performance of 25%.

Methodology / data analysis
The forecasts derived from the model are based on two discrete pieces of analysis. First, we compute a ‘business as usual’ forecast by regressing the host nation’s performance from Seoul 1988 against the share of gold medals won in each of the six editions of the Olympic Games to 2008. The regression is then extrapolated to 2012 to produce our forecast. In the case of the UK we found a reasonably strong correlation (0.73) between gold medal winning performance and time, reflecting the investment that has been made in elite sport in the UK since 1996. Second we compute the quantifiable benefit of host nation status based on the average increase in the share of gold medals (3.2%) and total medals (1.6%) won by the host nations since 1988. To derive the increase in the number of sports and disciplines in which the host nation wins medals, we have simply taken the mean increases for the last six hosts which results in increases of 4 sports and 5 disciplines.

Results
The results of the forecasting exercise are that at London 2012 the UK will win: 27 gold medals (an increase of 8 from 2008); 56 medals in total (an increase of 9 from 2008); medals in 15 sports (an increase of 4 from 2008); and medals in 18 disciplines (an increase of 5 from 2008). For 2012, assuming that there are 302 events and 960 medals available in total, the quantifiable benefit of being the host nation is derived as being 10 gold medals and 14 medals in total. In addition to forecasting the number of medals the UK will win and the breadth of sports and disciplines in which these medals are won, consideration will also be given to how medals are won from a priority versus diversification perspective. There will be a full variance analysis between forecast and actual performance to explain the performance of the forecasting model. If elite sport performance is an increasingly managed phenomenon, then winning the rights to host the Olympic Games in the first place is an integral part of this management.

References
Gold medal policy – the impact of national policy on Australia’s international sporting success

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Introduction
In 2011 Australia joined Sports Policy factors Leading to International Sporting Success (SPILLS). This followed from De Bosscher and colleagues 2008 study investigating the importance of nine policy pillars for international sporting success, that carried out comparative analysis of elite sport systems and policies of six nations. Trend analysis showed a significant increase in funding for elite sport over a 10-year period with successful countries also offering high quality support for athlete and coach development as well as access to quality training facilities. Furthermore, talent identification and development policies were found to be inferior in the two wealthiest and most populated nations (Italy and UK).

The second iteration of the SPILLS study aims to build on the knowledge gained from the first study and address some of its methodological shortcomings such as underdeveloped pillars in sample nations. The methods section will present the key findings across the nine policy pillars for Australia will be presented.

Methods
Based on the theoretical model developed by De Bosscher et al. (2006), data was collected using centrally developed sport policy questionnaires containing over 200 open and closed questions. This dataset was completed by researchers resulting in an inventory of qualitative and quantitative data across the nine pillars (including over 100 critical success factors (CSFs)). Elite athletes (n=205), coaches (n=153) and performance directors (n=9) completed an elite sport climate survey. Survey data was analysed with SPSS. Matrix analysis of data showed that while international benchmarking is underway, the data collected using SPILLS methodology has provided a basis for identifying and evaluating policy factors specific to Australia’s sporting success. An overview of the key findings across the nine policy pillars for Australia will be presented.

Results and discussion
Over 50 interviews were conducted with sport policy makers who provided qualitative and quantitative data to populate pillar inventories. This data was reviewed in context with stakeholder responses from the elite sport climate surveys. In the lead up to the Sydney Olympics the government funded and delivered many national elite sport programs via the Olympic Athlete Program (1994-2000). Then in 2001, funding was scaled back from the national and state institutes and channelled directly to sports. Responsibility and accountability for elite sport now resided with national/state institutes, sports had to seek and negotiate with each individual stakeholder. This resulted in HP pathways that often lacked systematic progression, as they were influenced by deals and opportunities that stakeholders could provide.

Whilst one-line appropriated funding was introduced in 2001, it has taken over a decade for all Australian governments (Commonwealth, States, Territories) to form an official alliance focused on developing a national strategy for HP sport. It is evident from this study that the absence of such a national strategy has impacted on the government (via the Australian Sports Commission (ASC)) being able to provide effective leadership and support for NSO pathway development. Without clear roles for HP stakeholders (i.e. national/state institutes), sports had to seek and negotiate with each individual stakeholder. This resulted in HP pathways that often lacked systematic progression, as they were influenced by deals and opportunities that stakeholders could provide.

With Australia’s geographical limitations, sport participation and talent identification/development (TID) are two critical pillars for sustainable international sporting success. A reduction in club sport participation, outdated membership and delivery models, inadequate physical education (PE) in schools, and rising obesity levels are all attributed to a decline in sport participation. The ASC is currently leading development of the National Sport and Education Strategy to prioritise sport and PE in schools, developing a National Volunteers in Sport Strategy, as well as a national research agenda concerning participation trends and influences.

For 25 years Australia ran nationally coordinated TID sports programs. Under the government’s current sports policy, Pathway to Success (2010), the ASC has adopted a new approach towards TID. Rather than direct delivery of initiatives, the ASC moved to a capability-building role providing NSOs with resources and advice so they can implement their own TID initiatives.

Other key pillars impacted by lack of national coordination include training facilities, (international) competition, and coach development. Progress is being made on a new National Coaching Strategy, but training facilities and hosting international events continue to be the responsibility of state government and individual sports. There is a clear need for national mapping and audits of the supply-and-demand of elite sport facilities in addition to national guidelines regarding the bidding/staging of international events.

As elite sport in Australia has matured, the role of government has come full circle. After 25 years of institutional management, it is clear that ‘sport runs sport’. Government is embracing its leadership and partnering roles with sports that will only be strengthened by a National HP Strategy.

References
Success or failure? Trends in the Dutch elite sport climate from an elite sport policy perspective and a public policy perspective

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Abstract keywords
Elite sport, sport policy, public policy, effectiveness, Olympics

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
Building on the theoretical model of SPLISS (De Bosscher et al. 2006, 2008) and based on a monitoring study of the Dutch elite climate from 1998 until 2012 (Van Bottenburg et al. 2012), this paper aims to show that success from an elite sport policy perspective can go hand in hand with failure from a public policy perspective.

Theoretical background or literature review
The fundamental principle of the ‘global sporting arms race’ (Oakley & Green 2001) is that the competitive struggle in elite sport continuously forces countries throughout the world to strategically improve the performance capacity of their elite sport system. Bottom line, this means that countries try to recruit and develop as many talents as possible, get them involved in fulltime training programmes, and improve their training conditions and facilities. This requires an increasing sum of (public and private) money. While the main goal of the SPLISS studies is to increase our knowledge about the optimum strategy for elite sport policy to successfully operate in this medal race (De Bosscher et al. 2008), this paper focusses on some unplanned negative externalities of such a policy.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The study is based on four evaluation studies of the elite sport climate in the Netherlands, carried out in 1998, 2002, 2008 and 2011, with an emphasis on the results of the most recent one. In line with the multidimensional approach to assess the effectiveness of elite sport policies of nations, as suggested by De Bosscher et al. 2011, we collected data at multiple levels (input, throughput, output) and by different stakeholder (constituent feedback). The measurement of the elite sport climate in 2012 consisted of representative surveys among elite athletes (N=302, response rate 35%), former elite athletes (N=320, 20%), national and international talents (N=477, 36%), elite sport coaches (N=106, 44%) and performance directors of national sport associations (N=33, 55%). A representative survey of the Dutch population (N=2612, 15 years and older) including ten questions about elite sport (policy) was added to this.

Results
The analysis shows that the national expenditure on elite sport has been raised substantially in the Netherlands. In the four years’ Olympic cycle on the road to London (2009-2012), the Netherlands invested 20 percent more in elite sport than during the road to Beijing (2005-2008). The overall elite sport expenditure in 2012 was twice as high as in 1998. This increased expenditure has improved the elite sport climate according to both subjective assessment and objectified criteria. In all elite sport climate surveys (1998, 2002, 2008, 2011), a majority of the athletes, coaches and performance directors agreed with the statement that the elite sport climate had been improved compared to the situation four years earlier. Moreover, compared to earlier elite sport climate surveys, we found in our 2011 study:
- that young talents were identified at an earlier age;
- that schools increasingly facilitated their sporting ambitions with special educational arrangements;
- that both talents and elite athletes had increased their number of training hours;
- that more elite athletes followed fulltime training programmes without combining elite sport with other educational or vocational obligations;
- that athletes were facilitated more and better to follow and intensify these training programmes.

At the same time, however, we found:
- declined school marks by talented athletes at specialized sport schools;
- a decreased average annual income by both athletes and coaches;
- a more gloomy view of athletes’ vocational career after the termination of their sporting career;
- a diminished return on investment in terms of elite sport success related to elite sport expenditure;
- a reduced esteem for elite sport as a profession among the Dutch population;
- a decline in public support for elite sport investments.

Discussion and implications/conclusions
The data indicate that Dutch elite sport policy has been successful in many respects to improve the elite sport climate in the Netherlands. This success from an elite sport perspective, however, was accompanied with negative externalities from a public policy perspective. This has raised new problems and issues that challenge its future elite sport development.

References
Prioritization of elite sport: the consequence of a global sporting arms race.

Results of an international comparative study

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Introduction
The power struggle between nations to win medals in major international sport competitions has resulted in an intensified competition with increasing investments in elite sport from public sources in many countries. The global sporting arms race, described by Oakley and Green (2001) as the production of success by investing strategically in elite sport, is escalating because the return on investment has decreased over the past decade (De Bosscher et al., 2008). As a result, governing organizations in elite sport are searching for increasing efficiency of their investments, for example by prioritizing policies. The notion of “targeting the resources on only relatively small number of sports through identifying those that have a real chance of success at world level” (Oakley and Green, 2001, p. 91), as used in the early 1990s for example in Australia or in former communist countries, is now applied in many countries.

Aim
This study aims to identify if and how nations are adopting a prioritization policy of elite sport funding.

Methods
Data were collected by researchers in 16 countries who took part in a large-scale “SPLISS-II” project. An overall sport policy inventory - developed by a consortium group of SPLISS researchers- was used as a pre-defined framework to gather data from secondary sources via document review and primary sources such as interviews with national policy makers. Topics included the number of sports, sports clubs and national governing bodies funded; the amount of funding for each sport in 2010; whether there was a prioritization policy; how long this policy had been in place and what the drivers for this policy were.

Note: Data collection was only completed by 7 countries (BRA, EST, FIN, JAP, POR, ESP, SUI, NED) by the time of writing this abstract and will be finished by the time of the EASM conference.

Results
Interestingly, five countries do not fund non-Olympic sports as a priority sport (JAP, FRA, POR, BRA, EST). While only four countries indicated that there is a policy that sets out to prioritize particular sports for elite sport funding, closer analysis of the exact amounts of funding on a sport by sport basis shows that all (7) countries prioritize: within the Olympic sports, all countries have spent 50% of elite sports funding on 6 or fewer sports out of a total of 20 or more. For example in Japan and Finland, 21 elite sport disciplines receive 25% of the funding and 9 and 8 sports respectively receive the remaining 75% of the funding. Some countries have taken a prioritization approach for a long time, however the policy was been implemented more vigorously since 2006. The Netherlands is a striking example in this regard. Policy makers in the Netherlands decided to refine their approach to elite sport funding: funding of ten sports (8 where the Netherlands was traditionally successful + 2 prestigious sports, athletics and gymnastics), will move from 25% of the overall elite sport funding (7.5 million euros) to 75% (22.5 million euros) by 2013; the other 7.5 million euros will then be distributed among the remaining 65 (smaller) sports.

The top ten of most funded sports in all the countries, receive 57% of the funding, with athletics the principal beneficiary, followed by aquatics (all four Olympic disciplines). This approach is logical as these two sports account for a significant proportion of the medal winning opportunities in the Olympic Games (97 events or 32% of the entire programme of London 2012).

Discussion
Increasingly, countries are trying to invest ‘smarter’ in elite sport by implementing a prioritization policy of elite sport funding. National policies have taken this decision but not much is known about the possible unintended side-effects of this policy, for example in the sports that lost their funding, or for less well-developed sports; as well as the impacts on other sport policy goals, such as raising sport participation. 

Targeting strategies are performance-based, often using the number Olympic medals as a criterion for evaluation. This is a typical input-output evaluation. The question remains: why are medals important? Why would nations continue to take part in this global sporting arms race? The measurement of outcomes, or the long-term effects of success remain an unexplored area of research.

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• SKOR: Eunha Koh from the Korea Institute of Sport Science.
Workshop:

University teaching in sport management
Teaching international sport management: Current status, challenges, and best practices

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Today’s citizens need to be world-minded in order to use their global knowledge and intercultural skills to make informed decisions in our interconnected world (Mudimbi-Boyi, 2002). In turn, it is important that our students are prepared to participate in societies that are no longer defined by nations and geographical borders. Consequently, institutions of higher education have in recent years realized the need to prepare graduates to live and participate as global citizens through the internationalization of their campuses. The internationalization of higher education involves incorporating an international or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education (Knight, 2003, p. 19). That is, the integration of an international and intercultural dimension in content, materials, activities, and understanding should be incorporated in the teaching, research, and public service functions of universities to enhance the relevance in an interdependent world. Internationalization is a very relevant topic on university campuses around the world and has become an organizational priority. It has even attracted the attention of governments and groups such as the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2005).

Sport is international and its increased globalization makes sport management a particularly pertinent site to consider issues of internationalization. The internationalization of sport has been well articulated by Fairley, Lizandra, and Gladden (2009) as being viewed in many spheres. It may merely involve the introduction of sport into new countries where the sport has not been traditionally played. From a team and/or league perspective, internationalization may entail countries competing against each other in international competition; the expansion of established national leagues to include teams that are based in different countries; teams touring foreign countries to generate interest and awareness of their sport or league; individuals competing alongside players from different countries in organized leagues; and even travel to sport events in different countries as a spectator, official, or volunteer. From another perspective, it may involve the international broadcasting of sport competition and events, and international coverage of sport events and competition through various forms of news and print media. And finally, internationalization may encompass the availability of licensed merchandise outside of the country of the team or player; global companies sponsoring international sport events; and the use of sport as a social and political tool.

What has become apparent is that all students need to be made aware that they live in a world in which all aspects of management relate directly or indirectly to the internationalization of the sport business. Of particular note is that the digital age, which has just begun, provides opportunities as well as challenges that have made international sport management education essential for the administrators of tomorrow.

For those academicians interested in international sport and/or for those who may not have a background or experience working internationally in sport, this workshop will provide ideas regarding how international sport management education can be incorporated into the curriculum, as a singular course, infused throughout the curriculum, or through faculty-led study abroad courses or programs.

Internationalizing the sport management curriculum presents many challenges. Beyond the fact that many faculty have not had the opportunity to work in sport outside their home country, the diverse cultures in which sport business operates can be quite challenging. Developing knowledge and an appreciation of how professional sport, international governing bodies, marketing in the digital world, and the legal arena is essential to the educated sport manager.

This workshop will address the following questions: (1) what does it mean to “internationalize” sport management education from a curriculum perspective, and how do we do it? (2) what are the challenges of internationalizing the programs? (3) what are the “best practices” in international sport management education (i.e., problem based learning, experiential learning, web research sources, international sport course collaboration using Web CT, and study abroad programs)? and (4) how might the recently formed World Association for Sport Management (WASM) contribute to the internationalization of sport management? After short facilitator presentations, the participants will have an opportunity to share and learn about the modes of delivery (i.e., best practices) and the challenges.

References:
Online/distance learning for professional athletes

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Keywords:
Online Learning, Distance Learning, Sport Management, FIFPro, FIFPro Online Academy, Adobe Connect, Learning Management System (LMS), Student Athletes

Aim of abstract/paper
To give a demonstration of our online sport management program and show how we are able to educate professional athletes online.

The University College of Northern Denmark (UCN) originated in September 2011, initiated by our first online Sport Management program. UCN has partnered with the International Players Union and FIFPro, giving their members an opportunity to study within the online Sport Management program, while maintaining player status on professional football clubs throughout Europe.

At the University College of Northern Denmark, we have specified traditions for innovation and excellence within our teaching philosophy. UCN strives to improve the learning experience for our students and believes that innovation can motivate and further educate our cohorts. The latest activity at the university is our online/distance learning program in Sport Management. UCN was originally contacted by FIFPro and asked if we could provide their members with an education and create a program that was suited for professional/semi-professional athletes. With this online program, UCN dealt with a specific segment of students that are highly motivated to obtain an education, with a main focus on professional sports careers. These students, although unable to participate in lectures within the classroom, have instead, access to an online portal, where UCN has suited the program around the student’s time schedule and made sure the lectures are accessible to the online students in an unsynchronized manner.

When dealing with online/distance learning, one can categorize the teaching methods into synchronized and unsynchronized teaching. Within the UCN Sports Management program, our faculty has created a mixture of the two, and has ensured that UCN created lectures that suited the athlete’s time schedule. Therefore, this portion of our program is unsynchronized. However, UCN we has additionally created a synchronized teaching aspects within the program, due to the student curriculum requirements, including exams and tests.

One of the key aspects of our program is flexibility – UCN has created a unique situation in which we bring the university to the student. Additionally, UCN has created a virtual classroom for the students through our Learning Management System (Share Point), where our faculty are able to upload documents and communicate with our students. With this online platform, we are able to activate our students and make sure they are receiving all lectures, information and updates from the program. UCN is using a learning management system called Share Point, which encompasses certain features that make online/distance learning possible. Because of this online platform, UCN has created a virtual campus, one which is accessible 24 hours a day, seven days a week, wherever the student or faculty member happens to be in the world. We, at UCN, believe this online platform creates the required flexible to our Sports Management program and creates learning for a specific segment of students.

At the University College of Northern Denmark, we are very focused on communication with our students – we try to create a two-way communication in our lectures. We believe that discussion and debate about certain areas creates a dynamic environment for our students and we believe it will improve the learning experience for our online learners. When we created the online program we wanted to bring the same dynamic environment and learning experience to a virtual platform. We wanted our online students to have the same opportunity for this two-way communication and be able to participate in the discussion and debate about topics within the Sports Management discipline. Having said that, we have created a setup that allows our online student to follow a lecture unsynchronized and still feel like they are part of the class. In doing so, we utilize a program called Adobe Connect, which is a web conference program that allows communicating, sharing, and collaborating with others online. Adobe Connect has a recording feature, which is utilized during conference sessions and live lectures with on-campus students. These recordings are then uploaded to the virtual classroom for our online students to access. This ultimately provides our online students the opportunity to watch the lectures unsynchronized and during their own time schedule. Afterwards, the students are able to debate and discuss the lectures through our learning management system and within their own virtual classroom.
Creating a global classroom through international collaboration and social media

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Sport often serves as a bridge to unite people from different cultures and countries. Colleges and universities around the world are educating the future leaders in the global sport industry. The trend toward globalization in the sports industry has prompted numerous higher education programs to embrace the concept of study abroad and internationalization of sport management curricula, which is now recommended by the North American accrediting body in sport management (Miller and Seidler, 2010; COSMA Accreditation Manual, 2010). How these programs “internationalize” for the benefit of the student experience varies widely and is often determined by financial constraints.

The American Council on Education (ACE) advocates that educational programs make use of technology to provide students with cross-cultural learning experiences (Bringing the world into the classroom, 2010). The SUNY Center for Collaborative Online International Learning (COIL) created the Cross National Project to develop internationally focused online coursework (About COIL n.d.). This approach intends to broaden the scope of international education, creating unique opportunities for international learning to students unwilling or unable to study abroad. Furthermore, these adopted and adapted methods are relatively cost effective for both colleges and students. Finally, our concepts provide faculty and students a platform for learning and using new technologies in the classroom.

This project examines an “international” experience for sport management students who work on collaborative, online learning projects with fellow students from the USA, the Netherlands, and Norway. Students conducted interactive learning through a private Facebook group, Google documents, and Skype. Student communications via Facebook were coded and analyzed by the authors. A student satisfaction survey was also administered and analyzed. It was determined that students did benefit from this cultural exchange and were comfortable working with social media in the classroom.

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Introducing case studies in the multidisciplinary field of sport management

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Aim of paper
This paper will discuss three different perspectives of importance when teaching sport management today. First, sport management is a multidisciplinary field with certain opportunities and obstacles. Secondly, according to the Bologna Process students should develop academic knowledge like gathering and interpreting data, making judgments including reflection on relevant social, scientific or ethical issues, but also train professional knowledge like decision making and problem solving. Thirdly, the recruitment of more diversified student groups emphasizes the need of non-traditional and more student active teaching methods.

Organizational context, sport studies is a relatively new academic subject in Sweden. The first undergraduate programs started at the turn of the Millennium, in most cases linked to pedagogy and physical education. Due to background of the faculty and its research a clear focus of natural science or social science can be observed in the different program syllabuses. Sport management is part of sport studies and the number of sport management students has increased steadily over the years concurrently with the growth of professionalism and commercialism within Swedish sports. Today, new and more diversified student groups attend the universities. The students are not only diverse in means of academic background, but also in age, working experience, in socio-economic status and cultural background. Malmö is a multicultural city and the university was built on the strategy of multidisciplinary programs when it was established as late as 1998. Student active learning is also part of the overall strategy, and introduction of the case method in the sport management program has therefore been discussed over the years. A pressure in increased student intake and in research funding and publications tend to form more traditional academic teachers and researchers, and new teaching methods have therefore not been given priority. The fact that Sport Studies is a relatively new academic subject makes it obvious that researchers and teachers have their background in traditional academic disciplines as; physiology, psychology, sociology, history, political science, leadership, management, economy, law and more. This is a challenge but also a great opportunity to create new knowledge in collaboration.

Educational issues
To succeed in implementing case as a method of teaching in sport management requires a broader understanding of the method and its implications and the context of sport management. First, an interpretation and understanding of the concepts of multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary teaching and research, and the opportunities and obstacles belonging to them, should be focused (Nissen 2006). Secondly, there is a need to discuss teaching and learning activities appropriate for the new diversified student groups (Ramsden, 1998; Biggs 2003). The case method and PBL (problem-based learning) are student active learning-methods preparing and training professional skills. The process of case learning is less controlled in certain steps then the PBL method and therefore more often used in the field of management. The case method provides different views, calls on different disciplines and integrates them solving problems, it activates previous knowledge and motivates the search of new knowledge, it stimulates the students to collaborate, it builds communication skills and requires self-directed learning (Erskins, JA et al. 1998, Posch et al 2009).

Implications for sport management
Sport management students should achieve functioning knowledge, based on both declarative and procedural knowledge as well as conditional knowledge. Case studies is one way to achieve this and the method could be introduced step by step in different sport management courses. Introducing case studies in sport management requires cases written in sport context, there are some, but more need to be produced. Sport is unique and a closer collaboration between sport institutions could improve teaching and learning activities – improving learning outcomes.

References
Scenario-development as a tool in education in strategic sport management

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Aim of paper
The aim of this paper is to show how scenario-development is being used as an educational method and to show that scenario-development is a useful method for education in sportmanagement, especially on a strategic level.

Organisational context
In the last two years the school of sports economy, marketing and management of Fontys, University of applied science Tilburg, has developed a so called minor, which is a optional subject for students. The title of this minor was Create your future, scenario development 2028. The aim of the minor was twofold:
1. Learning to use the method of scenario-development as a tool for strategic planning and strategic management;
2. Developing scenario's and concrete products/projects that belong to these scenario's, about current and strategic topics in sport.

The year 2028 is chosen because of the Olympic Plan 2028, an initiative/movement in the Netherlands to get sport and sportinfrastructure on a higher level and to make plans (and dream) about a bid for the Olympics in 2028, 100 years after the Olympic Games in Amsterdam in 1928.

Educational issues / experiences
Because the present students are the managers of tomorrow, it is important that they learn to think and to make plans on a strategic level. The world of sport is often characterized by short-term thinking not by strategic planning. Not only in the context of the Olympic Plan 2028, but also with respect to modern sport and the organisation of sport in the 21th century, which are far more complex than in the 20th century, it is needed that students learn to manage on a strategic level.

In this context we started a research on methods of scenario-development in order to determine if scenario-development would be an interesting tool in an educational context in which learning to think strategically is crucial. Our conclusion was that scenario-development would offer interesting possibilities but that we had to develop our own scenario-method. As a consequence we developed a method for scenario-development that fits in our educational context.

In the workshop we explain the method of scenario-development which we have developed for this minor. We will argue that scenario-development is both a structured process, in which rational thinking and analyzing are needed, as well a creative process in which out-of-the-box thinking is crucial. It is structured because students need to identify and analyze trends and driving forces that are important for the concerning subject and it is creative because students have to ‘jump’ to 2028 and try to make different stories on basis of the trends and driving forces. What is real in 2028 which is no reality today?

Scenario-development does not lead to one scenario but, in our method, to four scenario’s. They don’t predict the future but the scenario’s construct the boundaries within which the future will be developed. The scenario’s are internally consistent but they differ maximal from each other. In the last two years scenario’s have been developed on themes as: The future of professional soccer in the Netherlands, Sport and media, Sport and technology, The Dutch Olympics 2028. We work with concrete commissioners for whom the students have constructed the scenario’s (Royal Dutch Football Association, Sports & Technology, Olympisch Vuur, Infostrada Sports Group).

After the explanation of the research and the scenario-method that we have developed, a couple of students will show in the workshop the results of one scenario development process. This group of students had been selected because they had developed the most interesting and creative scenario’s. These students participate also in the Master Student Seminar in Aalborg.

After this we will discuss with the public our experiences with scenario-development as an education tool and the impact for sport and sport management issues.

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Team players – a project with students from different educational levels

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Aim of paper
In the Team Players project, learning becomes a dynamic process. Team Players is about ‘connecting’, both vertically in the educational sphere and horizontally between the school, the professional field and society. The students’ different backgrounds, element of cooperation and the challenging sports-related assignments encourage efficient professional development and personal growth. Furthermore, it will stimulate students to nurture and pursue their ambitions.

Practice description
The aim of Team Players is to ‘connect’. In order to make these connections, it will form an energetic team of students from different educational levels in order to learn through experience.

Collaborating programs are:
- The Hague University of Applied Sciences - Academy of Sports Studies consisting of the following two programs: Sport management and Teacher Education in Physical Education (Both Bachelor Degree Programmes).
- ROC Mondriaan “Sport & Exercise Program (Secondary Vocational Education).”

Students of The Hague University of Applied Sciences will be able to take part in the project from either their third or their fourth year depending on which education they are following. Students of ROC Mondriaan should be in their fourth year.

Students from different programs and educational levels will be participating and will all be able to benefit from a diversity of competences, ambitions, and perspectives. In order to achieve the best results, they need to combine these various strengths and work as a team. Additionally, they will have the opportunity to experiment. While working in the field, for a real client, they will have enough freedom to explore their own initiatives and ideas. This should enable the students to experience a sense of ownership and assure them that they are not simply participating ‘because the school has told them to’.

Context description
Team Players will provide opportunities to forge vital connections within The Hague. The assignments can be divided into the following three categories:

1. Creating accessible sport and exercise programs within a problem neighborhood, finally resulting in a structural sport culture within the neighborhood.

2. Developing opportunities for less-talented or disabled persons to develop sports skills (if possible within regular sports clubs).

3. Organizing a large scale sports and exercise-related event in The Hague.

Within these three categories, five projects were established in September 2011, namely:
- ‘BSV Tenierplantsen’: An after school program to encourage children do exercise.
- ‘Bouwlust’: Making Bouwlust, a problem neighborhood, the most ‘sportsmanlike’ neighborhood in The Hague.
- ‘Quick/Sophia’: Introducing children with developmental coordination disorder (DCD) to a soccer club.
- ‘Steinmetz de Compaan’: Encouraging mentally and physically disabled to take part in exercise
- ‘Haagse Schoolsport Olympiade’: Organizing a sports event for about 3000 12-year children from all elementary schools in The Hague.

The project was started after an intensive 2-day introduction program with the student, the supervising teachers and commissioning clients. The Team Players (students) met every other week. Students were able to decide whether supervising teachers and commissioning clients would be present during these meetings. This is in accordance with the aforementioned sense of ownership. Additionally, the commissioning clients, supervising teachers, and the project group, which developed the Team Players concept, met to monitor progress and to learn from each other once every month. This ensures that all projects are on the right track. After three months the Team Players presented their first achievements during a symposium and it became clear that all groups had really put a lot of effort into their projects and supervision was sufficient.

In June 2012 all projects came to an end and results were again presented during a symposium. Both students and commissioning clients were proud of the work. Evaluation with students, supervising teachers and commissioning clients gave promising outcomes for the upcoming years, especially with regard to the main goals outlined in the introduction. Moreover, when students were asked about their professional development and whether personal growth had taken place all involved Team Players responded positively.

Implications and learning
As expected, most Team Players project teams felt a high sense of ownership for the projects. Although three different school backgrounds sometimes led to communication problems most students found the project very useful. This is because students acknowledge that they will be working together when leaving higher education. Students also mentioned that working for a real client had been challenging. Lessons for the supervising teachers and project group ranged from organizational issues to how to deal with students from different educational levels and backgrounds. Moreover, a big leap forward was made during 6
organized meeting in which experts in team learning gave educational advice to both teachers and clients. These lessons should make the project even more successful. These promising results have given us the confidence to start at least 15 projects next year.
Coaching: a sport instrument to enhance sport students performance

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Aim of the paper
University student failure is often an outcome of the lack of adequate work routines and study habits. In order to turn teaching and learning processes more efficient we need to change student’s habits improving the quality of the time spent in the Department of Sport Sciences and increasing their motivation and perceived quality of life. We deeply need new innovative learning methodologies and sport coaching can give an answer. We expect that implementing new methodologies such as service learning and coaching it is possible to make the learning process more efficient; sport students will acquire more competencies, new work routines will better off the sustainability of their lifelong learning process.

In this paper we will describe a research experiment applied to a group of 1st year undergraduate sport sciences students. Final results are expected in June.

Literature
Feedback is most effective when it is immediate, specific, balanced and behaviourally focused (Kravitz, Richard L., 2012). Coaching is now viewed as a potential way to improve learning processes within organizations, improving competitive advantages (Hagen, Marcia S., 2012).

Looking at a number of articles crossing educational and coaching issues we find the number of experimental designs is increasing rapidly and we still do not have clear results about the impact of coaching techniques on learning processes. However there is an increasing number of recent studies showing coaching is not harmful and can play an important role on self esteem and self confidence, instruments that enable people to focus their time and become more efficient on their duties [Côté, J., & Gilbert, W., 2009]; Dieffenbach, K. D., et al., 2011; MacDonald, D. J., Côté, J., & Deakin, J., 2010].

Methodology and data
The methodology will be mixed (qualitative and quantitative), including statistical analysis, descriptive statistics, interviews and focus group work with coaching. The number of students is 80, divided into 3 groups. One group will be submitted to 10 professional coaching sessions; a second group will work under one discipline teacher tutoring and a third control group with no special support. The selection of the students will be made based on a volunteering process and the university application grade (September) and first semester grades (February). A construct for grade will be produced as a measure of student performance. Statistical tests ANOVA and Hest will allow concluding about the changing effects and discussion of the results. We involved all the 1st grade teachers in order they provide us online grades and evolution on their disciplines.

Results and discussion
Results are expected at the end of the semester (June 2012) and will be presented at the EASM Conference.

References
Creating shared value through sport: incorporating CSR into sport management curriculum

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Background
The importance of education in the understanding of the business world cannot be underplayed. It was most identified in DiMaggio and Powell’s (1983) seminal work on organisational change, identifying normative pressures as a large factor of isomorphism. This can be attributed to the number of professionals who have received similar levels of training, thus leaving them with the same core ideas of best practise in the work place. More recently, it has been said that to create a shared value between a business and its surrounding society, future managers should be educated to practise in the work place. More recently, it has been said that a large factor of isomorphism. This can be attributed to the number of professionals who have received similar levels of training, thus leaving them with the same core ideas of best practise in the work place. 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A study on the motivations of students when participating in sport management's program

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Aim of paper - research question. The purpose of this study was to explore and determine relevant choice factors of participating motivations among under-graduate students of sport management program at Ho Chi Minh City University of Sport (HUS), along with collecting specific demographic information from the respondents. This study addressed the following questions such as 1) Which motivations did affect students when they choose sport management program? and 2) Were there statistically differences among under-graduate students when classified by gender, living place and academic year? Since little was known about these motivations for undergraduate sport management students, this study would be exploratory in nature and employ a non-experimental design to understand insight into influential university choice factors.

Methodology, research design and data analysis.
For surveying purposes, a modified version of the questionnaire used in a college choice study of sport management majors at the Florida State University (United States) was used for data collection (Crockett, 2005). In this study, 150 subjects were randomly selected from sport management programs listed in Department of Sport Management at HUS. The data were input and analyzed by using the SPSS for Windows version 16.0. Parametric statistics produced analyzable results using descriptive statistics and infered statistics such as factor analysis, t-test and one-way ANOVA.

Results and conclusions.
The results of this study were included

Characteristics of respondents. There were more than two-third of respondents was male (73.2%) who attended in this study. In the academic year, the biggest group was freshmen who accounted a third of participants and the most of them (36.2%) came from the Middle area of Vietnam.

1) The important level on students’ motivations. By factor analysis of the important level on students’ motivations, there were 3 categories of motives including (1) Field motives [mean = 4.14] involved the issues such as “Desire to work in the sport management industry”, “Opportunity for advancement in sport management”, and “Opportunity to work in the Sport Industry”; (2) Academic motives [mean = 4.09] involved the issues such as “Desire to have a college degree” and “Parent’s expectation that you acquire a college degree”; and (3) Personal motives [mean = 3.04] involved the issues such as “Family/Friend works in Sport Industry”, “Recommendation of a high school counselor”, “Recommendation of someone in Sport Industry”, and “Proximity to home”.

2) The differences among demographics on factors of motivations. Regarding to Gender, throughout t-test analysis, there were no any statistically significant differences on three categories of motivations. In term of Living place, after analyzing one-way ANOVA, there were also no any significant differences on three categories of College Choice. Turning to Academic year, after analyzing one-way ANOVA, there were statistically significant differences among three classes of students and categories of motivations (p value < .05).

In this study, the factors that influenced sport management students when they choose this program were addressed. The descriptive statistics of all the participating motivations that were tested in the first research question revealed the importance of the factors in each category. Therefore, these findings can be extremely useful to professors, administrators, and faculty with in the field of sport management not only at HUS but also in Vietnam. Of the three demographic variables tested, only Academic year produced statistically significant results in determining motivation factors, which uncovered several interesting implications. Overall, the findings were productive in contributing to the growing body of knowledge in both motivations and sport management.

In conclusions, the current study successfully brought some insight into college choice from students. And the faculty’s academic managers can use these results to reconstruct and make developing plan to provide an effective and quality undergraduate sport management program. Moreover, the information can be the guide for sport management universities to attract more suitable students.

This exploratory study offered much insight into college choice among undergraduate sport management students such as students are not highly influenced by recommendations from their high school counselors as far as the sport management major is concerned. Therefore, research needs to be conducted to determine if high schools are even aware of sport management programs and then determine ways to educate the counselors about the field.

References:
Workshop:

Governance of international and national sport organizations
‘Not playing boules’: A case study of the English Petanque Association (EPA)

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Abstract keywords
Governance, accountability, voluntary sports organisations

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
This paper explores some of the challenges facing not-for-profit, voluntary sports organisations through an empirical account of the governance of the English Pétanque Association (EPA). The emerging literature on sports governance has tended to focus on sports governing bodies managing professional sports at an international and/or national level, and as such research on organisations which promote and provide sports activity at grassroots level is limited (Skille, 2008). This study was motivated by this apparent gap in the literature, as well as a growing interest from government in ensuring that NGBs are fit for purpose and have an appropriate level of both sport specific expertise and independent representation to be able to meet governance challenges.

Theoretical background or literature review*
The sport policy landscape has changed dramatically over the past decade, and in turn the management of the voluntary sport sector has come under increased scrutiny (Robinson and Palmer, 2011). The case study needs to be viewed against a backdrop of the government strengthening its capacity to set strategic direction so that there are now increasingly contractual arrangements, from the DCMS to the Sports Councils, down through the spine of accountability to CSPs, to NGBs, to local authorities (Houlihan and Green, 2009). As one of the key deliverers of government policy, NGBs have subsequently had to grapple with governance issues, sparked by instances of managerial failure, financial difficulties, and increased public funding for sport that together have contributed in the need for greater professionalism (Walters et al. 2010). This has been manifest through a modernisation programme, promoted by UK Sport and Sport England, with the aim of improving NGB governance. The most recent example of this is the introduction of a government-supported Voluntary Code of Good Governance by the Sport and Recreation Alliance in 2011.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
This paper presents an in-depth single case study, an empirical account of the English Pétanque Association (EPA). The NGB is one among hundreds in the UK, and as such the case study makes no claims at generalisation, but seeks to provide some rich insights into the challenges facing a volunteer-run and member-led sports organisation. As part of the study key administrators involved in the sport were interviewed, as well as seeking the views of other stakeholders, including representatives from the home nation organisations, and those responsible for promoting pétanque at a regional/club level*.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
This research contributes to our understanding of governance in non-profit NGBs. Garnering the views of key administrators responsible for the sport provides some interesting insights into the practical governance challenges facing volunteer-run boards, amidst growing scrutiny of government (despite cuts in funding), as well as managing the expectations of members. The study also provides a timely account of the challenges the EPA have faced with improving their own governance structures, as well as bringing to light some of the nuances associated with this minority sport and a NGB which is still in its infancy. In particular, one of the key themes that emerged from the empirical research is the resource constraints facing voluntary sports organisations, which can make implementing change difficult.

References – limited to 5

*Please note that these interviews are ongoing. The majority of the data gathering has been completed and I can guarantee that the transcripts and analysis will be finished in good time in preparation for the conference.
Evaluation of the creation of a global sports anti-corruption body

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Aim of paper
This paper is a literature review of the recent dialogue concerning the creation of such a body. It represents the basis of a funding bid to support related empirical research to examine and evaluate the case for a ‘Global Sports Anti-Corruption Body’ being created to engage with the problem of match fixing and wider financial corruption in sport.

Theoretical background
Financial corruption in international sport federations including vote rigging and bribery, fraudulent betting including match fixing and spot fixing (manipulation of an event in a sporting event), money laundering and other criminal phenomena have become a dangerous threat to sport. Additionally, competition-related corruption involving prohibited drug use and other forms of cheating within sporting competition are prevalent.

The argument supporting the creation of such a Global Sports Anti-Corruption Body is predicated on the belief that it would be able to adopt a more coherent and wide-ranging approach to this problem than has been evident up to this point with a variety of disparate structures within sports bodies. And as with WADA, the body would be able to be part of a multi-agency approach together with law enforcement bodies such as Interpol. There would also be the opportunity to pool resources and allow the type of forensic investigation that is required to unravel the financial complexities inherent in corrupt financial dealings. Such a body if it came to fruition, would clearly be able to adopt the good exemplars, which have been developed within specific sports such as international cricket and tennis to fight corruption and match fixing. As such it would have a harmonising effect across all sport.

However, the efficacy of this approach has been questioned by some: for example elements within the betting industry believe that essentially a self-regulatory approach based on memoranda of understanding between betting companies and sports bodies on sharing of information is an effective way to detect nefarious activities. In addition it is questioned whether it is realistic that such a body could adequately respond to inherent criminality of money laundering and other activites of criminal gangs connected to match fixing. Additionally, unlike WADA that was very much a creation of the IOC and its then existing anti-doping infrastructure, it is not obvious to see where the specific political impetus will come from for the creation of an equivalent anti-corruption organisation such as the Global Sports Anti-Corruption Body.

Match fixing is a current challenge to ‘Sporting Integrity’. This is not only about the need to play a role in engaging with criminality. Sporting integrity is the ethical essence of sport. What is crucial is that good governance is the key test of the anti-corruption framework that evolves in the next few years.

Sports corruption is a complex and multifaceted area to examine. As far as the specific occurrence of match fixing in sport, there have been incidents over many years. The true extent of the problem however remains unknown. Using terminology developed in criminology, there is an unknown ‘dark figure’ of match fixing based on suspicions, allegations and undetected incidents. There is some conjecture within football and across other sports whether it is the primary threat compared to other forms of corruption such as anti-doping. There are reasonably few official determinations of match fixing, those that there are come from official investigations by sporting authorities and/or by law enforcement agencies. It has been argued that “there needs to be a much more systematic approach in recording corruption cases” (Transparency International, 2011). However, the identifiable measures of the phenomenon suggest the problem is chronic and critical.

Implications of review
Much of the support for a Global Sports Anti-Corruption Body seems to be intuitive and unsubstantiated. There is a need for a much more rigorous and reflective debate as to whether this form of sporting self-regulation is the appropriate way to proceed in the engagement with the complexities of sporting corruption.

References
Boats against the current? The past, present and future of football in Australia

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Aim
To provide a case study of the context within which football operates in Australia; the issues the sport faces; traces the past, present and future of its governance; and poses the question of whether this global sport can ever be the sport of first choice in such an idiosyncratic environment.

Practice description
This looks at football from an ‘inside, outside’ perspective as someone who has worked professionally in the game as well as been a lifelong fan, participant and observer.

Context description, actors involved
Football in Australia operates in a fairly unique set of circumstances. A sport-loving nation, football is one of four football codes in the country.

Football has many factors in its favour:
- participation at junior levels has been high for almost two decades
- girls’ and women’s participation continue to grow
- the sport has gained new fans through greater prominence on the international stage over the past six years through participation in the two most recent World Cups and Asian Cups
- the national women’s team has participated in all but one World Cup and are the current Asian champions
- the re-birth of the national domestic competition, the A-League, in 2005 has helped to attract increased sponsorship and commercial support for the game
- of the four football codes, it is the most culturally diverse and the one with arguably the best national footprint.

However, while there have been some hard won gains, the game continues to struggle on and off the field.

Despite increased revenues into the game since 2003, the governing body has run at a deficit for four out of the past eight financial years and was only able to survive at the end of 2011 due to additional ‘special assistance’ funding from the Federal Government. It received significant criticism for its failed bid for the 2022 World Cup which saw almost $50 million of public money spent for just one vote. The A-League has some avid and loyal supporters but its growth has been modest since its introduction in 2005, with A-League clubs losing a combined $25-$40 million each season. Expansion of the A-League has been spectacularly unsuccessful, other than in one instance. The game’s administrators are seen as slow, cumbersome and not necessarily in tune with, or acting in the best interests of, the game. And in the election for President and two other Board positions at the end of 2011, the incumbent was returned without an opponent – even though there was opposition.

Implications and learning
Since 1993, the governing body and the sport have been subject to a Judicial inquiry, a Senate Inquiry and two government reviews – the most recent in December last year.

In the 19 year period, the governing body has seen more financial support than ever before from government and approximately 8 different Presidents but the issues with which the game struggles, and about which there is discontent, have stayed much the same:
- the level of independence of the A-League
- the level of support for the A-League
- the lack of community engagement in the A-League
- transparency and governance of the sport overall
- lack of progress in key areas such as futsal, referees, volunteers
- an unequal relationship with FIFA, and
- lack of decision-making, lack of accountability and financial management.
European Olympic sport governance factors: a relational perspective

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Aim of abstract

Due to the number of stakeholders and their increasing expectations, the governance of European National Olympic Committees (ENOC’s) is challenging as they have to fulfill requirements from international and national bodies, which interest differ. The goal of this paper is to help better understanding of what their governance refer to in their context and what factors to take into account in a relational perspective. It also aims to highlight similarities between the ENOC’s and the European Union’s vision. The different expectations from International Olympic Committee (IOC), European Union (EU) and ENOC’s are included and valuated into a specific governance framework for ENOC’s. This paper intends to provide a consistent model of Olympic sport governance while highlighting factors and items to measure, analyze, and aiming to enhance governance of ENOC’s.

Theoretical background

The growing willingness for change and regulation emerged in the Olympic sport Movement. Despite numerous studies on governance in sport, there is still a gap for what concerns the relational aspect of Olympic sport governance. This research uses the theory of the three interrelated approaches of governance by Henry and Lee (2004) (i.e., systemic, organizational and political) underlining that organizations are challenged by their environment. This aspect is crucial because organizations exist in interaction and relations with their environment which includes for the most part their stakeholders, partners, competitors. Relations of the ENOC’s with both IOC and EU are essential. The recommendations of the Olympic Charter [2011] are balanced with the expectations of EU which started to intervene in sport once it was considered to be an economic activity (Chappelet, 2010). To match with expectations and recommendations, ten factors of governance are highlighted according to the literature on governance of FPO, NPO and Olympic sport organizations (IOC, 2008). It is assumed that these factors are crucial for assessing and enhancing relational governance of ENOC’s.

After selecting a set of governance factors in the literature, we submitted them to experts through a focus group discussion. Key factors of relational sport governance were assessed through an online survey. The survey, sent to the general secretaries of all the 49 ENOC’s, aimed to measure and to enhance the relations between ENOC’s, the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and the European Commission.

A Principal Component Analysis was used to construct scales of governance factors, validated by Cronbach’s alpha. Pearson correlation coefficients were finally used to analyze the relationship between factors and components in a three dimensional perspective (Henry & Lee, 2004).

Results

All components of each factor are consistent (α >.70). The first dimension of Henry and Lee – the organizational governance - includes ethic (e.g. following an ethical chart), equity (e.g. being based on quotas or competencies), democracy (e.g. presence of clear rules and process), relational transparency (e.g. internal transparency), power (e.g. using and having an organizational chart) and involvement of athletes (e.g. current consideration for athletes). The second dimension – the systemic governance - includes collaboration (e.g. collaboration with external and national Olympic organizations) and communication (e.g. good exchange of information with the IOC). Finally, the third dimension – the political governance - covers only one factor: the subsidiarity (e.g. respect of European Union intervention)

For the factors, only ethics (α = .723), involvement of athletes (α = .814), subsidiarity (α = .701) and collaboration (α = .643) are consistent (Amis et al., 2004).

Notwithstanding the fact that the IOC vision of sport differs from the one of the European Union, the results showed by ENOC’s under the application of Lisbon Treaty – members of EU - and the ENOC’s from non EU countries have many governance practices in common. Only two components differ between the two groups: external delegation of responsibility (r=.32; p≤.05) and respect for the intervention of the European Union in sport (r=.008; p≤.01).

Discussion

Results show components and factors of Olympic sport governance which give ENOC’s the opportunity to meet the expectations of their main stakeholders (IOC, EU and other ENOC’s). This research provides information to integrate Olympic decisions in the 49 European countries. Further researches in the field of sport governance could use the framework we developed in this paper to assess the quality of the relational governance between the ENOC’s and their main stakeholders, accordingly to national and cultural differences and to the importance each ENOC gives to each factor.

References:

A contribution to good enough governance of European sports federations: from conceptualisation to deconstruction

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“Good Governance” is widely promoted by European public authorities as a means for structural, processual and ethical transformation of international non-profit sports organisations (ISO) facing corruption or mis-management. The European Council and the European Olympic Committees (EOC) with the Fédération Internationale de l’Automobile (FIA) have provided a first set of principles, such as transparency, accountability or democracy, in 2000 and 2001 respectively. However, more than ten years later, European public authorities still ask ISOs to comply with such principles, when in parallel these are either creating special governance committees or their own principles.

This sporting and political activism shows that there is not yet a consensus on the consolidation of such principles and even less on their application. To date, once ISOs and European public authorities have identified a problem in a given circumstance and a need to react, many uncertainties remain about the effective means for its resolution. It seems like the process starting with the definition towards the implementation of good governance has frozen at the first stage, and that a reflection on the implementation phase is still lacking. Three potential reasons may be addressed here. First, the complexity of the European sports system and its multiple chains of accountability between various stakeholders do not allow the implementation of universal principles. Second, many of the principles or lists of principles that are proposed are too ambitious. Third, there remains an inconsistency on the legal status of the principles. Accordingly, the author argues that ISOs need “good enough governance” (Grindle, 2004), a stance that can be seen as more realistic. On this basis, the question is by which means a European level sports organisation can achieve good enough governance? The author assumes that in order to provide a heuristic answer, it is necessary to adopt a methodological framework on the basis of four dimensions:

1. A consistent knowledge of the European sports system and the relations among its stakeholders
2. A solid theoretic basis for good enough governance
3. A reflexive deconstruction of the concept into attributes and measurable indicators
4. Defining a systematic process of monitoring

The aim of this contribution is to load good enough governance with conceptual substance as well as deconstructed attributes and indicators. Fortunately good governance has been extensively conceptualized in non-profit, corporate, and development studies. Different non-European countries such as Canada, Australia, South Africa and New Zealand have extracted the theoretical groundings of the first two to be applied to sports organisations. However, in both situations, scholars have identified several shortcomings, notably on the empirical value of the Carver policy governance model for non-profit organizations (Haye & Cuskeley, 2003; Mowbray, 2012) and the potential inconsistencies between corporate and non-profit values, missions and strategies (Alexander & Weiner, 1998). The underlying premise is that democratic governance is a potential fertile soil for the deconstruction of concepts as well as identifying salient indicators of measurement, notwithstanding the recognition that international sports organisations have both, a public and a private dimension. They are for the vast majority of them non-profit associations under Swiss Law and some have features typically found in corporate boards and governments (Forster & Pope, 2004).

This contribution is part of a wider project on good governance of ISOs. It will provide a theoretical grounding to be empirically tested on seven European sports federations that have their legal seat in Switzerland and live in Luxembourg.

References
How Czech sport lost a cash cow: A Case study of governance failure leading to crisis of Czech sport

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Aim of abstract/paper
Czech sport is facing hard times and substantial decrease in revenues. National sports organizations (NSOs) have lost 13% of revenues due to bankruptcy of the largest lottery company Sazka. The company Sazka had been sending over 40 million EUR to Czech sport every year. Since 1993 Sazka was owned and governed by NSOs until 2011 when Sazka was declared bankrupt. Due to their own governance failure NSOs lost all the revenues from Sazka and consequently the very existence of many NSOs and individual sports clubs is threatened. This critical state of affairs is broadly termed as Crisis of Czech sport. The aim of this paper is to shed light on the primary causes of the bankruptcy and to analyse governance failures of Czech NSOs which lead to Crisis of Czech sport.

Theoretical background
Ownership of Sazka by all NSOs represents a case of widely dispersed ownership. Dispersed ownership results in exercise of ownership rights through elected representatives and thus dispersed ownership leads to loss of control. In such case, perfectly working board elected by owners (NSOs) is very important, because the board “governs the organization on behalf of the owners and is responsible for strategic direction and performance of the organization, the allocation of resources, the assessment of risk, compliance of legal obligation and reporting back to the legal owners” (Australian Sports Commission, 2005, p. 1). This definition is represented by six key principals of good governance [National Council for Voluntary Organisation, 2005]. Furthermore, good governance must be associated with trust between board and executive (Taylor & O'Sullivan, 2009), good board-executive relationship (Hoye & Cuskelly, 2003) and clear separation of responsibilities of board and executive (Jensen & Fuller, 2002).

Cultural and economical background must be taken into account. After 1989 Czech Republic and many Eastern European countries went through a shift from communism to capitalism. The shift caused fundamental political, economic and cultural transformation which significantly affected organization of sport too (NSOs took over Sazka). These countries often struggle with transparency and special guidelines were published by some governing associations (e.g. European Non-Governmental Sports Organisation) to provide framework for sports organizations. Hence, transparency was assessed as a significant factor.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The case study research design was employed subject to following conditions: a complex issue was analysed, explanation of causes was required, the author had no control of behaviour events and the study was focused on contemporary events. Data were collected through combination of document analysis and interviews. All available governance document were analysed such as constitutions, annual reports, board meeting reports, employment contracts and many other relevant documents. Interviews were conducted with board members of Sazka (appointed by NSOs) and with NSOs’ board members.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
There is one broadly accepted cause of the bankruptcy of Sazka which is construction and financing of multi-purpose arena. The construction expenses exceeded the plans substantially and Sazka was not able to pay off the instalments of the obligations secured for the financing of the arena. However, this was just a tip of the iceberg and three primary causes were identified beyond. The primary causes are linked with board comprised the representatives of Czech NSOs. First, strong executive was recognized with all attributes and consequences. The board failed to ensure top-level control mechanism when the CEO dominated not only the company but also commanded the board. To illustrate, most members of board had no notion of CEO’s remuneration which was obviously excessive, even in comparison with the best top managers’ remuneration. Second, low transparency was revealed which prevented all stakeholders from possibility to monitor the events within the company. This is in accordance with previous author’s findings on generally low transparency in Czech sport governance. Third, the Czech Republic government failed to provide control rights too – the construction of the arena was approved as public interest and the government was obliged to ratify distribution of Sazka’s profit every year. All these causes lead to massive overcharging of contracts and huge waste money by management (mostly by CEO).

In summary, the largest lottery company went bankrupt despite flourishing core business. As a result, Czech NSOs lost the cash cow securing revenues over 40 million EUR because they were not able to express their ownership rights.

References
Workshop:

Volunteering in sport
Voluntary engagement in sports clubs:
between rational calculation and social commitment

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Abstract keywords
Voluntary engagement, sports clubs, organisational factors, volunteer job satisfaction, social commitment

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
Volunteers are the most important resource for non-profit sports clubs seeking to bolster their viability (e.g. sporting programs). Although many people do voluntary work in sports clubs, stable voluntary engagement can no longer be assumed. This predicament is confirmed by existing research across various countries (see Wicker & Breuer, 2011). From a club management point of view, a detailed understanding of how to attract volunteers and retain them in the long term is a high priority.

The central importance of volunteering in the work of sports clubs gives rise to the need to identify organisational factors that motivate engagement in voluntary work. In this context the commitment to a sports club as well as volunteer job satisfaction play critical roles in ongoing voluntary engagement, as already shown for sports clubs in Switzerland (Egli, et al. 2011). The purpose of this paper is to analyse the influence of these factors on volunteers in sports clubs in Germany. Aside from comparing the factors influencing these two countries, differences between volunteers with various expectations concerning their voluntary work is identified.

Theoretical background or literature review
Economic approaches with reliance on utility maximization models are unable to precisely explain decision-making behaviour observed in volunteer work for sports clubs. Esser's "frame selection approach" has the objective of providing an integrated methodology, and offers a possibility to bridge crucial gaps in explaining this behaviour. The risk of termination is formalised as a decision based on both rational calculation and social norms. The stability of voluntary work (intention to remain) is modelled on the basis of individual expectations and an evaluation of the volunteer in relation to voluntary work conditions and the specific organisational commitment to the sports club. It is assumed that the degree of work satisfaction and identification with the club are positively correlated to the intention to remain (Schlesinger & Nagel, 2011).

Methodology, research design and data analysis
Evaluation of the hypothesised developed relationships is based on two studies of sports clubs in Switzerland and Germany. In Switzerland n= 441 volunteers of n=45 sports clubs were studied using an online questionnaire. The same design was used in Germany (n= 179 volunteers of n=8 sports clubs). In light of theoretical considerations, expectations of particular working conditions in the sports club were collected with a measure inventory of 27 items and then reduced by exploratory factor analysis (principal components analysis, varimax rotation) to seven dimensions. The volunteer satisfaction was measured against these dimensions. Furthermore, these seven factors were subjected to a cluster analysis (Ward method, Squared Euclidean distance) to determine typical volunteer profiles. Validated measurement instruments used in existing sports club studies have been used to acquire commitment to the sports club (Nagel, 2006).

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
Results confirmed the validity of the hypotheses to analyse voluntary commitment in sports clubs in Switzerland and Germany. They show that the risk of terminating volunteering was determined by both instrumental considerations (satisfaction with expected volunteering conditions) and normative aspects (social and collective interest). These correlations are valid in a similar way for various types of volunteer with different expectations of working conditions. Findings suggest that in future, sports clubs should give more attention to volunteer retention by creating voluntary work conditions according to the volunteers’ needs, and to identification management. The intention to remain in voluntary work can therefore be stabilised.

References – limited to 5
Succumbing to individualism or moving ahead in new directions? – The case of voluntarism in Danish sports clubs

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Keywords: Volunteering in sport, recruiting and retaining volunteers, sport specific challenges

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
Are Danish sport clubs – relying heavily on volunteers – threatened on their existence as individualism gains ground in modern society?
The study looks into this overarching question by asking further: What is the extent and characteristics of volunteering in Danish sports clubs and what are the challenges to recruiting and retaining a sufficient number of volunteers?

Theoretical background
The widespread notion of individualism dominating social interaction in modern society often fuels theory on the decay of altruism, volunteering and general participation in close communities, most notably in the works of American Robert Putnam (2001). However, this argumentation does not stand alone and in a Scandinavian context numerous scholars have argued, that volunteering is alive and well, though adapting to new social realities (Lorentzen 2001; Ibsen 2006; Torpe 2011).

Methodology, research design and data analysis
This study represents the largest ever Danish survey on volunteering in sports with 5,204 clubs having answered the tenpage questionnaire. This constitutes a response rate of 50.4 pct. and offers extensive insight into a number of different aspects of the clubs’ membership base, activities, economy and facilities and how these relate to volunteering on different levels. Data analysis is done both by linear regression analysis and simpler statistics.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
A majority of the sport clubs in the study seem to support the notion of societal changes making it difficult to recruit volunteers. 72 pct. say that ‘People are too self-interested to take on volunteer tasks’ and around half of the sports clubs agree that most member are unwilling to be volunteers and that there is a general lack of status in and appreciation of volunteering in society at large.

Nevertheless, the study still questions whether volunteering is in decline or, rather, undergoing changes towards new forms of volunteer engagement. A number of common denominators are identified in successful sports clubs, suggesting that to a large extent sports clubs can themselves shape their fate when it comes to recruiting and retaining volunteers. Regression analysis identifies club satisfaction with economy and facilities as two such denominators. Clubs size (number of members) and the level of members’ participation social activities in the clubs are two other. Sports clubs engaged in different types of sport vary consistently on these parameters, suggesting that volunteering challenges are largely connected to the type of sport in the clubs. The study, therefore, looks further into the different basis for and challenges with recruiting and retaining volunteers in different types of sports. These types of sports are categorized in three groups: Team sports (such as football and handball), activity sports (such as rowing, boxing and cycling) and recreational sports (such as tennis, golf and swimming).

Lastly, formulating a general strategy on how to tackle the challenges of recruiting and retaining volunteers is found to have a very significant positive effect on the clubs’ success in that area. Still, less than one in ten clubs do form and employ a formal strategy. This forms the outset for a number of recommendations on recruiting and retaining volunteers in sports clubs, supplementing the conclusions of the study. That volunteering in sport is not declining but changing, presenting the clubs with different challenges in the future.

References
Changes in voluntary sports clubs

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Abstract keywords
voluntary sports clubs volunteering civil society commercialisation adaption municipalities democracy

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
The aim of the abstract is to examine if and how changes in civil society discussed below have had consequences for:

1. The expectations of members and volunteers to their respective sports clubs (request for new activities, flexibility, etc.)
2. The participation of members and volunteers in the various activities (sports club democracy, social activities, etc.)
3. The willingness of members and volunteers to dedicate themselves to voluntary work (formal and/or ad hoc)

Theoretical background or literature review*
The number of participants in sport and exercise is growing — in general and specifically within voluntary sports clubs, who have more members than ever before. The number of members is still inclining, and new clubs are regularly born. Furthermore, recent studies on volunteering show that volunteerism in sport is not in decline. On the contrary, volunteering civil society.

Despite these positive developments, voluntary sports clubs are challenged by a number of changes in civil society. Firstly, a lot of participants — mainly adult — have found new ways of participating in sport that fit their everyday life better than traditional activities in sports clubs. Secondly, sports clubs are increasingly exposed to competition from commercially organised sport providers. Thirdly, the relationship of sports clubs to municipalities has changed with an increasing demand for cooperation and the participation of sports clubs in the goal achievement of the public sector.

Even though the above mentioned challenges have thus far not led to a declining number of participants in voluntary organised sport, recent studies on participation in sport show that a growing number of people do sport outside the world of voluntary organised sport. People are increasingly self-organised or do commercially organised sport. Hence, it seems as if voluntary sports clubs increasingly have to compete for participants in sport on what can be characterised as a “market for sport”, even if a majority of sports clubs do not see themselves as in competition with, for instance, commercially organized sport providers.

This development has given rise to a debate concerning, firstly, whether or not voluntary sports clubs will be able to adapt to the changes in civil society described above, and, secondly, what implications such an adaption will have for the values and organizational traditions that voluntary sports clubs have traditionally been based upon.

Regarding the first debate, this abstract departs from the theoretical viewpoint that organizational populations, here voluntary sports clubs, are capable of adapting to changing environments and new requirements caused by, for instance, an increased competition on a market for sport. Nevertheless, the population of sports clubs is diverse, and within such a population there are large differences in both the pressure to adapt and in the capacity to adapt. Hence, the level and kind of adaption will be very different.

The second debate will be the primary focus of this abstract. The main question is what consequences — if any — the changes in civil society have had for the relation between the members and volunteers and their respective sports clubs. Has there been a change in expectations, participation and willingness to do voluntary work among members and volunteers?

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The analyses of the above questions will be based on a survey study done in 30 voluntary sports clubs of different sizes and within different sports in Denmark. A total of more than 3,500 members and 800 volunteers have been asked to participate in the study, which is being completed at the moment. It is estimated that the response rate will be at least 40% for members and slightly higher for volunteers. The study will be completed April 2012, and, hence, the results will be available well in time for the conference.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions**
Not yet available, but they will be well in time for the conference.

References — limited to 5

The consumerist turn in voluntary sports clubs

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Abstract keywords
consumerism, voluntary sports clubs, club management, volunteering, participation, citizenship

Aim
Since the end of the nineteenth century sports activities in the Netherlands as well as in other countries have been organized in voluntary clubs. The organizing principles of these clubs have gone largely unchanged ever since. Voluntary sports clubs typically are nonprofit organizations, organized around democratic decision-making and commitment of its members to govern the club (Ibsen & Seippel, 2010). However, since the end of the 1990s policy makers have made attempts to modernize clubs along a consumerist agenda. Because policy makers expect people to behave increasingly as consumers, they put emphasis on quality of service and flexibilization of the sports supply. However, these innovations seem to be contradictory to the foundations of voluntary sports clubs, where production and consumption of sporting goods go hand in hand. This research aims to explore the consequences of the consumerist turn on participation and commitment in voluntary sports clubs.

Theoretical background
The tendency of people to behave as consumers has received a lot of attention in academic literature, which mainly deals with paradoxes around consumption and production in shopping behaviour and the influence of advertising in modern society. This research focuses on the rise of the demanding and sceptical consumer in voluntary sports clubs. A similar trend has been observed in the creation of citizen-consumers in public services (Clarke, Newman, Smith, Vidler & Westmarland, 2007). Clarke et al. (2007) describe the citizen-consumer as a figure that expects to exercise choice in public services just as the way he is used to in the ‘consumer society’.

In order to increase the possibilities for exercising choice, voluntary sports clubs are pressured to make their supply more flexible. Clubs increasingly offer short-term memberships and introduce new forms of sports supply. Because large clubs have more opportunities to adapt to the consumerist turn, they are expected to profit from this. As a consequence, the divide between small clubs and big clubs will increase.

It is yet unknown what consequences will follow from the attempts to modernize voluntary sports clubs. Functions that are ascribed to voluntary sports clubs, like those of ‘schools in democracy’ and builders of social capital (Putnam, 2000), may be put under pressure. Besides, the internal commitment that is necessary to govern the club might also suffer from these modernizing attempts. Enjolras (2002, p. 373) warns against changing attitudes of members of sports clubs as they might undermine the foundations of these organizations.

In this study, the attempts of voluntary sports clubs to address members in an increasingly consumerist way is explored and it is questioned whether such efforts change the participation and commitment of members.

Methods
This study relies on analysis of data collected in the Netherlands in 2007 and 2008. In 2007 online questionnaires were filled out by 870 (board members of) voluntary sports clubs (response rate = 65%) and in 2008 by 664 clubs (response rate = 51%). The questionnaire is part of a general monitor that provides a range of information about voluntary sports clubs in the Netherlands. Questions address demographic, organizational, and financial details about clubs, as well as information on volunteering. The monitor is carried out by the Mulier Institute, centre for research on sports in society. At this time, analyses are still being carried out, so the followed procedures are not fully available yet. These procedures will be ready to present at the EASM conference.

Results, discussion, implications
The first results of (regression) analysis on the data show that flexibilization of membership forms and the organizational size of the club have a negative impact on democratic participation in voluntary sports clubs. There is however no evidence of an effect of these variables on (emotional) commitment to voluntary sports clubs. Full results of the analyses are ready to present at the EASM conference.

References
- Simon & Schuster
Understanding commercialisation of amateur sport – the Danish history

Based on PhD dissertation - see (Kirkegaard, 2012).

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Research question
How can the historical development of the fitness culture be understood and what is the significance of the commercial fitness culture for the organisation of amateur sports in general in Denmark?

Theoretical background
The first part of the research question takes a historical approach, aiming to closely examine the roots of the fitness culture, its organisational structures, as well as a number of central individuals, events, periods, places, products and concepts. The historical approach is primarily a qualitative insight into the history of the fitness culture entitled ‘From pumping iron to popular movement’. The second part of the research question leads to a more analytical sports-political perspective, addressing questions about the fitness culture as a number of commercialisation trends within amateur sports in general, by which the commercialisation market of the fitness culture has a ‘flow-on effect’ to the logics of the non-profit organisation of sport. This could be called ‘the commercialisation of amateur sports in general – from amateur club to professional business’.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The dissertation has been written on the basis of the science-theory and philosophical beliefs of pragmatism and neo-pragmatism. It takes into account that pragmatism is the belief that the rationality of history is primarily an expression of the sender’s interest in and desire to construct and present history in a specific way.

The overall need is to be able to maintain a constructive yet meaningful and cohesive narrative about ‘me and society’. This means that history cannot be seen as an objective discipline as it is a retelling of an event influenced by a psychological thought processes and an aspiration to find stability and cohesion. The history of the commercial fitness culture should therefore also be understood in the context of this theoretical framework.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
The history of the fitness sector can be described briefly as this development, or transition, from the man’s fascination and focus on muscle development to the woman’s desire to be physically active and exercise. In other words, there is a transition from pumping iron to a popular movement.

A number of male-dominated sports and body cultures in the early 1900s in particular prevailed over the fitness culture of the time. This meant that clubs established for physical exercise rapidly became filled with well-toned and shaped healthy body were left with little space to carry out their exercises. In addition, contemporary body-builders did not have the same need for organisation in club life, which seems to explain why they did not fight as hard to safeguard their political interests as sports clubs and associations did in general.

However the process of commercialisation and its increasing influence on the club/association-dominated culture of sport enabled a fledgling concept and product development with a close relationship to new body-aesthetical health orientations. These activities primarily included basic training, bodybuilding, fitness and weight training on machines, aerobics and spinning. The organisation and sale of these products led to a commercial breakthrough for the fitness culture in the 1980s. As a result of this, the male focus on muscle mass became increasingly overshadowed by female keep-fit enthusiasts. Today women are the largest group of and most satisfied customers in commercial exercise facilities within the fitness culture (Kirkegaard, 2009).

The second focus about ‘the commercialisation of amateur sports in general – from amateur club to professional business’, addresses a number of analytical and political ideas and perspectives regarding the status and trends in amateur sports. The focus is on the logics and rationales of the commercial fitness culture that fundamentally questions many of the basic values of traditional non-profit club sports. Today both the national sport organisations and many of the local non-profit clubs are facing a number of choices: Either to copy the successful fitness culture, or to maintain focus on its own traditions, history and the principle concerning voluntariness. In the shadow of this development the two various sports traditions and organisations come into conflict with each other in the struggle for market share (members), political goodwill, and the future organisation of amateur sport.

Reference List

Succession planning for volunteers – does it work?

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Aim of the paper
Recognised as being important for "issues of sustainability and competitive advantage in relation to employees and volunteers" (Taylor, Doherty & McGraw 2008:226), succession planning is an integral part of human resource management. It is key to the successful retention of existing talent as well as the development of new talent to move organisational strategy forward.

This paper applies this ‘business’ concept to a specific case study of volunteer management. Often short-term and ad-hoc, volunteers are seldom seen as part of the voluntary organisation’s strategic strength and yet, as we will see from the data presented, there may be ways to utilise the abilities and knowledge of volunteers to provide competitive advantage and resource stability, if they are managed well.

Current volunteer management theory is beginning to demonstrate acceptance of the need for effective succession planning (see McKee & McKee [2008] for a ‘modern’ perspective). This presentation suggests that – for key roles at least – if it were to become a consistent part of the volunteer manager’s toolkit, it could save voluntary organisations heartache and overload, and enhance the volunteers experience.

Background and literature
CIPD (succession planning factsheet, June 2011) suggests that "There is no one model for succession planning, … and there are no hard-and-fast rules. But what is indisputable is that all organisations need leaders and managers with a range of experience." Within the field of volunteer management, the problem is often that volunteers stay for insufficient time and leave the burden with a small handful of ‘stalwarts’ (Cuskelly 2004), not allowing the problem of succession planning to become anything more than an ‘emergency planning’ exercise. Taylor & McGraw suggest that a ‘robust succession system … ensures continuity in key positions through the retention and development of knowledge and human capital for the future’ (in eds. Robinson & Palmer 2011: 92) Best practice writing suggests that succession should link with talent management to encourage the ‘cream’ or the organisation to float to the top and be developed to take on senior or vital roles as vacancies become available. This presentation takes this literature basis and applies it to an organisation with many volunteer ‘stalwarts’ to assess the situation with regard to succession and talent management in one particular case.

Methodology
A regional management role in one organisation was identified as being suitable for this study – it is a National role in the case study organisation, occupied exclusively by volunteers. There is a fully worked up role description and person specification and the role holders are selected on the basis of their ‘fit’ to the organisation, their knowledge of the work of the organisation and their ability to gain the trust and co-operation of the Groups they need to work with.

This provides a close parallel to the ‘business’ comparators used in much of the HR literature.

A survey was constructed with the case study organisation which consisted of both open and closed questions, around the topics of attitudes to succession and to check subject’s understanding of the role. The survey was administered by email and invitations were sent out to all incumbents of the role (population size: 63).

33 Responses were received and these were coded for content by the first author. Patterns and themes which emerged are reported in this presentation.

Results
Data presented in this paper suggests that volunteers are in general happy to consider successors but loathe to hand-over responsibility for their roles. Power and affiliation motives are clearly at work. There is evidence of burn-out and over-commitment in this group of volunteers, which makes the findings more interesting – and concerning – and demonstrates a strong cultural norm within the case study organisation.

Also of interest are the volunteers’ conceptions of their own skills relevant to the role and those skills they would like to see in their potential successor. This provides suggestions for further research in the area.

This paper develops ideas presented at EASM 2011 by the first author.

References
Workshop:

ESMQ 2013 Special Issue:
Value co-creation in sport management
The sport value framework – a new fundamental logic for analyses in sport management

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Abstract keywords
Sport Value Framework, Value Configuration, Value Co-Creation, Service-Dominant Logic, Sport Management Models

Management models and the nature of sport management
Many sport management approaches are based on economic theory which characterizes sport competitions as team production processes. Therefore, sport market models interpret sport as something which is “produced” (Parks, Quarterman, & Thibault, 2011). In Parks et al.’s (2011) textbook, for example, three different models are used to describe the sport industry. These models are based on the understanding of sports competition as a production process with more or less additional services.

However, a number of unique characteristics in sport management (e.g., mixture of volunteers and professionals, coopetition, events sold directly and via different media, emotional customers) are not reflected in these models. Therefore, our conceptual work will address some of these characteristics and show why using alternative models of value creation will lead to better analyses, and hence, to better strategies in sport management.

We will use sport events as an example. However, the sport value framework (SVF) we develop should be understood as a general approach for analyses in sport management.

Value configurations in sport management
Porter’s value chain framework (1985) is the common standard for the analysis of value creation in sport organisations. For sport events, the primary activities of the value chain have to be rearranged because events are sold before they are produced. Moreover, two or more value chains (one for each team involved) have to be connected.

The core of value creation through sport events lies in coordinating activities (linking teams or athletes who compete). The transformation of inputs into products as captured in the value chain does not sufficiently explain value creation in this case.

Hence, more suitable value configuration models (value shops, value networks) must be applied (Stabell & Fjeldstad, 1998). Particularly, the ‘value network’ should be used for the analysis of sport events because it sees the event organiser as a mediator who links different partners in order to create the event (Woratschek & Schafmeister, 2005).

Service-dominant logic
The alternative value configurations presented above are a first step towards a better understanding of the nature of sport management. However, these approaches assume that value is produced by firms and delivered to the customers. But, in sport events the fans themselves contribute considerably to the value created. For some fans the competition itself is even not important at all. In marketing literature, this joint value creation by firms, organisations and the customer is referred to as “value co-creation” which is one of the central tenets of the service-dominant logic (SDL) (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). SDL argues that ‘service’ (the application of knowledge) is at the centre of economic exchange. In our opinion, SDL provides insights which have the potential to better help us to understand sport management problems and therefore, we will build on it in our conceptual work.

Value configurations and SDL
If SDL is used as a lens through which we look at sport events, it is obvious that value is co-created by firms and the fans. Therefore, the value creation configurations have to be further developed, which we will demonstrate using sport events as value networks as an example.

First, an event is a value proposition of the organiser and all firms involved to the customer (the fan) who determines value. Second, the supply side is a (value) network of various organisations (value chains, shops, and networks) which jointly offer the sport event. Third, the demand side consists of different customer segments. Consequently, value creation occurs within a complex system which needs to be accounted for in sport management models.

Evolving a sport value framework
Based on these considerations, we propose a sport value framework (SVF), which allows a better understanding of phenomena in sport management. The sport value framework consists of different levels depending on the analyser’s perspective.

Level 1 illustrates the relationships in the market system according to SDL in a holistic way. Level 2a shows the different roles of social and economic actors on the supply side and level 2b those on the demand side as well as their relationships. Level 3 is focused on the analysis of single social and economic actors. This level is the link to existing approaches in (sport) marketing, where we find a rich body of research dedicated to an understanding of the actors in the field of sport. We think, building this bridge between traditional sport marketing and management thinking and our newly developed SVF is important, because the perspectives of the levels 1 and 2 are new in sport management.

References
“Identification and re-engagement of lapsed consumers”: empirical studies in the fitness industry

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Introduction
In a previous study by this author, only 52% of Irish health and fitness providers source why members discontinue membership of health clubs. Strauss and Friege (1999) emphasise the value of recaptured customers through their regain management model while Bolton et al., (2000) and Thomas et al., (2004) suggest that price impacts upon the reactivation of lapsed customers. Homburg et al., (2007) note customer and relational characteristics as antecedents of revival performance while Robinson et al., (2010) build on this model.

Aim
This study seeks to:

1. Identify factors influencing the propensity of members to lapse or discontinue membership of health clubs (Study 1)
2. Examine factors influencing the propensity of lapsed members to reactivate or re-engage with health clubs (Study 1)
3. Test reactivation incentives to reengage the lapsed member market (Study 2)

The conceptual framework above proposes to test the following hypothesis:

H1 Intention to repurchase is negatively influenced by high variety seeking members who are more likely to exit and less likely to reengage
H2 Intention to repurchase is positively influenced by member involvement with frequent attendees less likely to exit and more likely to reengage
H3 Intention to repurchase is positively influenced by age with older members less likely to exit and more likely to reengage
H4 Intention to repurchase is negatively influenced by previous purchasing behavior with members who have a history of switching clubs more likely to exit and less likely to reengage
H5 Intention to repurchase is positively influenced by duration of membership with longer term members more likely to reengage
H6 Intention to repurchase is positively influenced by satisfaction levels with members reporting high satisfaction levels less likely to exit and more likely to reengage

Research methodology & preliminary findings

Study 1 involved a mail survey of 100 lapsed members to identify factors influencing the propensity of health club members to lapse or discontinue membership of health clubs. A 38% response rate was recorded.

Preliminary results
An initial descriptive analysis of the survey revealed that 66% reported the club could have done nothing to prevent them discontinuing membership while 85% had not rejoined another health club since discontinuing membership. 54% would consider rejoining the same health club if offered an incentive such as a price reduction (38%) or salon gift token (8%). Study 2 seeks to test these reactivation incentives to reengage the lapsed member market.

Further analysis of study 1 will involve a more comprehensive analysis of the findings in order to test the hypothesis outlined in the conceptual framework above and will be available for conference presentation if accepted.

Study 2 involves an experimental design to test incentives to reactivate the lapsed member market who will be offered a postal incentive of price reduction or salon gift token to entice reactivation of membership. The findings will be available for conference presentation if accepted.

Implications & conclusion to date
Clearly the lapsed member market represents a unique opportunity for health and fitness providers to recover lost business with 54% of lapsed members in this study reporting to be predisposed to re-engage. Study 2 proposes to test this lapsed member market and willingness to reengage by offering reactivation incentives which provides a more...
cost effective means for health and fitness providers to gain business in what is an increasingly competitive industry. Further analysis of study 1 and completion and analysis of study 2 will provide for a more thorough discussion of results/findings and implications for research and industry.

References
Customer-to-customer interaction in service eco-systems – measuring its contribution to customer value and the customers’ willingness-to-pay for in case of a sport event provision

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Abstract keywords
services marketing, customer-to-customer interaction, crowding, value co-creation, service-dominant logic

Aim of abstract/paper - research question

A lot of services offered, so-called collective services, are used by a group simultaneously, e.g., public transport, a theatre play etc. In these cases (and a lot of others, of course,) customers usually interact with each other – and therefore they can one another disturb and/or enhance the service quality perceived (e.g. Grove & Fisk, 1997).

The purpose of this paper is to open up customer-to-customer-interaction (CCI) for a specific collective service: sport event provision. We focused on the “bright” side of CCI and, therefore, on answering the following two research questions:

1. How much is the contribution to customer value that stems from CCI?
2. What is a customer willing-to-pay for CCI?

Theoretical background

Following Service-Dominant Logic the users of a collective service form a service eco-system – understood as a specific arrangement of resources that interact to co-create value (Lusch, Vargo & Tanniru, 2010). Resources can also be people, e.g. friends, family members or strangers – or, as in our case, visitors of a sport event: They interact and produce jointly the atmosphere at the location. Firms are well-advised to try to manage such service eco-systems.

According to Feehan (2006), in case of a sport event, the customer value due to CCI is the result of what he calls the “crowding-in effect”: Crowding-in effects “assume that consumer utility depends upon how full the stadium is (that is, capacity utilization) in that a capacity crowd improves the atmosphere at the game and adds to the sense of occasion” (p. 95).

Methodology, research design and data analysis

As object for investigation we chose matches of a club of the first German football league, a collective service that on average 50,000 customers consume simultaneously. We interviewed football fans in the region of the club we cooperated with (n=781). The survey form, ten pages in length, included demographic information, questions about the respondent’s sport consumption and the task to evaluate nine offerings (four attributes with each three levels including a measure for expected degree of capacity utilization). To determine the (relative) contribution of CCI to customer value and to estimate the willingness-to-pay we analysed the data by applying a conjoint analysis (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006; Jedidi & Zhang, 2002).

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions

Companies offering service eco-systems might be able to commercialize CCI: 21% of customer value is according to our findings due to CCI. The club’s customers are up to pay – on average – additional 10 Euro for the best level of CCI, i.e. for a match that is expected to be a sold out.

The paper offers a conncptual as well as methodological basis for the measurement of co-created value in all forms of spectator sport.

References

Exploring coopetition strategies in sport tourism: the central role of non-for-profit nautical sports clubs of the northern french coast

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Aim
This paper studies the implementing of coopetition strategies between nautical sports clubs. More specifically, it is hypothesized that the non-for-profit organizations - thereafter called associations - draw from their capacity to work with competitors to overcome their internal weaknesses (i.e. amateurism with regards to supervision and administration as well as financing problems).

First, this contribution reveals the existence of coopetition within the sector. Second, the external development opportunities result in a panel of observable strategies which are described and discussed. Such strategies involve interplay between private non-for-profit, private for-profit and public organizations.

Theoretical background
Coopetition is a neologism that defines a hybrid behavior of cooperation and of competition within a firm, between firms or at the scale of the network. It aims to create a value by fending off competitors, pooling resources and/or exchanging ideas (Dagnino & Rocco, 2009).

Emerging research on professional sport shows that clubs from league 1 simultaneously implement strategies of collaboration and competition during the season. Robert et al. (2009) identified that football clubs benefited financially from negotiating some resources together. They also suggest a typology of three types of clubs: the efficient (they keep their players and rarely use coopetition strategies), the merchandiser (strongly benefit from merchandizing), and the coopetitor. For the latter type, results show that clubs favoring cooperative coopetition insured very good financial profitability while having access to top players. This research also emphasizes the role of the professional governing bodies (here the Fédération Française de Football) in the optimization of crucial resources such as broadcasting rights. Vernhet et al. (2011) also postulate that such coopetitive strategies can also be mediated through the leagues, acting as brokers for the clubs. Both studies identify coopetitive strategies and introduces the concepts of imposed cooperation and induced coopetition. Building upon this research, Kylanen & Ruska (2011) identify intentional and unintentional coopetitive behaviors between for-profit companies and between these companies and the public sector at a Finnish tourism destination (Jyväskylä). Their findings suggest that such coopetitive strategies had a positive effect on competencies, marketing efficiency, and strategic regional development.

Methodology
An in-depth qualitative approach was used for the study as it is consistent with our exploratory and descriptive aim. Therefore, on-site observation, both participatory and non-participatory, has been undertaken along with text-based data gathering and semi-structured interviews (n=12) [seven associations (non-for-profit) as well as four public organizations and one for-profit company working with nautical sports associations]. The clubs have been chosen based on the quality of their development (their capacity to hire and the size of their budget). Each interview was conducted within the framework of a SWOT analysis (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats), in order to identify the external factors (conjuncture, competition/cooperation, customers) and the internal factors (management, equipment, manpower, money, marketing) that influence the strategy. Each interview lasted between 4.5 minutes and 1.45 hours, and was the subject of an analysis following the protocol: study of the professions, general policies, financial analysis, SWOT analysis of each domain of strategic activity, synthesis.

Results and discussion
Six types of coopetition strategies are described, and advantages and disadvantages of each observed type are discussed. The following examples illustrate the findings.

1. Simple horizontal network coopetition among associations presented the advantages of blocking of sporting competitors at the national or international level and sharing of experience and knowledge of sporting competition. However, it also presented the disadvantage of aiding other participating organizations in beating one another (potential social and financial negative impact which could out weight other benefits).

2. Two types describe dyadic coopetitive strategies between an association and a public establishment, one being a horizontal coopetition and the other a vertical coopetition. Here, pooling advantages are also observed as well as more opportunities to specialize knowledge (for the vertical coopetition) and to create new products (for the horizontal coopetition). On the down side, both types were highly vulnerable to political disagreements (risks for the long-term sustainability of the partnership).

References
Sport leagues as an enabler of co-creation – what is the perceived value of offering a platform for co-creation?

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Key words: sport marketing, co-creation, league management

Aim of the paper
Since the emergence of the service dominant logic (Vargo/Lusch 2004), co-creation is discussed in academia. Accordingly, a sport league cannot organise the value creation of a sport event solely. The contribution of other parties such as local organisers, athletes/teams, and spectators is necessary to co-create value. The league itself offers a platform that enables diverse parties to co-create value. An obstacle of co-creation is the distribution of the proceeds. Managers often doubt that their organisation will participate appropriately. Here, the research question is: How is the value creation of a sports league perceived? The research is done at the example of the German Football league.

Literature Review
The idea of co-creation in this paper is based on two fields of literature. The first is the discussion of co-creation as introduced by the work of Vargo and Lusch (2004). The second field of literature is the discourse on value creation as initiated by Stabel and Fjeldstad (1998). This discourse represents the traditional idea of an organisation that creates value for third parties. In the case of the value network Stabel/Fjeldstad (1998, p. 427-433), value creation takes place if an organisation creates a platform for others to interact. The concept of co-creation substitutes the idea that an organisation creates value by offering such a platform. Instead, diverse parties use the platform to create value. In this sense, sport spectators use a football match to interact and identify with other fans and/or the team. It may not be the match itself that they are looking for. However, the literature review leaves a white spot. If the value creation takes place as co-creation, what is the perceived added value of the platform organisers for third parties?

The literature review (Grönroos 2008, Vargo/Lusch 2004, Stabel/Fjeldstad 1998) and theoretical considerations allow the development of a long list of different kinds of possible perceived added values. This list answers the question of perceived added value from a theoretical perspective. Clusters of such a list are for example: offering a physical platform for interaction (e.g. stadium), offering content for interaction (e.g. contest, regulations), identification of capable third parties (e.g. athletes/teams, international integration into other series such as the UEFA Champions League, relegation), sales (e.g. sales process, negotiations). The list is the starting point for the following study.

Methodology, research design, data analysis
The literature review and expert discussions enabled the development of a quantitative questionnaire. The purpose of the research was to confirm or reject the above-mentioned clusters of possible perceived added value. The sample was drawn by an online survey from the population of sport spectators in general with a focus on German football. The data analysis applies descriptive statistics as well as multivariate analytics.

Results
The study was run in January 2012 and the results are based on 455 completed questionnaires with an equal gender distribution. 66% are generally interested in sports. 65% are interested in the German Bundesliga football. 35% visit the stadium more than once every year. 46% watch Bundesliga football every week on TV. The above-mentioned clusters of added value are well perceived. The stated appreciation of the distinct added value clusters differs between 77% and 83%. 80% agree, that the success of the German Bundesliga is based on the collaboration between league, clubs, spectators, sponsors, media, and others. The German Bundesliga is seen as a brand (82%) but only 44% attest a positive brand image. The positive brand image correlates with the high level of football (beta coefficient 0.292, p 0.002), the engagement in collective sale of broadcasting rights (beta coefficient 0.205, p 0.040) and the competitive balance (beta coefficient 0.185, p 0.054). The German Bundesliga is seen as a brand (recall) in correlation with the participating clubs (beta coefficient 0.321, p 0.000) and the collective sales of broadcasting rights (beta coefficient 0.207, p 0.022).

Discussion
The study demonstrates that the input of the German Bundesliga on the value creation is perceived. However, only parts of the input are appreciated in a way that the input is honoured with positive feedback (e.g. positive image, brand recall). First of all, the collective sale of broadcasting rights has a positive correlation with both image and recall. People seem to understand the value of the platform organiser because the organiser is responsible for the sales. Furthermore, the league should communicate the attractiveness of the participating clubs (increases brand recall for the league) as well as the high level of football and the competitive balance (both increases the positive brand image).

References

Value co-creation in the Australian Football League (AFL): a service-dominant logic (SDL) approach to an old problem

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Keywords: sporting community, Service-Dominant Logic (SDL), brand community, marginal subculture, neo-tribe, tribal marketing, individual and group/social identity theory, Australian Football League (AFL), sport marketing, global self-concept, fandom motivation, team identification.

Aim of the Abstract
Marketing segmentation focuses on individualistic consumer behaviour or emphasises collective demographics. Both provide little information about social behaviour if target markets consume the product in groups, as in sports (i.e., sporting communities).

Service-Dominant Logic (SDL) states service systems offer opportunities for value co-creation via the interaction of people, technology and shared information (Vargo & Lusch, 2008). This study extends the SDL paradigm into sports fandom, exploring how consumers obtain value from sport involvement using sociological, group consumer behaviour and SDL frameworks. The two main constructs under scrutiny are: (1) ‘types of sporting communities’ to discover the ethos and structure of different fandom groups; and (2) ‘fan value co-creation behaviours’ to map the activities that co-create value for the members and their Australian Football League (AFL) team, via SDL.

Literature Review
The concept of community has evolved since the nineteenth century. In the field of marketing, fragmented studies explored the theme. Nonetheless, they mistakenly used the terms (1) ‘brand community’ (e.g., Muniz & O’Guinn, 2001), (2) ‘subculture’ (e.g., Schouten & McAlexander, 1995), and (3) ‘neo-tribe’ (e.g., Cova, 2003) interchangeably, although later research found them to be discrete concepts.

It has been argued the different types of sporting community are merely different terms scholars coined when analysing group affiliation through the consumption lens. However, Cova (2003) and others found these communities had contrasting attributes yet this has never been scrutinised and tested in the sporting environment. Similarly, while Schau, Muñiz, and Arnould (2009) proposed a four-factor construct identifying and clustering all SDL activities, namely (1) social network, (2) impression management, (3) community engagement, and (4) brand use – no scale has been developed to measure this. Neither have SDL studies incorporated other types of community rather than brand communities and organisations.

The Research Problem
The research problem is to clarify how each ‘sporting community’ (i.e., brand community, marginal subculture, and neo-tribes) co-creates value for their AFL clubs via the four sub-factors (i.e., social network, impression management, community engagement, and brand use) of the ‘fan value co-creation behaviours’ model (based on Schau, et al., 2009). The literature indicates that each sporting community has specific preferences and behaviours. The lack of a quantitative instrument with items designed to measure both models demands a scale be developed.

Methodology
A multi-method approach is adopted to explore AFL supporter’s group behaviours. A phenomenological study will gather and analyse the data to identify themes to be discussed in the interviews and focus groups. The first stage comprises: (1) a convenience sample of fans (n>20); (2) 15 focus groups of fans from three professional AFL teams (n=45), and (3) ten depth interviews (n=10) to refine the scale.

In the quantitative stage, the draft scale will be pre-tested on University student AFL fans (n>250) to refine the items. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) will be used for the screening and a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) performed on remaining items. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) will be undertaken to propose a model of the interrelationships between the constructs. Specific hypotheses will then be developed. After, the refined scale will be tested for validity and reliability using a larger sample of AFL supporters (n>1,500). The data analysis of this major study will validate and/or refine the: (1) instrument, (2) prototype conceptual model, and (3) proposed hypotheses.

Results and Implications
Data collection is ongoing and preliminary results will be available in July 2012 and by August 2012 a draft scale will be developed to initiate the final quantitative testing.

Results are expected to confirm that value is differently co-created by each type of sporting community (brand community, subculture, and neo-tribe), and highlight that sporting brand managers should focus their efforts on promoting and managing the interactions and relationships amongst members because, under the SDL paradigm the maximisation of fan’s value is the key to boosting club income, match attendance, club involvement and loyalty.

Sporting managers and marketers will benefit by better understanding how clubs can facilitate value creation activities among fan groups. Furthermore, by showing how each type of sporting community differently co-creates value, practitioners may use this model to: (1) segment their public by type of sporting community affiliation considering their group social and purchasing behaviour (i.e., segmentation based upon group behaviours); and (2) develop improved marketing plans targeting members of each type of community so they generate value for themselves and their club. This cutting-edge application of the SDL framework to
sports marketing will provide new opportunities to both fans and clubs in the increasingly competitive world of professional sports.

Bibliography
Value creation through relationship management

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Keywords
Sport Management; Sport Organization; Value Creation; Relationship Management; Lean Thinking.

In the recent past years, we have seen more and more people, from different background or economic sector, struggling to come up with something different, original somehow. The ultimate goal of this task is to guarantee sustainability. In a business subject it means that one has competitive advantage to its competitors. That is, competitive advantage is achieved when the balance between value and cost is more positive than one’s competitors’.

So, the question is how to more create value than before, than my competitors, than my resources seem to be able to. There will always be costs and shortages of capital, time and even human resources. The sport industry is getting a global dimension, economically, socially, environmentally, and this must be, more than a threat, an opportunity to develop areas superficially explored so far.

The identification and elimination of wasteful activities is considered an opportunity of value creation. The methodology employed, currently named 7 Wastes, was developed by Taiichi Ohno for the Toyota Production System in Japan. The basic principle of this methodology is the reduction of waste through the use of resources at the right time and the exactly amount required by the line of production (Ohno, 1978).

Shilbury (2000) states that the degree of complexity of the Sport Industry is caused by the increase of competitiveness and the growing sophisticated management practices. The current level of competitiveness demands that organizations develop areas and activities previously considered less important, in order to increase their competitive advantage and ensure its sustainability in the market. Given this context, this research aims to study the role of relationship management for value creation in sport organizations.

The way to relate with pairs, suppliers, customers, can create competitive advantage by adding value to the process and, consequently, to the final product (Allee, 2008; Lin & Lin, 2006; Porter, 1985). Porter (1985) mapped value creation activities in an organization and developed what he called the Value Chain, classifying the company’s production activities in: Primary and Support. Allee (2008) uses a functional approach, where the actors in the network are represented by organizational functions and roles. To convert intangible actives into tangible ones and then realize value to the company, first it is necessary to identify valuable activities not yet converted into actives to be commercialized.

To Lin and Lin (2006), companies must be aware of drivers and barriers for value creation and try to take advantage of these drivers and to avoid barriers. The interesting aspect for this work is that most of drivers and barriers are related to the employee personally (drivers: distinctive skills, personal experience, learning and training, team work; barriers: distrustful environment, inadequate knowledge) and to the firm’s processes (drivers: innovation and evolution, R&D, capability for differentiation; barriers: short of core technology, poor resource support, bad services and attitudes). Organizational culture and structure can be drivers for value creation as well, in a way that encourages people to create value from the organization’s resources.

Thus, the creation of value of an organization and, consequently, its sustainability is carried out by its employees. Lin and Lin (2006) understand that the purpose of any business is to create value for customers, employees, and investors. Therefore, the value creation can only be sustainable if value is created and delivered to all of them.

The object of study is a sport organization, world leader manufacturer of sport equipments for high competition and recreation. Data was collected and analysed using in-depth interviews to the main stakeholders involved in the production process. Qualitative approach was used as the research is a case study. For the instrument, it was used the principle of value chain and waste identification and elimination from Lean.

According to the analysis of the first data, relationship management is a value creation activity not formally recognized. The evidence of their concern lays on the organizational culture and regular operations and in the way they personally relate to their customers and clients for immediate and further value creation. The best and closer relationship they can have with athletes is expected to generate value for the company. Differently of a marketing general strategy, their idea is to try to get this relationship close enough to create reliance and trustfulness. The natural consequence is a stronger customer loyalty and lasting value creation. Of course the company trust in their technical expertise and products quality. Further analysis of data to be collected will reinforce the value creation through the identification of wasteful activities caused by bad relationships between employees.

References
An empirical model of sport fan consumption communities

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Introduction & purpose
While marketers increasingly acknowledge the critical role of developing long-term strategies that enhance the value of the firm, collaborative and co-creation service and marketing activities are gaining importance. As firms shift their focus from creating value for consumers to creating value with consumers, collaboration between firms and consumers is increasing. At sporting events, the sport organization and its staff (e.g., managers, coaches and players) collaborate with event consumers to create the game experience. Sport consumers, however, rarely attend sporting events alone. Instead, sport consumers join and participate in networks of like-minded fans and engage in collaborative consumption activities. These activities include pre-, in-, and post-game behaviors and expressions of attachment, identification and involvement with the sporting event, sport organization, team and other consumers. While sport marketers recognize the importance of collaborative consumption, their understanding of the process is not yet well developed. As a result, the purpose of this research is to create and test a model of sport fan consumption community. The results of this research can be used to identify constructs and relationships important to the process of collaborative consumption in a sport setting.

Theoretical background
Sport fan consumption community research is based on distinct yet overlapping notions of consumer groups (cultures/subcultures of consumption, consumer tribes and brand community). In these groups, consumers are informed, connected, networked and empowered (Ramaswamy, 2008). As the dominant logic of marketing has changed from a goods-dominant (G-D) logic (goods are embedded with value) to a service-dominant (S-D) logic (firms create value with consumers), relationships based on the co-creation of value and value-in-use are cultivated between the firm and its consumers (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). When sport organizations interact with fan groups at sporting events, value is cocreated and experienced by those in attendance. Thus, the value of a sporting event is in large part determined by the interactions between the staff of the sport organization and the sport fan communities that consume the sporting event.

The Psychological Continuum Model (PCM) (see Funk & James, 2001) and the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (see Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) provide theoretical frameworks used to create a saturated structural model containing thirty-one hypothesized relationships among nine constructs. The PCM is used as a framework to model the relationships among the antecedents and potential mediators, and the TRA is used to model the relationships among the potential mediators and consequences in the hypothesized model.

Methodology, research design & data analysis
The methodology used in this research is based on Churchill’s (1979) recommendations for developing and testing new marketing measures. First, the constructs representing the antecedents (knowledge and image), potential mediators (satisfaction, identification, loyalty and community membership), and consequences (attendance, merchandise purchase and word of mouth behavioral intentions) of sport fan consumption communities are identified and operationalized. Then, a pilot study (n=113) is conducted to determine reliable and valid operationalizations of the constructs. Finally, the main study (n=627) is undertaken to empirically test the relationships among constructs using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modeling (SEM) procedures.

Results, discussion & implications/conclusions
The model fit indices suggest that the data has good fit to the hypothesized model. The results of the structural model indicate that seventeen of thirty-one hypothesized relationships are positive and significant (p<.05), and 45% to 68% of the variance in the seven endogenous constructs is explained. All thirteen of the relationships between the antecedents and the four potential mediators are positive and significant (p<.05). In terms of the three consequences, a sense of membership in the community had positive and significant relationships with attendance and word of mouth intentions, while satisfaction and loyalty both had positive and significant relationships with merchandise purchase intentions. Regardless of the label, sport fan consumption communities are playing an increasingly important role in sport marketing strategy. While sport organizations have traditionally focused on individual consumption behaviors, sport marketers are shifting their focus to allocating more resources toward strategies that develop, foster and support sport fan consumption communities. Sport marketers are also beginning to realize the long-term value in collaborating with sport fan consumption communities. If current trends continue, then engaging in strategies and tactics that facilitate stronger sport fan consumption communities may result in consumers that are more attached, identified and involved in attending events, purchasing merchandise and giving positive word of mouth recommendations to others.

References
“Measuring co-creation of value by other customers – evidence in sports”

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Aim of abstract – research question
Value of sporting events has traditionally been measured on characteristics such as quality of the game, catering, sanitation infrastructure etc. Based on Service-Dominant Logic (SD-logic) the value of a sporting event does not exist per se and cannot be determined by event characteristics alone. According to SD-logic, only value propositions are offered by the sporting event. As value is fundamentally derived and determined in use, the context influences the value experience which is uniquely and phenomenologically determined by the beneficiary (customers in this case). Therefore co-creation of value is always value-in-context (Vargo & Lusch, 2004).

Sport services like sporting events are often delivered in settings where many customers are present at the same time. Thus, other customers can have an essential impact on the event experience (Woratschek et al., 2007). From our prior qualitative research we have insights about relevant customer groups of a sporting event and their behaviours within the co-creation process (Woratschek & Durchholz, 2012). Moreover our qualitative work offers the base for the development of an innovative measurement scale for the value of a sporting event from a customer’s point of view.

Against this background our research objective is twofold:
1. Which indicators determine the value of a sporting event?
2. What are the main influences on the co-creation process of a sporting event?

Theoretical background
Based on a far reaching literature review we gained knowledge about the underlying context of a service setting and its potential influencing factors like other present customers during a service experience. From our qualitative studies we know that value of a sporting event (value-in-use) can be seen as fulfilled motivations. This notion forms the base for the formulation of a new measurement scale for “value” (Woratschek & Durchholz, 2012).

From our point of view, the traditional characteristic-oriented approach is not sufficient for measuring value, as SD-logic proclaims the relevance of the context and its relevant influencing factors like other present customers. Therefore, we focused on the interaction processes of customer groups as they contribute to the value creation process of a sporting event. This is why co-creation of value needs to be investigated by a combined approach of interaction- and characteristic-oriented measurements.

Moreover, we considered the potential effects of co-destruction of value since our qualitative research detected several negative contributions of other customers (see also Plé & Cáceres, 2010).

These theoretical findings support our approach to go one step further in setting up a model on co-creation of value by other customers.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
The interaction-oriented approach was implemented by drawing from the results of the repertory grid we conducted in our qualitative study. Thus, we focused on contributions of the individual customer (i.e., the fans of the own team and the fans of the opposing team). From the grid, we derived items for every customer group operationalizing the co-creation of value, as well as to conflicts (co-destruction of value).

In addition, traditional characteristics like perceived team performance and perceived stadium service quality were added to the model. The according items have been adapted from the sports marketing literature (Woratschek at al., 2007).

Measuring value of a sporting event leads us to items which have been used in motivational research in sport management: e.g. atmosphere (Uhrich, 2007), entertainment (James & Ross, 2004), excitement (Funk et al., 2004).

We hypothesize that each customer group has a positive influence as well as a negative influence on the value of a sporting event. Additionally, we assume that perceived team performance and perceived stadium service quality have a positive influence on the value of a sporting event. Finally, we conjecture that the value of a sporting event will be reflected by fulfilled motivations (second-order latent variable).

We analysed our hypotheses by using structural equation modelling. The data collection was realized with online surveys focusing on spectators and fans of first- and second league football clubs in Germany during season 2010/2011. Altogether, a data set of n = 346 could be generated. Prior to the analysis of the full structural equation model (SEM), exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were applied. The so confirmed structures were finally measured in a comprehensive SEM.

Results, discussion and implications
Our results show customer groups exert a dominating effect on the value of a sporting event, and thus lend compelling support to the concepts of co-creation and co-destruction of value. Furthermore, we establish that the value of a sporting event can be validly measured via fulfilled motivations. Based on these findings our study provides support of SD-logic and their contextual influences like other customers on the value of a service experience.

Selected References
Assessing the value of sport licensed products though their meanings and exploring the impact on sport consumer behavior

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Aim of paper
The aim of this work is to develop and test a scale intended to measure the meanings embedded in sport licensed products in an effort to capture the value those items have for their owners. The research also explores the dimensional structure of such a scale and investigates relationships between the meanings of licensed products and other aspects of sport consumer behavior.

Theoretical background
Licensing has been defined as “a value-adding process that provides revenue-generating opportunities via the conveyance of the right to use another organization’s intellectual properties for commercial purposes” [Fullerton, 2010, p. 345]. Licensing agreements are significant revenue sources for sport properties, particularly for those based in North America (Sports Business Resource Guide & Fact Book, 2009; 2012). The popularity of sport licensed products extends beyond any utilitarian purpose as these items can assist fans in displaying their affiliation with and expressing their loyalty toward a team or athlete, connecting with other team supporters, or making a fashion statement [Newman, & Gross, 1991]. There have been a few efforts to extensively investigated the topic of meanings in possessions (e.g., Fleck, 1988; Liguori, 2000; Richins, 1994; Sheth, Newman, & Gross, 1991), there have been a few efforts to expand the scope of sport licensing studies by exploring the meanings embedded in those products. Most notably, Apostolopoulou, Papadimitriou and Damtsiou (2010) uncovered a variety of symbolic meanings reflected in Olympic licensed products, including notions of national identity and political history and achievement. That study offered evidence that sport licensed products carry symbolic meanings for their owners as well as meanings of experiential or functional/utilitarian nature, albeit at a much lower degree.

Research design
Study 1
The goal of Study 1 was to provide an in-depth understanding about the meanings attached to the display of sport licensed products. Attendees at a National Football League event (USA) [N=135] were asked what it meant to wear team licensed items on game day and on other occasions. Their responses unveiled various public-symbolic and private-symbolic meanings expressing values of social relationships and connectedness and personal values and identity, respectively.

Study 2
Building on Study 1, another set of qualitative data was collected in order to capture additional personal and social meanings attached to sport licensed items. One hundred four (N=104) undergraduate students (USA), who were in their majority Caucasian young males and avid sport fans, were asked to record what they considered to be their most prized team licensed item and to explain why that item was important to them. Responses revealed six sources of meaning coded as (1) Connection with favorite team or player — Expression of support, pride, passion, (2) Unique event in team’s history — Celebration of success, accomplishments, (3) Display of tie with team or region to others, (4) Relationship with event in one’s personal history, (5) Gift — Importance of gift giver, and (6) Rare item — Hard to obtain — Financial value.

Study 3
In Study 3, a Scale for the Value of Sport Licensed Products (SVSLP) was developed to enable a quantitative analysis of the meanings of those products. In addition to the psychometric testing of the scale and the exploration of its dimensional structure, this study (in progress) will also explore relationships of the dimensions of this scale with three sport consumption variables: intention to buy sport licensed products in the future, intention to wear sport licensed products in the future, and willingness to pay more for official sport licensed products. These variables were selected as they represent influential constructs in sport consumer behavior literature (e.g., Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2002; Kwon, Trail, & Anderson, 2006).

Intended contributions
The results of this study are expected to enhance existing theory by offering a more comprehensive understanding of the sources of meaning that give value to sport licensed products. Furthermore, sport organizations and their
marketing departments can benefit by a more informed and more strategic approach to their licensing programs.

References
New Researcher Award
Sport sponsorship: a systematic review (1980 – 2009)

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Abstract keywords
Sport sponsorship, systematic literature review

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
To provide an extensive and systematic review of the sport sponsorship literature from the early 1980s to 2009 in an effort to identify research trends, areas that received research attention, methodological issues, and topics that deserve consideration. Moreover, the review aims at identifying differences in the sponsorship management practices adopted in different contexts by different sponsors investing in different sports. The findings of the review are expected to guide future sponsorship research.

With regard to management application, the findings of the review are expected to provide invaluable insight into the sponsorship management process, something that is expected to enable both sponsors and practitioners to develop informed and academically adequate explanations of sport sponsorship, frameworks for attracting and selecting sport sponsorships, as well as appropriate models allowing to achieve goals, to build strong and beneficial relationships, and to facilitate a match with the benefits of the sponsor.

Theoretical background
A systematic review, which is regarded as a scientific investigation in itself (Mulrow, 1994), allows the researcher to avoid the negative aspects of a narrative review that has been highly criticized by several researchers for being simply descriptive and highly biased (Craig, 2006). The systematic review process differs substantially from a traditional narrative review in that the former attempts to limit bias through a replicable scientific procedure that relies on comprehensive searches, explicit search strategies, and rigorous critical appraisals and synthesis of all relevant studies (Cook, Mulrow & Haynes, 1997). A quantitative systematic review often uses a statistical analysis to combine and summarize the results of different studies, called meta-analysis (Garg, Hackam & Tonelli, 2008), and it is a process used extensively in medical science. Meta-analysis is widely regarded as providing ‘high-quality’ evidence, but the application of this method is feasible when studies are comparable. As Mulrow, Cook and Davidoff (1997) argued, meta-analysis is simply one of the tools that it is used in preparing systematic reviews. When the heterogeneity of study data prevents the use of meta-analysis, such as when data are obtained from qualitative or non-randomized studies, synthesis is achieved through summarizing the findings of a group of studies (Tranfield et al., 2003). When the results are summarized but not statistically combined, the review may be called a qualitative systematic review (Cook et al., 1997), and this method is proposed for management research. This more flexible approach is regarded to fit the exploratory and developmental nature of management review, as well as the heterogeneity of the management studies. Thus, the protocol that is suggested for management systematic reviews aims at ensuring that reviews are less open to researcher bias than narrative reviews, whilst not compromising the ability of the researcher to be creative in the literature review process (Tranfield et al., 2003). Based on the above, meta-analysis was not regarded as an appropriate tool for synthesizing the findings of the specific study. Instead, the approach adopted was more of a descriptive and thematic nature, and it will be described in detail in the subsequent section.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
Prior to the beginning the review process, a scoping study was conducted in order to delimit the subject area. Then, a review panel was formed encompassing four experts on the research topic and methodology – the researcher (PhD student), head supervisor, co-supervisor, and a library and information scientist. In addition, a formal protocol was designed, detailing the background, objectives, inclusion criteria, search methods, and the way in which the data would be compiled in research synthesis. The systematic review methodology involved an exhaustive literature search of all potentially relevant published sources through the use of predetermined inclusion and exclusion criteria (time range, length of the studies, peer-reviewed status, published in English etc.). 971 studies were originally retrieved, and 211 were eventually included based on a critical evaluation. Relevant sources yielded from the aforementioned search method were transferred into the bibliographic software EndNote and were retrieved for a more thorough reading. Moreover, the EndNote program allowed the researcher to identify duplicated studies, while the remaining citations were filtered according to the inclusion and exclusion criteria. From these, the final selection was made for the systematic review. The reasons for inclusion and exclusion at this point were documented and stored in the data extraction forms. Data were abstracted using data extraction forms developed for the purpose of this study, in an effort to reduce human errors and bias, since they served as a historical record of the decisions made during the process (Clarke & Oxman, 2001). The forms contain general information (e.g. author, title and publication details), study features, specific information (e.g. details and methods), the reasons for inclusion and exclusion of studies, and notes on emerging themes. When designing the data extraction form, the researcher took into consideration the information that would be essential for the completion of the specific study. For the purposes of the specific study, a large part of the data extraction process was double since it has been undertaken independently by two reviewers and, in some cases by a third assessor – the researcher, head supervisor.
and co-supervisor. The independent reviewers assessed and analyzed the studies against the inclusion criteria and the findings were compared and reconciled if required, while discrepancies and disagreements were resolved by discussion.

As already mentioned, a social science systematic review can use different approaches to synthesizing the data than meta-analysis, since studies in this filed rarely address identical problems or measure phenomenon in the same way. Therefore, and based on the suggestions made by a number of authors who proposed several inductive and interpretive approaches to research synthesis as an alternative option to the statistical, deductive meta-analysis, the current study used a three-stage analysis in synthesizing the results. The first stage involved a “descriptive analysis”, which was achieved using a very simple set of categories (such as the authors, contributions from different geographic locations, orientation of studies, age-profile of the articles, etc.). The researcher attempted to provide a descriptive account of the field of study and an audit trail justifying the conclusions drawn.

The second stage of the process used is “thematic analysis”. The researcher used an interpretive approach to data analysis and synthesis which relied on the identification and documentation of emerging or salient themes. In line with the recommendations made by Tranfield et al. [2003], the researcher provided a detailed audit trail back to the core contributions to justify and support the conclusions drawn from the thematic analysis. Moreover, an attempt was made to link the themes across the various core contributions wherever possible, and to highlight such links throughout the repositing process. The third stage undertaken for the purposes of the present research is “construct analysis”. An attempt was made to go beyond the contents of the primary studies and to identify issues that are not explicitly reported in the original studies. Third order themes, or conceptual themes, were developed based on several methodological issues raising ontological and epistemological concerns. All those steps were frequently made independently by more than one reviewer, and the interpretation and research synthesis were performed in a transparent way, by providing an audit trail of the reviewers’ decisions, procedures and conclusions (Cook et al., 1997).

Implications/conclusions
The descriptive analysis of the findings resulted in the creation of several simple set of categories, some of those being the geographical contribution of studies – with North America contribution most of the research, and much less research effort directed at less developed countries from the perspective of the sport sponsorship. Another category involved the sport that gathered most of the research attention, with football being the number one, followed by the Olympics. Moreover, most of the studies employed a positivistic approach to research, with clearly less research using and inductive, qualitative research orientation, and this research seems to focus primarily on the sponsor and not the sponsored property.

The thematic analysis indicated that there is a different conceptualization of sport sponsorship in differently developed contexts (e.g. China and the USA) whilst there is also a difference in the sponsorship perception, as well the sponsorship management practices, through time. The original charitable and philanthropic conceptualization of sponsorship [Gratton & Taylor, 1985; Mescon & Tilson, 1987] lends its place to a more professional sponsorship activity (Cornwell, 2008). Nowadays, sponsorship is used as a means for developing corporate strategy (Cunningham et al., 2009), it is used as a resource towards the development of competitive advantage [Amis, 2003] and it is effective in fostering the creation of partnerships and relationship building strategies [Ollkonen et al., 2000]. The issue of managing strategically the sponsorship deal is another well-supported theme that emerged from the thematic analysis, and it is also depicted in the importance that sponsors place today on the concept of congruency, as well as from the studies that focused on the factors that determine congruency, such as sport identification, creative communicating practices, etc. Moreover, the review indicated that sponsors and researchers place much importance on sponsorship management practices, since objective setting was one of the main issues that were explored in many studies., together with many other sponsorship management aspects such as audiences reached, leveraging, motivation of the sponsors etc. Despite the growing realization of the importance of a strategic sponsorship management approach, it is indeed, surprising that the majority of the sponsors – even in more developed sponsorship contexts such as the UK – do not set clear and measurable objectives, and they seem to employ limited, and sometimes unsophisticated leveraging practices. Interestingly, a more professional sponsorship management approach seems to be associated with larger sponsors whilst in contrast, smaller companies seem to be less systematic and professional in managing their sponsorship arrangements. Moreover, there was some indication of a more professional sponsorship approach adopted by private sponsors compared to sponsors coming from the public sector. Additionally, the review revealed that there are significant differences in the management of sport sponsorships between more developed and less developed sponsorship contexts (e.g. North America and Australia). It appeared that experienced sponsors operating in more developed contexts use more fully integrated sponsorship activities. Moreover, another interesting finding with regard to the selection process is that the importance placed upon several selection criteria varies significantly, and depends on the industry in which the sponsor operates.

Additionally to the above, the findings indicated a shift from media objectives set by sponsor to corporate related goals, while recently there seems to be a shift from image and awareness objectives to more sophisticated goals such as fostering a certain positioning concept within a certain target market (Goldman & Johns, 2009), or the accommodation of internal marketing goals such as generating employee commitment (Cunningham et al., 2009). At the same time, it is significant to mention that there seem to be differences with regard to the objectives set by sponsors coming from different industries, as well as by sponsors operating in contexts with different state of
sponsorship development. For more developed contexts, for example, such as the UK or Canada, corporate objectives receive much more important compared to less developed contexts such as the Australian or Greek which place more emphasis on brand related objectives. In addition, less developed sponsorship contexts such as Greece and Romania seem to place much more emphasis on sales related and profit oriented objectives. The size of the sponsor also appeared as an important determining factor, since larger sponsors seem to be more inclined towards image related objectives, and smaller sponsors towards sales and community related objectives. The same differences seem to exist with regard to the motives of the sponsors, with small sponsors, and public companies entering a sponsorship deal primarily because of personal or emotional, and much less commercial motives as compared to private sponsors. Furthermore, the findings indicate the use of inappropriate evaluation practices used by sponsors, while much research has been trying to address the factors improving sponsorship effectiveness, such as attitudes, sincerity of the sponsor, and fan identification.

One of the main methodological issues that arose from the analysis was the fact that most of the studies are descriptive, lacking an underlying theoretical foundation. Moreover, several concerns have been raised with regard to sampling methods, their appropriateness and quality. In addition, the study indicated that there is a need for more longitudinal research, as well as for more fruitful, qualitative methods to investigate the phenomenon of sport sponsorship rather than the predominant quantitative, nomothetic approaches that the vast majority of the researchers relied on.

Based on the aforementioned findings of the systematic review, the value of this study is that it highlights areas and topics that deserve more research attention, in order to illuminate further the sport sponsorship management practices adopted by sponsors. For example, there is clearly a need to conduct research in less developed sponsorship contexts. It would be interesting to explore the sponsorship management practices employed by sponsors operating in less sophisticated contexts from a sponsorship perspective, in order to identify unique perceptions, different decision-making processes, criteria for involvement, motives, objectives, or evaluation practices. Moreover, there seems to be a need for research examining differences in the sponsorship management practices used by local and global sponsor, small and larger businesses, or sponsors operating in different industries. In addition, the certain systematic review highlighted the need for conducting qualitative research that can provide potential insights into the sponsorship selection and management practices adopted by sport sponsors.

It is also important to note that, the certain study differs substantially from previous reviews in the field, since it is a systematic review that is based on a concrete, rigid, and highly structured method that aims at minimizing bias and making the process as objective as possible. The findings of the review can enable researchers draw attention to the several sponsorship management practices that are used in differently developed contexts, by different sponsors pursuing different goals, being driven by different motives, and employing different selection, management and evaluation practices. From a management perspective, the review is important in that, it provided more insight into the different sponsorship practices that are adopted by different types of organizations, in terms of size, industry, private or public status etc. This is invaluable since, both the sponsors and the sponsors should be aware of those different management practices in order to be able to approach and manage sponsorship in the best possible way, and thus, to foster mutually beneficial sponsorship relationships.

References
Sport and new media: What is the role of sport in mobile TV adoption?

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Introduction and aim of the paper
Nowadays, a multitude of media outlets is available covering sport events worldwide. Besides traditional television devices consumers today use personal computers, tablets or smartphones to view their favorite contents. With digitization and the continuing spread of digital video broadcasting as well as third or fourth generation communication networks and portable devices the audiovisual media become mobile and sport can be accessed almost anywhere and anytime.

In the past, the launch of media innovations was often accompanied by sport-related commercials and exclusive premium sport contents. This could be observed regarding new media technologies and services such as Internet TV, HDTV or mobile TV. Therefore, sport seems to play a certain role when it comes to the diffusion of media innovations. Moreover, the consumers’ interest in sport is supposed to have an important influence on the adoption of new media. The aim of this paper is to determine relevant factors of mobile TV adoption and to clarify the role of sport in this context. Specifically, the research questions are: 1) Which factors influence the usage of mobile TV with a special focus on sport? 2) How strong is the influence of the relevant factors on the usage of mobile TV?

Literature review
Until now, sport media related literature primarily focused on motives of sport viewing on traditional television. Thus, different cognitive, emotional, and social motives for viewing sport media can be categorized (e.g. Raney, 2008). In the context of new media Choi, Kim, and McMillan (2009) studied the motivators for the intention to use mobile TV in general and identified “permanent access” to be the most important motive. In their study “entertainment” and “fashion & status” appeared to be relevant especially for male users of mobile TV. To date, only a few publications refer to sport on the Internet or sport on mobile devices (e.g. Kunz, Woratschek, & Santomier, 2011). Kunz et al. identified for example “live viewing & information seeking” as well as “entertainment seeking & mood regulation” motives as strong influencing factors. Besides different motives of sport consumer behavior and media usage other theoretical constructs such as “sport fan identification” (e.g. Mahony, Nakazawa, Funk, James, & Gladden, 2002) and “consumer innovativeness” (e.g. Goldsmith & Hofacker, 1991) may be of relevance for viewing sport and adopting new media.

Hypotheses
Based on literature and practical observations an innovative research model is specified. It is hypothesized that the intention to use mobile TV depends on a mobility motive, a style & status motive, the consumers’ media-specific innovativeness and interest in sport. The latter is expressed by the intention to view sport on mobile devices and depends on different factors. It is hypothesized that the interest in sport on mobile devices is influenced by five sport viewing motives that mediate the sport fan identification. All factors in the model are supposed to have a positive influence. Furthermore, different contexts, for example usage situations, are assumed to moderate the relationship between the mobility motive and the intention to use mobile TV.

Methodology
In 2010, a quantitative study was conducted at a German university with a total sample size of 405 students. A standardized questionnaire was designed based on the results of qualitative preliminary studies as well as an extensive literature review and valid items. Exploratory as well as confirmatory factor analyses and covariance-based structural equation modelling (SEM) are used to test the research model and confirm the aforementioned hypotheses.

Results and conclusion
The analyses reveal highly reliable and valid measurement and structural models. The relationship between “sport fan identification” and the “intention to view sport on mobile devices” is mediated by two sport viewing motives: “live viewing & information-seeking” and “entertainment-seeking & mood regulation” are significant influencing factors. Instead, other sport media motives known from literature such as “pastime”, “escape from everyday life and problems” or “skills improvement and rules learning” do not have a significant influence. The consumers’ interest in sport is the strongest influencing factor of the “intention to use mobile TV” in general. The “mobility” as a motivational factor has the second strongest influence, followed by the consumers’ “media-specific innovativeness” in general. “Style & status” aspects apparently do not determine mobile TV usage. Especially the travelling situations positively moderate the relationship between the mobility motive and the usage of mobile TV. In conclusion, sport contents play a significant role in the diffusion of new media such as mobile TV. Media marketers will be required to focus on sport content and sport consumers in order to develop new business models and successful marketing strategies.
References

Decision-making processes in bidding for large scale sports events

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Introduction
An initial foray into the study of decision-making processes for large scale sports events was provided by Roche (1994) in his coverage of the 1991 World Student Games in Sheffield. Here, he acknowledged that in order to research large scale sports events there is a need for researchers to consider two issues. Firstly, a detailed account must be provided concerning the situational rationality of the policy decisions. From a practical perspective, this entails consideration of the mechanics of the policy-making process which means accounting for which decisions were made, when and how they were made and by whom. Roche continued that further research in this area should consider this, but also the mediation between contextual forces and urban policy. The latter approach has already been adopted by some scholars in general works on local sport policy (see for example King, 2009) and to an extent by Horne and Manzenreiter (2006) with regards to large scale events. However, to date, no studies have attempted to use meso-level policy frameworks in order to explain how the mediation of these contextual frameworks results in the situational rationality of policy decisions in the field of large scale sporting events.

Therefore, this paper follows the suggestion given by Roche, which outlined a method for exploring decisions to host, but furthers this through the application of policy models, most notably the multiple streams framework (Kingdon 1984), in order to provide a sophisticated understanding of how policy decisions are made at the local level.

In order to achieve this, three British bids were analysed: Sheffield’s bid for the 1991 World Student Games (Universiade), Manchester’s failed bid for the 2000 Olympic Games and Glasgow’s bid for the 2014 Commonwealth Games. The rationale for the selection of these cases was largely due to their correspondence with significant, ‘formative moments’ in the context of British sport policy. The expectation upon commencing this study was that these three bids would respectively have been city-led, sport-led and central government-led.

Theoretical Frameworks
Initial attempts at policy analysis by academics in the 1970s was largely seen as a means by which democratic governance could be facilitated (Houlihan 2005). The field of study emerged as in several areas, including sport, governments were becoming more interventionist. Generally, these initial analyses focussed on the early stages of the policy process: policy identification, agenda setting and policy formulation and they were characterised by a largely quantitative methodology based upon a neo-positivist epistemology (Houlihan 2005).

However, when government investment in areas such as sport failed to produce the intended policy outcomes, there was a refocusing of this approach towards a macro-level, quantitative approach which became broader and relied more heavily on an analysis of the role of the state. Traditional macro-theoretical accounts which attempted to generalise on policy areas were no longer deemed as solely adequate for explaining policy. For instance, with regards to elite sport and hosting, neo-Marxist accounts argue that the attempt to bring mega events to a nation are merely rationalising the entrenched political interests of the state in order for capitalists to legitimise their interests, however this ignores the softer ‘ideas’ such as Olympism which are not subordinated to the needs of instrumental rationality (Houlihan 2005).

Hence, attention has shifted towards a meso-level approach for policy analysis and several authors (see Richardson 1982, Kingdon 1984, Sabatier and Jenkins-Smith 1988, 1993) have attempted to create frameworks to aid understanding. For the purpose of this study, two such frameworks were selected based upon their respective ability to explain the articulation of power within policy subsystems. Namely, these were policy networks and the multiple streams framework (MSF).

Policy networks, conceptualised by Rhodes (1988) and Marsh (1998), allow for meso level policy theorisation based upon the principle of neo-pluralism or corporatism. According to Adam and Kriesi (2007) policymaking takes place in domain specific subsystems, which operate more or less independently of each other. It follows, then, that analysis of policy in a domain such as sport should focus on the features of that specific subsystem. Within the broad realm of network theory, two alternative models are offered: policy communities and issue networks.

Issue networks were defined by Rhodes (1988) as having large numbers of participants and, which in turn have limited interdependence. In comparison with policy communities, they are less stable and have looser ideological bonds uniting them. Perhaps the key feature of issue networks is the absence of an ideological focal point that ties them together. King (2009) claims that this has meant issue networks have tended not to have a significant impact on the policymaking process, unlike policy communities. However, given the temporary and fragmented nature of bidding committees, particularly during the very early stages of bids for large scale sports events, issue networks were retained as a possible analytical framework through which to explore these decisions.

The multiple streams framework (illustrated in Figure 1 below) is primarily concerned with the process of agenda setting and Kingdon (1984: 175) notes that ‘[i]t is as far away from the sequential model of policy-making as can be imagined.’ The premise of this framework is illustrated in Figure 1 below and claims that the success of policy is based upon the ability of individuals within a system to couple three existing streams within a policy subsystem: the problem stream, the politics stream and the policy stream. In order to be successful, the policy entrepreneur must wait until the political ‘conditions’ are right and exploit the policy launch window.
In terms of its relative usefulness for this study, it was felt that the MSF could provide a useful tool for analysing the Sheffield 1991 bid, given the absence of any central policy towards hosting in the UK, and also allow for depicting the development of all bids in their early stages, especially agenda setting.

Early consideration of the meso-level frameworks indicated a somewhat blurred picture, in that each appeared to demonstrate some potential usefulness for charting policy decisions in regards to hosting and all had some perceived value. Indeed, it was considered unlikely that any one theory would provide a perfect ‘match’ to the findings of this study.

**Method**

Essentially, the purpose of this study was to address the following research questions:

- Why and how did the selected cities decide to bid for major/mega event?
- To what extent have these decisions reflected national policy towards ‘hosting’?

In order to provide adequate and valid responses to these questions, consideration was given to Grix’s (2002) strategy for research in this area. Hence, the research was designed to demonstrate a logical ‘flow’ from the chosen ontological position to the detailed methods to be employed. The ontological paradigm selected fits most closely with that of anti-foundationalism, which links succinctly to the the chosen critical realist epistemology. These lead to the assumptions that reality is considered to be local and specific, often unobservable and those realities which do exist are often shaped by unobservable political and social processes. The purpose of the selected methods was not only to uncover the actions of agents within a policy subsystem, but also the structures which influence and inhibit these actions. This was supported by a qualitative methodology which encompassed extensive triangulation. The specific methods used to collect data were initially documentary research and semi-structured interviews and these contributed to a wider case study approach.

Documentary research was largely archive-based and involved content analysis of a range of official documents held in numerous local authority and sports federation archives and was followed by a series of semi-structured interviews with actors both central to, and excluded, from the decision-making processes in each bid. Interview participants were initially selected following content analysis of the documents and further participants were recruited using snowball sampling. Interviews took place between April 2009 and April 2012 and were fully transcribed and analysed using a combination of open and axial coding.

**Discussion of Results**

The findings of the study tentatively suggested that, despite its predominant focus on the agenda setting phase of policy decisions, the MSF is a convincing analytical tool to understand the rise of the all three bids onto the relevant national and local political agendas. There is little doubt that in each case there was significant influence achieved by individuals acting in manners akin to policy entrepreneurs. In addition, there was also some evidence that these actors were able to couple three ‘streams.’ For instance, in Glasgow’s case there existed a clear link between the regeneration already taking place in the city (problem stream) and the quest by the newly devolved Scottish Government for a project through which Scottish identity could be harnessed (politics stream). At the same time as these were occurring, the two key policy entrepreneurs in this bid attended the 2002 Commonwealth Games in Manchester and were inspired to develop a Scottish bid (policy stream). All interviewees referred to this moment as the starting point of the Glasgow bid, with the two protagonists stating the bid commenced ‘over breakfast in a hotel in Manchester’ (Interview #16, 2011; Interview #23, 2011).

This ad-hoc commencement of the bids was expected in Sheffield, where the concept of the bid was driven in the early stages by one individual’s ‘lifetime’s work to bring the World Student Games to the UK’ (Interview #3, 2009). The freedom through which individuals could operate in the 1980s was expected due to the absence of any central hosting policy, but it was not expected in the latter two cases where firstly the GB Sports Council and secondly the Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) had taken specific stances on hosting. Yet, the chief policy entrepreneur...
in Manchester earmarked the moment ‘I was sitting in my car listening to the radio when I thought “wouldn’t it be good to bring the [Olympic] Games to Manchester?” So I phoned my friends in the Council and the local newspaper and so it began’ (Interview #27, 2011).

Indeed, the manner in which these individuals acted fits Zahariadis’ (2007) perceived model of the MSF very closely in terms of policy entrepreneurs and its usefulness here is furthered by Houlihan’s (2005) claim that the MSF is particularly useful in explaining agenda setting when there exists potential for opportunism, often created by high levels of organisational fragmentation. Here, this fragmentation was created respectively by the collapse of the steel industry (Sheffield), the decline of manufacturing (Sheffield and Manchester) and a devolved Scottish government which was developing a new national strategy for sport and events.

While the MSF seems a highly relevant analytical framework for understanding the actions of the early bid advocates, it remains expectedly limited to illuminating the agenda setting phase of the bid and not the decision-making process, for which other theoretical perspectives are required.

With regards to network theory, the most convincing analytical lens would appear to be that of issue networks. However, similarly to the MSF this model is not wholly sufficient in explaining any aspect of the development of the bids. Referring back to Rhodes’ (1988) key indicators of an issue network: large number of participants, the lack of stable relationships and loose ideological bonds, not all of these were evident here. There were certainly a large number of participants in this network, but many members were selected by the entrepreneurs due to their ideological predisposition: one in favour of hosting this type of event. Due to this, and the power that the policy entrepreneurs were able to wield in selecting like-minded people to comprise this network, this theory was more convincing in Sheffield, where the loose ideological bonds between the initial bid team were highly evident.

The success of the policy entrepreneurs in elevating the bid to the political agenda in Glasgow, Manchester and Sheffield was largely due to the effective wielding of power by these individuals, which resulted in the almost total absence of any overt opposition to it in these early stages. However, as Lukes (2005) indicated in his three dimensional view of power, this did not necessarily equate to an absence of opposition. Using Dahl’s (1961) pluralist model, at a rudimentary level power can said to have been held by the ‘victorious’ actors, in this case the Labour-led local administrations in all three cities. That there was limited opposition to each of the bids in the early stages could suggest a general consensus, but Lukes (2005) specifically claimed that this ignored the very nature of power in that it is possible to achieve false consensuses through the manipulation of power. The somewhat vocal opposition to the Glasgow and Sheffield bids in particular following their success would provide a strong supporting point to this view, as would the significant efforts made by the policy entrepreneurs to quell any fears before they could become organised into formal opposition groups.

Conclusion

Overly, at least, the broad utility of the MSF indicates an unexpected degree of opportunism in more recent bids for large scale sports events. However, while opportunism and ‘coincidences’ do seem to exist, the opportunism is not universal across local and national contexts. Where it does still appear, the context in which it has operationalized has changed domestically and internationally. In the international context, these changes are changes in the expectations of international sports federations (ISFs), which increasingly expect governments to have strategies for such events. Domestically, these changes refer to both DCMS and UK Sport strategy which offer only ‘support’ and first require champions to come forward. In essence, the system is set up to encourage ‘entrepreneurs’.

This latter point here is key. In Glasgow the MSF most clearly applies, despite the increasing centralisation of hosting. The politics stream is represented by the supportive national mood, the policy stream is putting together the bid and the problem stream is the challenge of demonstrating a new identity of Scotland. There was a clear window of opportunity and a symbol was required. The bid was at the right time to take advantage of this launch window. Similarly, although less convincingly, it also applied in Sheffield and Manchester.

However, the MSF is only useful until the decision is made to bid. Policy communities, particularly issue networks, best explain the next step as the policy entrepreneurs attempt to put together a community to deliver the bid and then the event. Essentially this represents a coalition of support, which is then dismantled, often to some resistance.

More broadly, this study alludes to the positive perceived value of sport amongst local decision-makers. This concept has already been explored in the context of sports event tourism in Britain by Smith (2006) and the logical area for further study is the extent to which rational decision-making processes are applied or by-passed in other sports policy settings.

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The challenge of engaging hard-to-reach populations in regular sport and physical activity: an examination of an English Premier League Football in the community men’s health programme

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Introduction
Sports management research is an important global resource which provides essential feedback to organisations whose primary service is related to sport or physical activity (DeSensi et al., 1990). However, Frisby (2005) noted that the sports management discipline needs to be broadened in order to serve the interests of more people that could be affected by sport. Therefore, Frisby and Millar (2007) suggest that research concerned with representing the interests of those affected by managerial actions within community sport should be encouraged, for example, through the inclusion of studies examining hard-to-reach (HTR) populations. Hard-to-reach populations are those who are difficult to access due to a specific factor that characterises its members (Faugier et al., 1997). Such factors may include (but are not limited to) language, age, gender, geographic location, income, ethnicity, education, religion, health and accommodation (Moffett et al., 2010). Participation in regular sport and physical activity can improve the overall health and wellbeing of HTR populations (WHO, 2003; Sport England, 2008). However, literature suggests that people from HTR groups often experience difficulty engaging in sport and physical activity for a sustained period of time (WHO, 2003; Frisby and Millar, 2007; Sport England, 2008). In this regard, it seems appropriate to explore strategies that seek to engage and retain HTR populations in sport and physical activity (Frisby, 2005; Frisby and Millar, 2007).

Due to the popularity of the English Premier League (EPL), professional football clubs’ community engagement (i.e., Football in the Community) programmes have often been championed as a vehicle to reach and connect with HTR populations (Dunn et al., 2011; Frisby et al., 2011). Nevertheless, sustained engagement with HTR populations can be a complex management challenge (Frisby, 2005). In order to extend our understanding of why people from HTR groups experience difficulty engaging in sport and physical activity for a sustained period of time, it is critical to understand the challenges that such populations encounter when attempting to pursue positive health behaviours. Managers of sport and physical activity pursuits and/or programmes should be aware of the challenges that HTR populations encounter. Such knowledge can assist managers in tailoring their approach to their health behaviour programme to reduce the alleged challenges to engagement, ensure more sustained participation and subsequently ensure successful implementation of sport and physical activity participation programmes (Roby et al., 2008).

This study aims to examine the distinct challenges that HTR populations encounter when attempting to commit to regular and sustained participation in sport and physical activity. Furthermore, this research aims to make sense of the participant experiences and propose guidelines for effective strategies that better engage and sustain HTR populations in positive sport, exercise and health behaviour.

Method
After obtaining ethical approval, HTR populations were recruited for participation in a 12 week Football in the Community (FiC) sport, health and physical activity programme based at an English Premier League Football Club. Initially, two HTR populations were identified; homeless men and men recovering from drug addiction. Two services hosting these particular HTR populations were then contacted. These services included a men’s homeless shelter and a drug addiction service within the City of Liverpool, UK. Participants were then recruited over a period of three months using a variety of mechanisms including face-to-face engagement, phone calls, referrals from service staff and word of mouth. The intervention was directed at men 18-35 years of age, although adult men beyond 35 years were eligible to enrol. Enrolment on the programme was voluntary. Following the recruitment drive, 24 men (mean ± SD: age 29.05 ± 9.6 years) who were living in homeless shelters and/or recovering from drug misuse enrolled on the FiC programme. The programme consisted of two 2-hour football sessions each week alongside the dissemination of healthy living messages. Football sessions were conducted by a qualified FiC coach. Typically, each session involved a short informal ‘talk’ from a health service provider followed by a standardised warm-up, fitness activities, skills practice and concluded with a small sided game.

Research design
Frisby (2005) suggested that novel qualitative methodologies (i.e., those that allow for the voices, experiences and insights of HTR populations to be heard) offer a greater understanding of HTR populations. The practitioner-cum-researcher (i.e., 1 author) adopted the principles of ethnography and observational research (Tedlock, 2003) in order to gain a deeper understanding of the day-to-day realities and challenges of the participants. The practitioner-cum-researcher was immersed in the planning and delivery of the programme from the outset and subsequently engaged in a 4 week period of regular casual conversation and active participation with programme participants in order to develop relationships, trust and rapport. Throughout the following 8 weeks, social issues were discussed with all programme participants through informal client-researcher interactions. Data was collated through logged researcher observations and field notes (Atkinson and Hammersley, 1994). Records of attendance were also logged and participants who failed to attend a session were contacted. The participants’ reason(s) for non-attendance were recorded. This reflective based methodology allowed for...
sense-making with the practitioner continually learning from the knowledge gained in action. Such an approach encouraged a more meaningful contextual understanding of the participants’ real life experiences (Polkinghorne, 1988; Tedlock, 2003).

Data analysis

Following the intervention, data was analysed through deductive and inductive reasoning in order to extrapolate a meaningful understanding of the participants’ behaviour and voices (Polkinghorne, 1988). Deductive analysis followed by inductive analysis ensured that relevant theoretical and contextual themes and categories emerged from the data. Data is represented in this paper through a series of themed narrative extracts that capture pertinent ‘moments’ from applied observations within the field. The voice of the participants is represented through a series of direct quotations and evidenced as italics within the text. Pseudonyms are used for all participants.

Results

Despite the apparent ambition of the HTR participants to regularly participate in the Football in the Community programme, adherence to the programme was poor. Through the adoption of ethnographic methods in this research, a period of ‘down time’ was established within the physical activity programme (generally prior to activity commencing and between activities) and this period became particularly useful for building practitioner-participant relationships and consequently for identifying a number of challenges experienced by the HTR participants.

Reasons given for irregular and/or non attendance commonly alluded to the fact that regular engagement and adherence posed a real challenge for the participants. Three dominant themes emerged which explained this irregular and/or non attendance, namely: ‘economic’, ‘environmental’ and ‘social’ challenges.

Economic Challenges: Budgetary restraints are a significant barrier for participating in sports activities for people of low income (Steenhuis et al., 2009). Similarly, it became increasingly evident that financial constraints were a significant challenge for our HTR participants [who were generally not in employment] when attempting to engage in the FitC programme. Although there was no direct cost for participation in the FitC programme, the indirect cost of transport to and from the sporting venue arose as a significant challenge for the majority of participants throughout the programme. This finding was epitomised by Gary, 31, a recovering drug user, when he exclaimed, “I can’t afford the bus fare. I want to come like, but just can’t always get up there”. Similarly, Ben, 27, an enthusiastic participant who was living in a homeless shelter, stated “Sorry that I didn’t turn up Kath. I’ve got no money to get there. Sorry”.

Environmental Challenges: The influence of the environment on sports participation has been described as ‘any aspect of the physical (natural) environment or the urban or constructed (built) environment that subconsciously or consciously relates to an individual and their sport and physical activity behaviour’ (NICE, 2008). The location of the recreational facilities (built environment) which were used for our FitC programme emerged as a dominant theme preventing our HTR participants from sustained participation in the programme. This finding is illustrated by James, a 26 year old participant who was living in a homeless shelter who exclaimed, “It’s ([the venue] just too far away from where I live. I can’t be arsed! It takes me ages to get up there” James, 26.

Social Challenges: The influence of social factors as a determinant of physical activity engagement is widely recognized (Haughton McNell et al., 2006). Social challenges to participation which emerged from the data in this study were largely related to the participants’ primary priorities (i.e., for survival in their day-to-day existence). For example, the HTR participants in this study were living in homeless shelters and/or recovering from drug misuse and so were commonly assigned to ‘community support workers’ who were helping them to rebuild their lives. As a result of this however, attendance at the FitC programme was often prohibited due to participants having obligatory meetings with their community support workers. Rob, 23, stated “I’ve messed up again. Now I have to see my officer [support worker] every Tuesday”. Similarly, Andrew, 25, said “I’ve gotta meet me support worker today so can’t make it”. Furthermore, participants commonly stated that they had other situational obligations to attend to during the time that they hoped to attend the FitC programme, for example, Daniel, a 34 year old unemployed, homeless participant explained, “I’ve got to sign on [job seekers allowance] on Tuesday afternoons Kath so I won’t be able to make it here half the time”.

Discussion

This study has identified three dominant challenges that HTR populations encounter when attempting to commit to regular participation in sport and physical activity. At a basic level, the challenges which have been outlined are not dissimilar from findings of previous studies that engaged more generic populations, namely ‘economic’, ‘environmental’ and ‘social’ challenges (Haughton McNell et al., 2006). However, the specific findings that have emerged in this study under these three themes allude to somewhat more ‘severe’ challenges that are on a more ‘extreme’ level to those faced by generic populations. It is likely that these differences are due to the complex lives and extenuating circumstances of the HTR participants. Therefore, it can be argued that in order to facilitate sustained engagement, a deeper level of understanding and due diligence is required by sports managers who engage and/or are considering engaging HTR populations prior to the conception and development of such community programmes. Specifically, it would appear that in order to achieve regular engagement, managers of future programmes engaging HTR participants should immerse themselves in a period of direct contact and focused interaction with their participants prior to the programme design in order to gain a greater understanding of the day-to-day existence and recognise the economic, environmental and social challenges associated with the population whom they are engaging. During this period of due diligence, sports managers should seek to understand
simple but critical logistics such as location, cost and timing. Wherever possible, managers should also make direct contact with the participants’ community support workers in order to minimise the chance of obligatory meetings being scheduled during the same time as the programme. This ‘bottom up’ programme design and management strategy is therefore likely to reduce the challenges facing HTR participants when attempting to engage in sport and physical activity programmes and result in greater adherence and thus, positive outcomes.

Conclusions and future directions
Sport England (2008) stated that projects targeting HTR populations need to spend time listening to their participants in order to be successful. By adopting this approach and including the voices of HTR populations who were impacted by sport management practice, ideas for promoting change and inclusion have been generated. It can be argued that the findings and recommendations of this study puts managers in a better position to tailor their programmes so that they work for those who are classified as HTR, and thus offers a new role for community sport and physical activity programme managers as facilitators and enablers.

The current study contributes to an underserved area within sport management literature however there are limitations that should be addressed in future research. Mainly, this work has solely concentrated on men who are classified as ‘homeless’ and/or ‘recovering from drug misuse’. Therefore, it would seem appropriate to explore the experiences of other groups classified as HTR (e.g., females, older age groups and/or ethnic minorities) in order to deepen our understanding of the issues encountered amongst similarly challenging populations. Furthermore, longitudinal research studies which adopt immersed researcher techniques with HTR participants should be encouraged in order to probe more thoroughly into the challenges which cause lack of engagement. This data could be used to inform and implement successful sport and physical activity programmes with HTR populations.

References:
Poster presentations
Scientific support to elite sports in Brazil: a preliminary analysis

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Aim of the paper
Scientific research and innovations are considered one of the key issues that show that nations are strategically developing elite sport toward the international sports success. The aim of this study was to analyze the scientific input into elite sport in Brazil to succeed in the 2016 Summer Olympic Games. This study was built from the initial input into elite sport in Brazil to succeed in the 2016 Summer Olympic Games. This study was built from the initial data analysis provided by the SPLISS (Sports Policy Factors Leading to International Sporting Success) Consortium Group 2011-2012, that includes Brazil.

Theoretical background
Some studies examined different countries programs in order to propose models based on the similarities among the structures of the considered nations. Several factors were identified like financial support, role of the sporting organizations involved and the simplicity of their management, nation’s sports participation, talent development process, high performance athlete support, organized sportive schedule, trainers preparation, environment of elite sport, sport facilities and scientific support. The role of science in the development of elite sports system has been considered relevant to support training system and sports training itself [Green, Oakley, 2001, Digel, 2002, De Bosscher; De Knop; Van Bottenburg; Shibli, 2006], as well as a key element of elite sport success in the former Soviet Union and East Germany [De Bosscher, De Knop, Van Bottenburg, Shibli, Bingham, 2009].

Methodology
The used instruments were elaborated by the SPLISS Consortium Group 2011-2012: and comprised an Overall Elite Sport Policy Inventory, and two questionnaires about the Elite Sports Climate Survey related to sport policies and specifically elite athletes and coaches development that are supported by applied scientific research and innovation projects (Pillar 9). The Inventory was completed by the cooperating researchers in the country. The Survey was sent to 449 athletes and 57 coaches. It was analyzed in this paper: A) a question about the opportunities to use applied scientific research, new technology developments and innovation for both, athletes and coaches, and B) two questions about: 1) network to communicate and disseminate scientific information and 2) scientific information from NGBs and other organizations, for coaches.

Qualitative analysis was made with the documents at the Inventory. Descriptive statistical analysis was made about the answers in each question through the application SPSS version 17.0. Finally, in order to verify the different views regarding the issues, a comparison was made between the information obtained through the two instruments.

Results/discussion
The Inventory showed that the knowledge produced in the field is not sufficient to the preparation of elite athletes, resulting in a deficiency in the field of applied research to sport in Brazil. In addition, there are no field laboratories and/ or involved scientists to develop, test and/or apply new technologies, in cooperation with coaches and athletes, in training centers for elite sports. These results were confirmed by the descriptive analysis of valid responses of the 276 athletes (61.2 %) and 38 coaches (66.7 %). The use of applied scientific research was considered good and sufficient for 10.5 % of coaches, and 10.9% of athletes. Regarding the use of new technology developments, the responses were 10.5 % and 9.2 %, respectively, for coaches and athletes. Finally, 10.5 % of coaches and 9.1 % of athletes considers the opportunities for use of innovation good or sufficient. Concerning the dissemination of scientific information, the analysis of the Inventory showed that Brazil does not have a national coordinated and regularly updated database for elite sport available for coaches and NGBs. This finding is supported by 89.6 % of coaches who affirms that not receives scientific knowledge from your national governing body or club. Furthermore, 94.6 % of the coaches consider that scientific knowledge is not disseminated sufficiently well amongst the elite coaches. Although the results are preliminary, Brazilian reality can be considered to be worse than that of countries with similar sporting performance in Olympic sports, studied by De Boscher et al. (2009).

Implications/conclusions
The results of this study indicate an important gap with regard to the support of science and innovation in the development of sport in the country. Due the variety of sports considered, is necessary the analysis of other factors together in order to contextualize and develop specific actions for some sports. This deficiency may impair the development of Brazilian sport, which aims to sporting success, particularly in 2016 Summer Olympics Games.

References
Sport facilities in Brazil: a preliminary analysis

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Keywords
Sports facilities; elite sports

Aim:
The aim of this study was to diagnose the Sports Facilities in Brazil, mainly Sports Training Centers. This country wants to succeed in major international sports events, especially in 2016 Summer Olympic Games.

Theoretical Background:
In the last years there was an increase on the number of nations that invests large amounts of money on Sport. Nations look for political, social and economic benefits, originated from the achievements on main international competitions (DE BOSSCHER, BINGHAM, SHIBLI, VAN BOTTENBURG. DE KNOPE, 2008; HOULIHAN, GREEN, 2008). With the professionalism level of sports today, the success of athletes depends on the ability of the sport structures to effectively use all the available resources. Therefore, some countries try to develop sports policies that change their management models and structures into something capable of an efficient sportive progress. Among other factors, the success of elite athletes depends on the access to good sport facilities to train. SPORT Facilities can improve the children’s access to sport, and mainly, in Sports Training Centers, to develop and prepare high performance athletes. In this context, similarities and differences among some countries have been studied, in order to understand the international sporting success. Elite sports training facilities (sports training centers, for example), should be developed in a manner which takes into account the needs, the availability, the accessibility, the quality and the comfort of elite athletes and coaches (GREEN; OAKLEY, 2001; DIGEL, 2002; DE BOSSCHER et al, 2006; 2008).

Methodology:
This study is part of the initial data analysis of SPLISS Consortium Group research project based on the nine pillars of SPLISS model (Sports Policies Leading to International Sport Success). Three questionnaires were used. In this paper the results of a question about the Pillar 6 (Sports Facilities) is related. The first questionnaire/inventory was answered by the researcher, based on the collected documents about the existing sport facilities. The other two questionnaires were answered by a sample composed of 284 elite athletes and 42 elite coaches. A descriptive statistical analysis was realized about the question: “How do you rate the quality and the availability/accessibility of the training & competition facilities/accommodation at elite level sport in your country, as you experience them?”

Results/Discussion:
The analyzed information from the sport facilities overall elite sport policy inventory showed that Brazil does not have a governmental or national policy of implementation and maintenance of Sports Training Centers for Elite Athletes. There is some initiative for the development of Sports Training Centers in some of the Brazilian states, like São Paulo and Amazonas. The Brazilian government usually uses financial resources in Sports Facilities, but they are destined to the sport events. Only in 2012 there were some concrete initiatives to develop training centers for Brazilian athletes preparation, seeking 2016 Olympic Games. However, they remain isolated initiatives, concentrated in major economic centers (Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo). The Brazilian Olympic Committee (BOC) affirms in official reports that 17 (58,62%) Nationals Governing Body have a Sports Training Centers - 18 (43,9%) disciplines of the Olympic program. However, the BOC reports do not inform characteristics or details of these sport facilities. National Governing Bodies develop their own sport facilities, sometimes with government support, or in most cases, they financing and management with self-initiative. Many private clubs have high quality sport facilities too, but not everyone practitioner have access to Brazilian sports facilities. This is confirmed on the descriptive analysis of the answers of athletes and coaches to the sport facilities elite sports climate survey. 79% of the Athletes and 88,2% of the coaches say that the availability/accessibility of the sport facilities goes from reasonable to very low (45,2% and 57,2% respectively and low and very low). Furthermore, 73% of the athletes say they do not have full access to a National Sports Training Center for high performance sport, when answering yes/no about this theme. Also, 71,1% of the athletes and 78,6% of the coaches say that the quality of the existing facilities goes from the reasonable to very low (30,3% and 42,9% respectively are low and very low).

Implications/Conclusions:
Brazil wants to improve its international sport results, especially for the summer Olympics. Better results are already expected for London 2012 and Rio 2016; to achieve these aims, Brazil intends to be among the top ten countries. According to the obtained results, Sport Facilities for training does not seem to be a priority for the institutions that control the sports in the country.

References:
Segmenting minor league baseball spectators by family status

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It has been acknowledged that fans and spectators can be classified into different groups by factors such as fan identification (Wann & Branscomb, 1993), gender (Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2002), and motivation (Wann, 1995) and so on. The groups divided by these meaningful factors are likely to demonstrate their unique characteristics, which would provide valuable information for sports marketers when they approach to these different groups.

Minor League Baseball has grown significantly in the recent years (MiLB.com, 2012), and one of the main reason for its growth is its ability to provide affordable family entertainment. The typical scenes of minor baseball are certainly different with that of major league baseball in terms of the level of competition and stadium atmosphere. In minor baseball games, there are plenty of other things going on around a stadium such as in-field activities, theme nights and fireworks. There has been some studies investigated minor league sport fans (e.g. James and Ross, 2002; Zhang, Pease, Smith, Lee, Lam, & Jambor, 1997), but they have not considered the family status (i.e., whether spectators have children or not). Considering this unique setting of minor league baseball and its reputation as a family entertainment, this study looked into how the family status of spectators influence on the perceived importance of 1) game-related factors and 2) non-game related factors of minor league baseball games.

The data were collected from a double A independent minor league team. An online survey was sent out via email to total of 1340 people who are in the database of the team and 371 people (27.6%) completed the survey. Questions of team identification, family status (single or married with no child, married with child) and perceived importance of game-related and non-game related factors were asked. Team identification was measured using team attachment of the Point of Attachment (PAI) by Trail, Robinson, Dick and Gillentine (2003). Perceived importance of game-related and non-game related dimensions was measured using a seven-point likert scale ranging from unimportant to important. Game related factors include game quality, start player and winning. Non-game related dimension includes stadium quality, concession quality, promotions, and ticket price. In addition, comments were solicited in regard to the desirable improvements.

Among 371 respondents, the majority of respondents were Caucasian (96%), male (69%) with the mean age of 45.6. In terms of family status, 163 (44%) were singles or married with no child, and 202 (54.4%) were married with child(ren). The mean scores were calculated for game-related (M = 4.26), non-game related (M = 5.41), and team identification (M = 4.70). Two univariate analyses of covariance (ANCOVA) were conducted with independent variable of family status and a covariate of team identification and dependent variables of perceived importance of game-related or non-game related respectively.

The results showed that there was no main effect for family status (singles or family with no child M = 4.18; family with children M = 4.31) on game-related dimension (F(1,361) = .83, p < .36). However, a main effect was found for family status (singles or family with no child M = 5.27; family with children M = 5.54) on non-game related dimension (F(1,361) = 7.30, p < .007).

The results of this study showed an interesting picture on minor league baseball spectators. As indicated in the mean score, non-game related dimension such as concession quality and various promotions are more important for the respondents of minor league baseball games than game-related factors. This is also reflected by respondents’ comments on the improvements which they want to see. The topp three comments were 1) upgrade stadium and seating (n= 50, 14.48%), 2) more promotions and giveaways (n= 39, 10.46%), and 3) better concessions (n= 33, 8.85%). There were other comments (e.g., beer promotion, more fireworks), but none of the comments were related to game itself. More importantly, the study showed that when spectators watch games with child(ren), the non-game related factors become even more important.

In this study, more than half of the respondents were family with child(ren). Although we cannot assume that this is the case for every minor league baseball game, families with children certainly represent a big portion of the minor league baseball spectators especially if the number of children is added into the calculation. Considering the importance of non-game related factors is critical especially for the families with children, sport marketers and owners of minor baseball league need to pay more attention and spend their budget around these items to attract more people in their stadiums.

References
How winning or losing influences sponsorship effects: an examination of birging and corging

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Abstract keywords
Sport Marketing, Sponsorship, BIRGing, CORGing

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
The purpose of the study is to examine the influence of winning or losing on sponsorship effects in intercollegiate sports such as basketball. The current study is one of the first known attempts to experimentally examine the influence of winning on sport consumers.

Theoretical background or literature review*
Sport sponsorship spending has increased tremendously over the last few decades and projected worldwide sponsorship spending in 2011 was $48 billion. Global companies have invested significant amounts of money in sport sponsorship to achieve marketing goals. For example, McDonald’s recently renewed its sponsorship with The Olympic Partner (TOP) from 2014 to 2020 for an estimated $180 and $200 million (Mickle, 2011). While many high-profile companies sponsor various professional sports, sponsors also support amateur athletes, such as intercollege sports. In the United States, a few large companies (e.g., Nike, adidas, Under Armour) compete to become the official sponsor of universities and their varsity sport teams.

Because sponsors invest an abundance of money in sport sponsorship, evaluating sponsorship effects (i.e., return on investment or return on sponsorship) is critical and scholars have investigated the factors influencing sponsorship effects (e.g., Jensen & Hsu, 2011). In addition, companies spend money to increase brand awareness, brand image, and to increase sales (e.g., Tomasin, Frye, & Stoliar, 2004). Sponsorship research has also been extended into college sports. For example, Lee and Pedersen (2011) examined the impact of sport fandom and the number of visits to sporting events. According to that study, it was found that sport identification, sport fandom, number of visits, and exposure frequency all influence sponsorship effects.

Wann and Branscombe (1990) introduced the concept of basking-in-reflected-glory (BIRGing) and cutting-off-reflected-failure (CORFing). BIRGing and CORFing have been analyzed and conclusions suggest that these concepts influence sport fans’ identification and behaviors (e.g., Campbell, Aiken, & Kent, 2004). For example, sport fans wear team jerseys to associate themselves with their favorite team during successful campaigns which evoke feelings of pride leading fans to become more involved with a team.

Therefore, greater sport sponsorship effects could be observed among sport fans when their favorite team wins games as compared to when the same team loses games. Little is known about BIRGing and CORFing effects on sport sponsorship to date.

Based on the literature review and purpose of study, the researchers suggest the following research hypotheses:

H1: Sponsorship effects are influenced by winning or losing of sponsoring team.
H2: Sponsorship effects are influenced by team identification among sport fans.
H3: Sponsorship effects are influenced by the number of visits of sponsoring team’s games.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
This study was conducted at Indiana University (IU), a Big Ten Conference institution located in the Midwest of the United States. IU’s basketball program has been built on a tradition of winning (e.g., NCAA National Championships in 1940, 1953, 1976, 1981, and 1987); however, the basketball team had struggled over the last several years. But in the 2011-12 season basketball enjoyed a successful season and its national ranking reached 15th in the NCAA Division I. The team proceeded to the “Sweet 16” in the NCAA Tournament for the first time since 2002. Therefore, the fans of IU basketball have experienced major increases in excitement in the current season as compared to the last few seasons.

Therefore, this study employed a longitudinal study method to collect data. The data collection involved both a losing season and a winning season. Surveys were administrated for the two data collection periods and subjects were university students in the same major at IU. A total of 175 subjects participated in the first surveys and another 200 subjects will participated in the second survey. During both data collections the same survey was utilized that asked questions about (1) basic demographics, (2) team identification, and (3) the number of visits to basketball games. To measure sponsorship effects, brand recall and attitude toward the brand questions were asked of the subjects. adidas was selected as the sponsoring brand in this study because adidas is a main sponsor for IU athletic teams. In addition, both surveys used an identical on-line survey tool.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions**
Because data collection for the second time period is still ongoing, the results will be forthcoming and available soon. Findings of this study will highlight the predictive utility of winning as an important element in sponsorship. The theoretical and practical implications of the results are discussed, along with future directions for research.

References – limited to 5


Evaluation of an outdoor experiential training in Greek volunteer rescues on leadership and teamwork competencies

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Abstract keywords
Leadership, teamwork, competencies, outdoor experiential training

Aim of abstract/paper - research question
The purpose of this outdoor experiential training study was two-fold: (1) to determine the internal-consistency reliability estimates of the questionnaires used in this study (MLQ and TDI); (2) to identify statistical differences between pre and post measurements a) in leadership competences and outcomes; and b) in teamwork competences.

Theoretical background or literature review*
According to the Full Range Leadership development model of Bass and Avolio (1997) there are 3 leadership styles: (1) transformational where leaders build trust, act with integrity, inspire others, encourage innovating thinking and coach others, (2) transactional, where leaders reward achievement and monitor mistakes, and (3) passive/avoidant, where leaders are able to fight fires and avoid involvement. Both transformational and transactional leadership are closely related to outcomes such as the ability to generate extra effort in their followers, the ability of being efficient in meeting organizational objectives and the ability to generate satisfaction in their followers. Referring to the development of all aspects of the team, Bronson et. al (1992) focused on competences such as feedback, listening, diversity and decision making as important key factors in the existence and the effectiveness of any team. Finally, to gain understanding of the experiential training Luckmann (1996) defines experiential as a process through which a learner constructs knowledge, skill, and value from direct experiences.

Methodology, research design and data analysis
This was a pilot study with a retrospective pretest-posttest design evaluating if there were any changes in the perceptions of leadership and teamwork competencies. The sample consisted of thirteen volunteer rescuers from Greece, of whom ten were male and only three female. Their age ranged from 19 to 47 years old, with a mean age of 39.9 years old and they had been member of a rescue team/club on average for 4.9 years. The data were collected through two different questionnaires: the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-self report) of Bass and Avolio (1997) and the Team Development inventory (TDI-S) of Bronson et. al (1992) at the end of the 2-days outdoor training. The nonparametric Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was used to analyze the data in this study.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions**
Estimating the internal-consistency reliability with N = 13, the alpha coefficients were .96 and .89 for the MLQ (45-items) and TDI (10-items) instruments, respectively. The null hypothesis for the difference between the pre and the post test score was accepted for all the MLQ factors except ‘effectiveness’ and ‘satisfaction’. The median of pretest effectiveness was 1.75 (SD = 1.03), while the posttest effectiveness was 2.25 (SD = .85), showed a significant change (z = -2.55, p = .011). The median of pretest satisfaction was 2 (SD = .88), while the posttest was 2.5 (SD = .75) showed a significant change (z = -2.45, p = .014). Finally, participants showed a significant change also in teamwork, with pretest median 4.10 (SD = .63) and posttest median 4.60 (SD = .45). More specifically, the participants increased significantly: (1) their understanding and commitment to goals (z = -2.33, p = .020); (2) their concern and interest in one another (z = -2.65, p = .008); (3) their high standards for own and team’s performance (z = -2.25, p = .024) and (4) the recognition and reward of team efforts (z = -2.33, p = .020).

Overall, the results of this study provide support for positive changes among the volunteer rescues both in leadership and teamwork competencies. Significant changes were observed in two outcomes of leadership, effectiveness and satisfaction. In the context of effectiveness, leaders meet the professional needs of their followers, they are more efficient in meeting organizational objectives and personally involved in any organizational process. In the context of satisfaction, leaders generate interpersonal satisfaction in their followers and colleagues by being more open, authentic and honest people. Such competencies are important to rescuers as well as to other emergency personnel because they are exposed to real dangerous life threatening operations. The study also shows some significant positive changes in teamwork, which is another important factor of operational effectiveness of a rescue team. The unique setting of a rescue operation faces a constantly changing environment, where the whole team members have to cooperate in a short time, following a direct decision making and rely on their sufficiency. The results of this pilot study also point out the need for developing leadership and teamwork competencies in rescue departments, possibly through a structured intervention designed to bring about a positive change in employee and volunteers confidence, attitudes and performance in order to meet one of the critical challenges of the 21st century. The importance of development leadership and teamwork competencies in the volunteer environment has to offer valuable insights in sports setting, where volunteers are the lifeblood of sport and play an incredible role in sport system.
References – limited to 5


Evaluation of motives of participants in recreation activities programs based on sex, age and frequency of engagement

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Literature review
Participation motives in recreational activities help people to enhance the benefits that derive from their involvement in them and improve their quality of life (Jedgis, G., 2007). Although motives constitute just one of the many variables that interpret human behavior, thus including the behavior of tourists, are considered to be the most important, in that they make up the impelling and compelling forces behind any one person’s behavior (Crompton & Mackay, 1989; Iso Ahola, 1982). The greatest part of the motivational survey has been carried out by Driver and his counterparts (Driver, 1976; Driver, 1983; Driver & Brown, 1986; Driver & Knopf, 1977; Driver & Tooher, 1970; Driver, Tinsley, & Manfredo, 1991; Manfredo, Driver & Tarrant, 1996), who formulated the Recreation Experience Preference –REP climax based on recreational experience.

The aim of the research was to pinpoint the participation motives in recreational activities carried out in Greece in the region of Eastern Macedonia and Thrace based on participants’ sex, age and degree of involvement.

Methodology
1200 questionnaires were handed out during outdoor recreation activities conducted in the above mentioned areas during the months of July till September of 2010. 732 were returned completed and 637 of them were considered to be suitable for use in the survey (52.9% response rate). The majority of the sample was men (53.2%), educated (63.5%), aged from 20-49 years old (71%) and married (48.4%). In the research, motives were studied under an adapted to its needs version of the REP climax (Manfredo, Driver & Tarrant, 1996). Responses were measured using a seven-point Likert-type scale. The outdoor recreational activities in which the participants were involved in were: hiking, free camping, orienteering, mountain biking, canoe-cayak in lakes, rivers and sea, rafting, archery, rope games, athletic shooting, climbing-rappel, diving, sea sports.

Results
Exploratory variable analysis was carried out as well as credibility analyses a of Cronbach in the 38 motive variables. Analyses showed 9 variables: a) projection with 6 variables and a=.92, b) improvement with 4 variables and a=.84, c) risk with 5 variables and a=.86, d) demonstration with 4 variables and a=.80, e) relationship with the family with 2 variables and a=.88, f) socialization with 5 variables and a=.87, g) contact with nature with 3 variables and a=.90, h) exercise with 3 variables and a=.87 and i) relaxation with 6 variables and a=.87. Test results regarding participants’ motives and sex showed that only in the case of the “family” variable statistically significant differences were presented between the two sexes (t=2.556, p<.05), with men evaluating this specific variable as being less significant, (Average=4.71), than women, (Average=5.05). The results of fluctuation analysis for motives and the different age groups showed that there were statistically significant differences regarding the “projection” variable (F = 2500, p<.05) and the “family” variable (F = 6.482, p<.05). The multiple-comparison Scheffe test stated that in the “projection” variable there was no statistically significant difference between the different age groups while regarding the “family” variable results showed differences between different age groups. The fluctuation analysis concerning motives in the 5 different participation categories showed that there were statistically significant differences only in the “nature” variable (F = 3.186, p<.05). The multiple-comparison Scheffe test showed that there were no statistically significant differences among groups concerning the “nature” variable.

Conclusions
From the above results we conclude that there was no statistically significant difference between the two sexes regarding participation motives in outdoor recreational activities, something that complies with international bibliography (Craig, Russell, Cameron & Beaulieu, 1997). The results of the age groups and participants’ motives in recreation activities are limited, something that can be owing to many reasons (Craig & Cameron, 2002; Makavelou, Michalopoulos, Makavelou, Ifandidou, Courtesis & Zetou, 2005). The results of the research concerning the frequency of participation in outdoor recreation activities concerning motives are limited. The results of the Greek region are in accordance with bibliography (Kouthouris, 2007), while they do not agree with the international region (Gough, 1997).

References
When the result isn’t important: the culture of celebrities in sport mass media’s coverage

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Introduction
The speech of mass media, postmodernity’s time, is increasingly linked with the consumption of sports products. The spectacle construction of sporting events in the media, on several occasions, serves this purpose. The objective of this project is to research and analyze, based on monitoring of sports media printed, the various ways in the popular imagination, the construction of the spectacle of sports competitions. For this, we will analyze the coverage to be performed by the six Brazilian’s major print media in the 2012 Olympics Games in London. Our intention is to demonstrate how the construction of the sporting event for print media seeks to transform athletes into celebrities. Guidelines dedicated to personal and behavioral aspects of athletes take up more space in media than sports’ factors like training and competition’s results. The purpose of this preference in media discourse, we will intend to prove, is to become the sports’ events in spectacle, to reaffirm the culture of sports consumption, increasing its economic importance.

Methods
Our primary research tool is the analysis of media. We intend to monitor daily, from March 2012 until shortly before the Congress, in the six major print media publications, the general character of Brazil - the newspaper O Estado de São Paulo and Folha de São Paulo, in São Paulo; the daily O Globo, in Rio de Janeiro, and the magazines of national circulation - Veja, Época and IstoÉ. We will analyze all the books of three newspapers and three magazines of publishing not only spaces for the Sport.

The idea is to raise all matters that somehow are related to the 2012 Olympics. The goal of monitoring is through the content analysis show that this sporting event, the second largest planet in the audience, is portrayed by the Brazilian press, much like a show than as a competition or sporting event.

To try to arrive at this conclusion, we classify the materials found in five broad categories: a) sports apparel - guidelines related to sports performance and competition, the main reason the Olympics; b) economic fact - stories with issues facing the market, focusing on economic and financial; c) behavioral fact - guidelines directed to the lives of athletes and / or sports personalities out of competition; d) indeed show - materials directed to scandals and / or elements that have little relationship with the sports event, and in) political fact and / or national identification - staves with strong stamp and / or nationalistic direction.

In our view, the classification of articles published in six printed media outlets selected within the categories proposed above will allow the identification of priority agendas, during the London Olympics, the Brazilian media. The premise that drives our proposal is that behavioral factors and the show must overcome, so unchallenged, the three other methods of classification proposed:

Historical research literature, media monitoring these sporting events and monitoring of social networks that have sports as its main content, will also be used to support our paper.

Results
Research in the development process, even without definitive results. But we, as hypothesis, the idea that the news will be classified as sports, the vehicles studied, fewer than the others.

Discussion
The thirst for instant entertainment is a consequence of the consumer society and its fragmentation. Cultural products, such as sports, movies and music, for example, are meant to be eaten quickly so that new ones are produced. On the other hand, the “snack culture”, in the opinion of some, allows the surfer to decide, by the proliferation of options, where you will spend your time. The consumer therefore has the discretion to hand:

The hearing, which according to Pierre Bourdieu (1997), goes with commercial interests, and “sports chatter” by Umberto Eco (1984), assist in the construction of sports imagery. The consumption and waste, here understood as another form of consumption, are present in music that portray the life habits of the two athletes, now lifted to the status of Olympic superheroes.

The purpose of this study is to investigate how the sport of modern performance as a cultural phenomenon, is inserted in the call pop culture or popular culture. This insertion causes the media, mass or individual, to collaborate to build the image of the sports top athletes, celebrities and much more, than as sports, where performance in the contests should be the main objective of these athletes.

References
Volunteering in sport clubs in Catalonia

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Abstract keywords
Volunteering, clubs, economic resources

Introduction
The Catalan Sport Observatory is an instrument whose purpose it is to provide knowledge for individuals and institutions involved in the world of sport in Catalonia. These agents can then make use of this information to follow up the evolution of the sport phenomenon and to support decision-making in their area of responsibility.

Aim of the research
The Catalan Sport Observatory has promoted a research called “Sports clubs in Catalonia” in order to analyze the current situation of sporting organizations in Catalonia. Among other topics, this research has analyzed the staffing structure of clubs, with regards to both voluntary and professional staff. Human resources are one of the pillars of sports clubs, because they are essential for their operation. This is the reason why the information obtained in this research is valuable for the organization of sport clubs, the set of rules that regulate them and also to face the future of these entities.

Methodology
The methodology used in this research was based mainly on another research carried out in Germany in 1994 (Heinemann & Schubert: 1994). The method of research was a face to face standardized interview (opinion poll interview) with a total of 52 closed questions and only 2 opened questions. With regard to sample, 1,000 clubs were interviewed, which was considered to grant representativeness, hence the results were applicable to 95% of Catalan sport clubs with a margin of error of only +/- 3.0%.

Results
The composition of clubs is very homogeneous and any differences are due to club size and level of professionalism. In general, 61.2% of people who work in clubs are paid employees whereas 38.8% work as volunteers. Steering Committees, are the main body of clubs’ governance, and are made up entirely by volunteers. From an institutionalization point of view, these are formal positions, as they have a fixed role and a fixed tenure resulting from an election process (Heinemann, 1999). The existence of a manager position in a club seems to indicate a professionalization process as these are paid positions, professionally consolidated and requiring a certain level of qualification. This process can be found in large clubs, as they are the ones that have the highest percentage compared to small ones. In the case of technical staff, in both large and small clubs 65% are paid employees and 35% are volunteers.

Drawing a comparison between positions, team delegation is the position with a higher presence of volunteers (88.6%). The other positions (technical director, technical coordinator and sports specialist) feature more paid employees than volunteers; the highest number of paid employees can be found in the position of manager (85.7%).

Conclusions
The importance of volunteering in associations is a known fact in the sport system of any country, so it is impossible to dissociate sport associations from volunteering. Thousands of people contribute their time, knowledge and their best intentions to the management of a club and its administrative, social and technical aspects. In Catalan clubs, 39% of the people involved in their operation do so voluntarily. From the study data, the estimated contribution of volunteering to Catalan sports clubs can be valued at over 213 million euro. In other words, this is the amount that would need to be invested into the sport system in order to maintain the quality and variety of the sport association offer if the role of volunteer did not exist.

References
Applicable business models in Russian and Ukrainian football

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The collapse of communism in Eastern Europe and removal of communist structures accelerated a shift from state control and support for sport generally and football in particular towards private, commercial sport (Gammelsaeter & Senaux, 2011) in former Soviet Union countries. Both in Russia and Ukraine the structure of property of sport clubs and the mechanisms of governance are approximately the same, with the involvement of oligarchs’ and government funding. Both countries have invested hundreds of millions euro in football for several last years and achieved some success in European cups. Thus Russian and Ukraine teams celebrated three UEFA Cup successes over last 7 years.

Obviously, unlike a typical business unit, success for a football club is measured not only in terms of financial figures. The business is built around the world’s most popular sport and success for a club is measured in terms of the team’s success on the field (Surana & Nanduri, 2006). But like any business a football club has a revenue and cost side too. From this point of view Russian and Ukrainian clubs can brag about their growing revenues and frequently the presence of profit as well. But the dark side of this is that major part of this revenues are direct injections of owners (or other controlling institutions as local governments), veiled as sponsorship funding or other sort of deals.

The other measure of a success is spectators’ interest. In Soviet Union, where sport was really considered as a part of national pride, the average Highest Football League attendance was about 35 000 spectators per game. Whereas nowadays this indicator is about 12000 in Russia and 9000 in Ukraine. And what is really notable is that this figure didn’t increase for the last 10 years, while the investments in football increased in more than 10 times. TV ratings of national leagues are also rather low despite of purchasing such attractive players as Eto’o, Jadson, Bangoura etc.

With the fact that due to the huge investments in last years these clubs perform better in Europe, there are doubts that this funds work effectively. Today all big European professional clubs have adopted a MCMMG model of finance where most significant source of finance is TV revenues (Andreff, W., 2008). But in considered countries there is a low spectators’ interest, lack of social function, unwillingness to earn money from TV rights or real sponsorship deals. This means that the strategies, chosen by football managers don’t work. There is also an ethical issue within this. Since most clubs are sponsored by government bodies or public companies it finally means that the public money, the money of taxpayers, is used ineffectively.

The research question is whether the strategies of football business in Russia and Ukraine are viable in a long term. And if current strategies are ineffective, what are the ways for changes? This field of science haven’t been researched properly before and so the article can be useful as a theoretical basis for further researches.

The research is done in two steps. The first is based on analysis of aggregate figures of football clubs’ performance such as UEFA coefficients, league attendance, aggregate gate receipts etc. The data is analysed in dynamics to determine the influence of increased injections into sport on the results and economic performance as well as attendance and TV ratings. These figures are also compared with aggregate figures of Netherlands and Portugal, which have comparable sport success, but focusing on the “breeder” and “trader” clubs business models.

Another phase is microanalysis of economic performance of particular clubs – big ones and a smaller. It helps in understanding which business models are really applicable at a current place at a current time. The source is information collected directly from clubs, such as financial reports and surveys. The paradox of high survival rate in conditions of soft budget constraints (Storm, Nielsen, 2012) and its application is also reviewed. The consumers’ behaviour is also analysed through questionnaires and attendance figures. Hopefully this research can be applicable for usage in practical field. The limitations of work are related with restricted data access.

References:
Lean thinking in sport infrastructures and sport services

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Abstract
Lean Thinking is a management philosophy through which organizations develop competencies in order to eliminate waste and reinforce value creation. Municipalities are suffering heavy budget cuts and need to sustain their sport facilities in use. Usually we do not look at maintenance cost as the highest cost in sport facilities. Lean philosophy is considered very accurate as a tool to save money in the maintenance processes, therefore we consider it a very accurate instrument to save money in managing sport facilities.

Aim of the paper
The aim of this study is to describe and diagnose what happens in 5 swimming pool infrastructures and inherent sport services. We will identify processes and procedures in use, identifying the main cost centers and finding the adequate solutions to better off service management through cost reduction, which is a considerable need in actual socioeconomic days where there is a trend to close such unsustainable infrastructures. Being a in-progress study no final results can be shown so far.

Literature
One of the seminal and main authors that studied the transfer of the organisation principles in production lines and manufactured systems to service industries was Levitt (1972), although Bowen and Youngdahl (1998) were the pioneers in transferring this model for services. Some authors applied lean philosophy in different contexts such as call centers (Piercy and Rich, 2009), health services (Araújo, 2009) or air force (Karn L. Carlson, 2008).

According to George (2004) there are seven types of waste identified by Ohno in 1988:
- Overproduction, more than needed;
- Waiting time, between activities;
- Transportation, each movement between activities takes transport time related with the layout of the instruments or machines obsolete or in use (framework 5S);
- Movement, referring to the unnecessary people movements.
- On this purpose Hall (1988) suggests we study all the movements for saving and consistency once they improve productivity and quality. Slack et al. (2002), state that sometimes a worker looks like he’s busy but no added value is aggregated to his work/movement. Sometimes “work simplification is an excellent source for movement waste reduction”;
- Over procedure, which adds more value than customers are willing to pay and can be avoided if we think in scope and beyond speed (Hall, 1988);
- Stocks, which contradicts the just in time philosophy and Slack et al. (2002) highlight that instead of material lines we will have customer queues;
- Defects, such as wrong instructions, deadlines and schedules failures, etc. As George (2004) says the cost of repairing an error can be easy as to press a button, but the opportunity cost in the next may represent a customer loss. We have waste type 1 we cannot eliminate immediately and waste type 2 that we can eliminate right away.

Methodology
We use an experimental mix methodology and a comparative case study because there are no official registered or published data on cost operations. In official documents we collected data for costs according to the Account Local System for municipalities in order to estimate cost per unit use of the swimming pools in 5 municipalities. After mapping the infrastructure list of procedures we systematically look for pattern activities where there are losses and no value added.

As nothing is known we start to analyse real costs associated to the functioning of a swimming pool installation trying to figure out a systematic classification of waste operations. Our sample consists in 5 swimming facilities in the country Portugal. The methodology will also comprise personal interviews and research observation of the procedures in order to identify each system and waste steps/operations.

Cost analysis will focus upon the main sections: human resources, consumption (energy, gaz, water, administrative materials, informatics, sport equipments, etc.), outsourcing services (cleaning, safety, etc.), maintenance and other (communication, advertising, etc.). The analysis will be centered on the processes within each section, seeking for actions to reduce costs and waste.

Results and discussion
The costs we identified are divided in several groups such as: diverse commodities; diverse services’ provision; human resources salaries; water, gas and electricity (or other energy source). These last costs represent over 50% of the total costs; human resource salaries about 30% e 35% and the remaining 15% to 20% in other.

With personal interviews we are visiting all the facilities and we expect to have complete results by the middle of June 2012.

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Sports management strategies: governance and stakeholders in Garraf Park (Catalonia)

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Introduction and aim of paper
In recent years, there has been an exponential increase in the sports use of natural areas—the sports habits surveys in the last years in Catalonia and Spain proves this fact—. The great growth of the sports practice in the natural environment has led to difficulties to their managers. This new development is occurring in the practice, both in its supply and demand towards new emotions and experiences; but it is also building a new management development to make compatible this practice with the sustainable development of the area. People responsible for this management have tried to find new strategies with the aim of bringing together the different interests of all the stakeholders involved: from the economic exploitation of the area to the preservation of its environmental conditions. They have moved to the governance for the sustainable development, not only of its territory, but also of their inhabitants and users. By this research, we want to solve this managers’ problem and propose some key strategies for the governance of the sports practice in natural areas.

Research questions and theoretical background
The research questions of the investigation are the following. And we present them mentioning the most important theories that has helped us to answer them:

1. Which have been the management strategies of the sports practice used in natural areas to achieve a more sustainable development since the beginning of its sports use?
   - We have used the concept of strategy (Wintzberg et al., 1997) and the different typologies of management strategies (Heinemann, 2003).
2. Which are the different forms of governance in which these strategies are produced and which are the factors of this governance that affect them and generate a higher or lesser degree of sustainability of its development?
   - We have used the stakeholders theory (Mitchel et al., 1997), the social network theory (Prell et al., 2008) and the collaboration theory (Gray, 1985).
3. Which have been the consequences of the diverse strategies of management identified on the degree of sustainability of the development of the natural areas?
   - We have used the theory of sustainable development extracted from the Report of the United Nations World Commission on Environment and Development.

Methodology and research design
This presentation aims to show the real situation of the Garraf Park, a protected natural area in Catalonia, one of the cases of study of the whole research. The methods used to collect the necessary data have been, firstly, the content analysis of the existing internal and external documentation, and finally, in depth interview to all the key agents involved in the analyzed situations.

The design of the research is based in the analysis of two sports modalities that has generated to a conflict situation at any moment in the past and has led to a process of negotiation involving different stakeholders in order to achieve a sustainable solution concerning all their different interests.

Results, discussion and implications
This results show that in both conflict situations analyzed (hang-gliding practice and climbing) the Park managers has leaded some meetings with the different stakeholders involved and the solution has been, initially, a verbal agreement, and after a process of formal meetings with technical and scientific support, it has ended with a written regulation reached by consensus. During the years of negotiation, strong relationships have been created between the practitioners of both modalities, the federation that represents them, and the Park managers and workers.

References
Corporate social responsibility in Italian sport organization: A multiple case study

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Aim of paper and research questions
This study seeks to understand Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in Italian sport organizations by analysing the CSR perception, programs and related activities. Specifically the research project aims to review social responsibility in four main Italian sports organizations, that already have CSR projects in place: two profit clubs (Football Padova and Basket Rome) and two no profit organizations (Italian Motorcycle Federation and Treviso Marathon Organizing Committee).

The concept of CSR has a long and varied history. We consider Epstein’s (1987, p. 104) definition «Corporate social responsibility relates primarily to achieving outcomes from organizational decisions concerning specific issues or problems which (by some normative standard) have beneficial rather than adverse effects on pertinent corporate stakeholders. The normative correctness of the products of corporate action have been the main focus of corporate social responsibility». Smith, and Westerbeek (2007) stressed the diversity of the discourses, institutions, architectural forms, regulatory decisions, scientific statements, philosophical and moral propositions related to CSR conception and implementation.

This research considers two questions. How is seen CSR perception by Italian sport managers? Is there a gap between perception and implementation of CSR programs? If there is, which are the main reasons?

Methods
The search strategy focused on multiple case study (Yin 2003). Theoretical proposition to guide the collection and analysis of data was built after an analysis of existing literature (Anagnostopoulos 2011, Babiak, Trendafilova 2011).

The investigation model (descriptive approach) is composed by seven main dimensions (purposes, stakeholders, resources, tools, actions, methods of assessment, influencing factors). Analytic technique used has been pattern-matching (Campbell 1975) comparing if the initially predicated results have been found and alternative patterns were absent.

Data collection has made using multiple sources of evidence (triangulation) searching (for each dimension) converging findings from documents, archival records from one side and interviews to the main sport manager from another side. Vertical analysis was provided in relation to investigate the coherence between the seven dimensions in each organization while horizontal analysis compared the individual dimensions of the four organizations under the subject of the case study.

Main results
Research has highlighted (question 1) the recent evolution of social responsibility in sport organizations examined and common modes of representation. It was an overall agreement on the purposes on social function of sport, transparent and ethical behaviour of sport organizations, stakeholder engagement, environmental protection, attention to the performance assessment (effectiveness and efficiency). Moreover results indicated that, in each organization examined, some of the seven categories are not very interrelated.

Research has also highlighted (question 2) that there is a clear gap between perception and implementation of social responsibility. The main influencing factors are a lack of available resources and dedicated structure for social responsibility, there’s a requirement of a new managerial culture too.

Conclusions
There is growing attention to social responsibility and this study represents an initial exploration of CSR in Italian sport organizations. The pattern used must be implemented in order to highlight some differences in the CSR perception and related activities even better. The strategic dimension of social responsibility must be further investigated by promoting the link between university research and the world of sport organizations.

References
Enactment of the fundamental law of sport in Japan: the effect for sports promotion policy

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The year of 2011 was a turning point for the Japanese sports promoting legislation. This is due to the fact that the Sports Promotion Act, which had undergone several revisions and served as the fundamental law in sports promotion between 1961 and 2011, was thoroughly changed by the Fundamental Law of Sport. Therefore, the aim of this study is to examine the effect of the enactment of the Fundamental Law of Sport for sports promotion policy in Japan.

The Fundamental Law of Sport contains a preamble, 5 chapters and 34 articles as well as supplementary provisions. The Preamble states that “it is the right of every man to live a happy and prosperous life through the practice of sports”. Therefore, the new law specifies clearly that “the practice of sports is a human right”. As regards this point, that is an explicit statement, absent from the previous act. Furthermore, the Preamble also says that the sports policy is to be comprehensively and systematically promoted as a national strategy, because an establishment of a sport-oriented nation is indispensable for the development of Japan in the 21st century. That is to say, establishing a sport-oriented nation is one of the main purposes of the enactment of the new law. In other words, the Preamble specifies that the State also bears responsibility for the promotion of sports. However, the Preamble does not contain a precise definition of concrete rights and thus the responsibility of the State and local governments to ensure the right to sport remains unclear, namely, their obligation is defined as a pledge to “make an effort”.

Another provision worth mentioning is Article 5 concerning the “effort of sports organizations”. This provision states the necessity to ensure transparent management of sports organizations so that they will function properly. This is due to the fact that some Japanese organizations promoting sports, such as The Sumo Association, have management-related problems and there is a necessity to enhance their governance. In addition, Article 14 is also worth mentioning because it states that it is essential to take measures which would contribute not only to the prevention of sport-related accidents, but also to injuries and disorders (this includes, for example, a warning of overuse).

As described above, by qualifying the sporting activity as a human right and by defining a certain responsibility of the State (i.e. a comprehensive formulation and implementation of measures concerning the sports policy), the new law as compared with the previous one, plays a more important role for the execution of the sports promotion policy. We can also expect that the involvement of the State and local governments in the promotion of sports will increase. However, as was pointed out, considering that the law does not provide a precise definition of concrete rights and that it states the government’s “effort” instead of “obligation”, it cannot sufficiently guarantee the exercise of the right to sport. Therefore, in order to ensure the execution of this right as well as the effectiveness of the sports promotion policy, it is necessary to establish laws and regulations such as the order for enforcement.
The legal order covering public sports facilities in Catalonia

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Abstract keywords
Legal order, facilities

The Spanish Constitution defines Spain as a State formed by Autonomous Communities with legal jurisdiction for their respective territories. Catalonia is an Autonomous Community to which basic jurisdiction has been transferred covering spheres such as sport, health, consumer affairs and the environment. In its turn, Spain is part of the European Union, which is governed by its own legislation.

These three sources of law – international (Europe), national (Spain) and autonomous (Catalonia) - legislate within the framework of their own jurisdictions, the result of which is a legal order that the layman finds hard to understand. In this article, the authors define the legal order covering public sports facilities in Catalonia. Familiarity with the legal order that applies to sports facilities fosters compliance with the corresponding regulations, thereby benefiting those responsible for the management of such facilities in the first instance, and their users in the second instance.

The planning stage of a sports facility is defined by autonomous regulations, which designate the phases of design (1), construction (2) and management (3). The three phases are affected to a varying extent by the legal order of the three sources of law, depending on the sphere in which it legislates.

The regulation that will govern sports facility phases will depend on the source in relation to: a) the scope of the source: international, national or autonomous; b) the juridical form: public or private; and c) the contents of the regulation: general (administration, urban planning and environment, facilities, health and society, work and consumer affairs, data, information and advertising), sectorial or technical (sport).

The author conducts an analysis of sources in relation to their scope (a), their juridical form (b) and the contents of the regulation (c), which regulate certain aspects of sports facilities in relation to the phases of design (1), construction (2) and management. In this way the legal order is defined of public sports facilities in Catalonia, consisting of 140 regulations.

Analysis of the legal order reveals several interesting implications to be highlighted: 1. For the design (1. 54 regulations) and construction (2. 24 regulations) phases, the legal order is the same, regardless of the type of sport facility, and the regulation is subject to the granting of permits or administrative licences in order for one phase to be completed and the following one begun. 2. For the management phase (3. 62 regulations), the legal order varies depending on the type of sports facility (the area of sports activity, open or closed sports facilities) and the type of practice (free or organised). In this phase, no kind of inspection is contemplated to verify whether or not regulations are complied with. Since this is the phase when direct contact is established with the user or client, it is the most sensitive phase in terms of the need for compliance with regulations.

This study marks an initial step in which the legal order governing public sports facilities in Catalonia is identified, paving the way for a subsequent study in which an analysis will be conducted of the degree of compliance with regulations in the management phase and, where this does not occur, an attempt will be made to identify the reasons for such incompliance and to design mechanisms by which to ensure that regulations are obeyed.

References
Total quality management in sports tourism: a bibliography review

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1. Aim of the abstract/paper • research question
The purpose of this paper is to provide a systematic overview of possible approaches to sports tourism management, from a TQM perspective. To accomplish this goal, a bibliography review has been carried out by analyzing the articles that studied TQM in companies of Sport Tourism.

Services, sport, leisure or sports tourism issues are present in our society and in the current specific literature. This paper seeks to build a structured synthesis of this knowledge based on its bibliography. Firstly, the services are characterized and classified. Secondly, as defended by some authors, sports and leisure services’ specificity is exposed. The following section examines sport tourism services by addressing not only its definition but also the industry’s dimension. Finally, there is an approach to the sport tourism sector, through some studies on Total Quality Management, in the services sector. This last aspect constitutes the paper’s core.

2. Theoretical background or literature review
Sports Tourism represents the body of knowledge which is related to a set of practices that associate tourism and sport. Sport activities and tourist activities present a symbiotic relationship. Definitions of Sport Tourism are based on the concepts of Sport and Tourism, which are not consensual in the literature. The diversity of definitions leads to additional difficulties in the theoretical definition of sports tourism. Consequently, as argued by Weed (2009), the definition of terminology, categorization and the nature of the phenomenon are the central issues in academic journals.

Once the term Sports Tourism is bounded, we approach its study from the transversality of Total Quality Management (TQM). The TQM literature is extensive regarding the number and diversity of the covered sectors. Possibly, any sector of the economy has been influenced by a TQM related program. Nevertheless, on what the sports tourism application is concerned, similarly to other sectors, much research remains to be done. This derives from the fact that the published works are essentially descriptive and/or prescriptive and usually adopt a case study approach (Bovaird, & Löfler, 2009).

This shortage is not verified in relation to the works that advise the adoption of TQM methods and practices by organizations that manage leisure activities, in general, and sport, in particular. We also found papers describing case studies on the implementation of TQM practices, associated with sports services: management of sports facilities, town arenas, gyms and fitness centers and sports federations.

3. Methodology, research design and data analysis
This paper presents a review of relevant literature and synthesises an integrated framework about TQM based sports tourism. The search protocol was carried out by keywords (sport, tourism, total quality management, etc.) mainly using databases (JCR, Scopus and others). The selected papers were those that related to some aspect of TQM sports tourism. Thus, initially 20 literature review articles about TQM and scale development were studied. Subsequently we analyzed 10 articles that related TQM and services, 8 about TQM and sports, 10 on TQM and tourism; and 3 that related TQM and Sports Tourism. Regarding the possible limitations, the first that can be pointed out is related to the very nature of the theoretical review, since this paper relies on the use of secondary sources (some of them were not published in peer-reviewed publications). Secondly, the paper addresses a very specific context restraining its possible generalization.

4. Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
This review fills a gap in the literature, by providing researchers and practitioners with an overview of studies on Sports Tourism, from a TQM perspective.

Despite this, as several authors argue, the study of TQM in sports tourism is at an early stage of development. However, TQM appears to be an important topic as a starting point to better understand sports tourism.

Summing up, this work compiles the most important features of the published papers that address tourism, sport and sport tourism. Studies on the subject are analyzed based on the theoretical framework of TQM and its possible applications. According to the three articles that relate TQM to Sports Tourism, Crilley et al. (2002) identify and develop external indicators of operational performance and service quality, related to customer perceptions of golf courses. Quaresma (2008), in a larger study than the previous, validates a model for quality assessment extended to managers, employees and customers. Knop et al., (2004) in their study on the regulation of risk control in sports tourism activities anticipate that the issue of quality management will be one of the issues that will raise great interest in the context of sports tourism. Therefore, it contributes to a better understanding of the shortcomings of current approaches and opens the possibility for further research paths.

5. References – limited to 5

Characteristics of spectators of newly formed professional sports teams

-based on the push-pull factors-

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Keyword: Newly Formed Professional Sports Teams, Spectators, Cluster Analysis, Push-Pull factors

1. Preface, Aim of abstract
The sport of professional baseball has long been the mainstay and the most popular of professional sports among fans in Japan. However, in line with the launch of Japan’s professional soccer league, J League in 1992 and the professional basketball league, bj League in 2005, Japan has seen a rise in new professional sporting teams across the country.

It is extremely important for newly formed sporting teams to be accepted by the local community and gather a strong fan base and for this reason, it is equally important to understand the characteristics of the hometown spectators. The objective of this study is to analyze and categorize the characteristics of spectators of newly formed professional basketball teams and to establish marketing strategies in line with the characteristics of each group or category.

In order to achieve these objectives, in this study we categorized spectators using the Push-Pull factors set out by Yoon & Uysal (2005). Push-Pull factors are generally used to identify the characteristics of tourists. In order to analyze the Push factors for the purpose of this study, we used the 5 elements which make up the points of attachment index outlined by Robinson (2003); social interaction, achievement, drama, escape and skill. In order to analyze the Pull factors, we employed the 3 factors used to measure service quality set out by Brady & Cronin (2001) and Ferreira & Armstrong (2004); atmosphere, player performance and large crowd numbers. Therefore, this research focused on the first game, this study added the measure “The first game” to the pull factor.

2. Method
Subjects of this study were spectators at a pre-season Match (held on August 13, 2011) played by the Hyogo Storks, a new team entering the JBL (Japan Basketball League). The number of valid responses totaled 302 for a response rate of 97.4%.

Firstly, the reliability of the Push-Pull factor was assessed by Cronbach’s alpha coefficients. Secondly, t-tests conducted between residents in Hyogo and others based on Push-Pull factor. Thirdly, hierarchical and non-hierarchical cluster analyses were conducted by basing on clarified Push-Pull factor. Finally, t-test conducted to confirm the reliability of the segmentation and chi-square test conducted on sex, age, residence, fun type, and the experience of playing basketball to each cluster.

3. Results
Of the Push factors, achievement (sense of pride when their team wins) was the highest rated factor. While large crowd numbers rated highest among the Pull factors.

Results of the cluster analysis revealed that the spectators could be categorized into the following four clusters; spectators who had come to enjoy the game, spectators who were interested in watching the Stork’s first game, spectators who had a secondary motivation to see the game and Hyogo Storks fans.

Results of a comparison of the variance between the clusters using a one-way analysis of variance revealed a significant variance between each of the Push-Pull factors. We also did a cross tabulation of sex, age, address, who they supported and basketball experience. Although results of the chi-square test did not reveal a significant variation in sex and age, a significant variation was noted for the other attributes including address, who they supported and basketball experience.

In regards to the individual group clusters, it was revealed that it is possible to increase spectator satisfaction by providing more attractions for a fun day out with respect to spectators who had come to enjoy the game and by creating appeal for enjoying a new experience for spectators who were interested in watching the Stork’s first game and Storks fans. It also revealed that spectator satisfaction could be increased by providing more attractions for the children of spectators who had a secondary motivation to see the game.

4. References
Perceived football brand image: interpreted with brand model
Case: FIFA world cup 2010 in South Africa

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Keywords: sport marketing, brand, football, values, consumer behavior, laddering

Subject of the research was to discover football brand profile. Study was made in Cape Town during the FIFA World Cup 2010 in South Africa. The objective was to decipher what are the attributes that fans relate to football and things that motivate to follow the sport. The third theme was to figure out what fundamentally makes people travel and attend to these kinds of mega events. Means-End-Chain interview model was used as study method which was executed by laddering technique. Interviews were done at the Fan Fest area that was specifically built for the games. Interviewees were international football tourists. There were totally 176 interviews conducted. Study type and approach was qualitative case-study. Thomas Gad’s 4D-branding theory model was used together with Shalom Schwartz’s value theory to analyze the study data.

Thomas Gad’s branding theory was chosen because it was more thorough than other points of views. For example the findings show that the main motivators differ from the football fan motivators that were introduced by Smith and Westerbeek. They are more focused on the functional and the mental dimensions. It seems that the social motivators may have even greater impact on people’s minds than the other motivational groups discussed. This same study was replicated in Finnish national football league match and findings were that the value profiles and brand image are totally the same. Therefore findings indicate quite accurate that the football Brand Code that is to describe a phenomenon and find the reasons behind it. Through this research people have better ways and possibilities to create standards that mirror a successful football event when people are well aware of the football brand profile. Research benefits at its best the whole football society, when the fan opinions and thoughts are regarded when developing the football image.

There were four adjectives (brand attributes) that got rated as most related to football in over half of the questionnaires. Those popped most often in the interviews. The next step was to go through all the interviews in which at least one of these adjectives was mentioned. Then analysis continued by following the value-attribute-consequence chain of each characteristic all the way to the football. The analysis was conducted with those interviews that had one or more of these four attributes. After this, the analysis of the value groups was continued deeper with Thomas Gad 4D-Branding theory. The football brand profile was finally found with a combined value theory.

From the interviews could be found that the most essential brand attributes that people attach to football were, according to the respondents; international, exciting, fun and colorful. Things that highly motivate people to follow football were social- and mental dimension motives. The most powerful motives were to meet other people and get emotional experiences. Domineering factors for people to take part in World Cup in South Africa were the unique chance to experience Africa too. The games gave a possibility to be part of a huge international sport event. Overall, for the respondents, football represented humanity and many of its parts. The research results provided a possibility to encapsulate the football Brand Code that includes all the main things you need to know about present situation and the future aspects of the brand.

In the future it is possible to make most of the research data by finding out how the current brand profile information could be used for economic benefit. Added to this, later studies should find out how football brand image should be evolved and to what direction it should be taken. The following thesis provides deep and fresh viewpoint of football image in the minds of international football tourists. On ground of the research data football is all about “celebrating humanity, creating unity and togetherness”. It can and should be used as the magic mantra for future branding.

References:
Market segmentation of sport tourism in Iran for foreign tourists according to culture and modeling of target market

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Abstract
Tourism is accounted as one of the paramount income producing industries in the economy of each country. Sport tourism, in the recent decades, is regarded as a new form of tourism (Mester and et.al, 2008), moreover, the sport events by themselves are a kind of tourists attraction source. Fajr international sport events are held since 1982 in Iran. In these events, the sport teams of a number of countries as sport tourists arrive Iran. So Iran, potentially, can be regarded as a tourist attraction place from the tourism point of view. Iran, having a suitable geographical position and historical tourism attraction, is placed at a high rank for holding sport events (Asadi and Esfahani, 2009). Yusof and et al. (2009) reported that holding sport events in Malaysia caused the attraction of sport tourists and high economic incomes. On the other hand, Doswell (1997) expressed that market segmentation is one of the methods to define the market and predict the customer behavior. Therefore, by finding suitable markets for holding Fajr international sport events, the host country- Iran- can act in such a way that not only do the number of foreign participants with a variety of cultural background is increased but also it can determine the target sport tourism market, by surveying and defining their viewpoints, and in this way, the conditions for the attraction of more tourists are provided. To do so, the present study aimed to segment Iran sport tourism market for foreign tourists based on the culture and modeling of target market.

Key words: Market segmentation, Sport tourism, Culture, Iran, Target market

Methodology
The present study was a cross-sectional, descriptive, analytic study. The subjects included the foreign sport tourists from 53 countries who participated in 9 sport competitions. The questionnaires as the instrument of this research were distributed among the available sample of 710 participants. Then, out of this sample, 475 reliable questionnaires were returned. Finally, they statistically were analyzed and reported.

Instrument
A questionnaire including 53 items was developed by the researchers. To make it comprehensible for the participants, it was translated into five languages- English, Russian, Arabic, French, and German, and distributed among the participants. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire was examined and approved (α=0.93).

Data analysis
To analyze the data, the researchers applied descriptive and inferential statistics. Using factor analysis and Lisrel 8/80 software, they analyzed the questionnaires, and finally the target market modeling of sport tourism in Iran was presented, running SPSS Software ver. 16.

Results
The results indicated that, in market segmentation of sport tourism in Iran, Anglo and Latin European and East European, Arab, South Asian and Confucius (Asian) and Central Asian Cultures were mostly interested in sport events such as shore and water sports, natural sports, desert and salt-desert, hunting, mountain climbing, winter sports, and flying attractions in order of importance. The results also revealed that four factors of exploratory analysis determined and predicted a high percentage (62.95) of sport tourism target market in Iran for foreign tourists.

Discussion and Conclusions
The findings of the present study show that maximum interest of tourists with different cultural background is in sport events. It seems that the degree of interest is the most significant factor in attracting the foreign sport tourists in Iran which can be influential in predicting their behaviors and, therefore, the holders can get aware of their needs and define the target tourist markets so that the country can benefit from holding these events economically, culturally, socially, and politically.

References
I.R. Iran Wrestling Strategy Improving, Determining and Analyzing Strengths, Weaknesses/Opportunities and Threats (SWOT)

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Keywords: Wrestling, Strategic Management, SWOT Analysis

Aim: The SWOT analysis is a management tool that allows an organization to better address their internal and external environment and prepare for effective strategic planning steps. SWOT analysis is an approach whereby aspects of the external environment are analyzed to identify and develop the most suitable or attractive course of action in terms of strategic decisions to be taken. A SWOT analysis focuses on the strengths and weaknesses that are internal to the organization while taking into consideration threats and opportunities that are external to an organization. In the sport context, strengths and weaknesses are manageable elements within the establishment that may influence the objectives of the strategic management process (Shank, 2009). The purpose of this paper is to identify the strengths; weaknesses, opportunities and threats [SWOT] for Iran Wrestling strategy planning.

Literature Review: Goudarzi and Honari (2007) tried to design and codify a comprehensive system for nation’s wrestling using SWOT analysis and 4*4 matrix. In this research, 8 strengths, 9 weaknesses and 15 threats were discovered and showed that nation’s wrestling was approximately in a balanced condition although the curve skewness was more in weakness and threats areas. Ehsani and Gharakhkhani (2008) tried to determine nation’s professional sport using SWOT analysis. They evaluated outer opportunities and threats and inner (strengths and weaknesses) factors, and identified, classified and weighted each soft (manpower, budget, law and order, and professional sport institutions) and hard (sport facilities and equipment)’ supporting system component effect. Khosravizadeh (2008) studied and designed Islamic Republic of Iran National Committee’s strategic program using SWOT analysis. Results showed that Olympic National Committee had strengths and weaknesses facing opportunities and threats. Hamidi et al. (2008) codified Islamic Republic of Iran’s college students sport committee structural development guidelines, which in 8 strengths, 10 weaknesses, 6 opportunities and 7 threats were discovered and eventuated to codifying 10 guidelines to develop college students’ sport committee.

Methodology: This is a descriptive-scaling research to gather data from researcher-made questionnaire was used that consisted of eight components: Social-psychological, Health, Education, Management, Talent, Financial and Equipment and 63 items. Measurement scale has 5 options which start from very low, low, average, high and finally very high numbered 1 to 5. Number 3 is considered as average point and a score from 2.5 up to 3.5 is considered as an approximate average. Scores higher than 3.5 are considered as strengths and opportunities, and scores lower than 2.5 are considered as weaknesses and threats. The sample consisted of 217 coaches and active referees, elite athletes and executive staff in national championships (Sari city, 2010). Data were analyzed using Friedmann, ANOVA, Kolmogorov Smirnoff test and descriptive statistics.

Results, discussion and conclusions: Findings suggest that they were turning to be weak in most of under examination factors including health, education, management, talent searches and financial criteria or were not good enough alike sport facilities. In addition, examining bit scales showed that national wrestling championships faced with 2 strengths, 11 weaknesses, 3 opportunities and 4 threats, which 12 strategies were codified based on SWOT analysis. Research results showed that wrestling faces weaknesses and threats more than strengths and opportunities, although it has a social and spiritual position among people and government, in a way that examining chosen elite athletes, coaches, referees and states committees heads viewpoint formed in 8 main variables and 63 bit scales showed that in specialty main variables there was no strength and opportunity in nation’s wrestling, and most main under examination variables including health, education, management, talent search and budget were going to weak part or like sport facilities and equipment’s part in weak part. Examining bit scales also showed that nation’s wrestling championship faces 2 strengths, 11 weaknesses, 3 opportunities and 4 threats, which 12 strategies were codified for on SWOT analysis. Finally, based on examinees viewpoint, it seems that nation’s wrestling championship has potential future of weaknesses and threats, and of course that is worried about.

References
Understanding the sports organizational reputation

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Preface
In just the past few years, a growing body of academic and practitioner literature has emerged concerning “reputation management” (Hutton 2001). Maintaining stable management over the long term by aligning team objectives with stakeholders is an important element in sports team management (Sakurai 2005). It is said that rather than being based on fact, decisions made by stakeholders are based on instinct (Fombrun 2003), and this instinctive behavior is guided by product image and reputation established through corporate behavior (Fombrun 1996). The term reputation can be used to imply popularity or rumor however when used as a management index, not only does it imply rumor or heresy, but also contains evaluative elements concerning corporate activities.

Sports teams are run and serve as a symbol of the local community based on the support of its stakeholders. Reputation can be used as an important index to measure how stakeholders perceive and support the team. However, to date, little research has been done in the area of the reputation of sporting teams and sporting organizations and as a result, there is still no complete working definition or scale to measure reputation. This study aims to identify the theoretical background of sporting team reputation and determine whether existing scales for measuring reputation can be applied to sporting organizations.

Method
1) Reputation measurement scale
In this study, we used the corporate reputation scale created by Fombrun (1999) as a scale to measure reputation. This scale is comprised of the following six elements; emotional appeal, products and services, vision and leadership, workplace environment, social and environmental responsibility and financial performance.

2) Data collection
In order to create a scale to measure the reputation of sporting organizations, we conducted 5 questionnaire surveys targeting sporting organizations.

1. Survey for a newly formed professional basketball team in the JBL (Japan Basketball League) in Japan
   Date survey was conducted: August 2011
   Number of samples: 302 (97%)

2. Survey for a professional basketball team in the bj League
   Date survey was conducted: November 2011
   Number of samples: 417 (100%)

3. Survey for an independent baseball league (survey 1)
   Date survey was conducted: August 2011
   Number of samples: 75 (96%)

4. Survey for an independent baseball league (survey 2)
   Date survey was conducted: August 2011
   Number of samples: 137 (99%)

5. Survey for local residents living in the vicinity of a sports university
   Date survey was conducted: February 2012
   Number of samples: 234

Based on the data from the five questionnaire surveys collected from various sports teams and sporting organizations, we used a confirmation factor analysis model to analyze the viability of the six elements.

Results
Results of a confirmation factor analysis conducted using a factor analysis model for each of the five sports teams and sporting organizations revealed that each of the six elements were a viable measure to a certain degree. This indicates that the concept behind corporate reputation for business organizations can also be applied to sporting organizations and confirms that the measurement scale created by Fombrun (1999) can also be reliably applied to sporting organizations. It is necessary however in the future to identify reasons as to why some of the elements were not entirely suitable in gauging the reputation of sporting organizations and to identify factors which may help to strengthen the reputation of sports teams and sporting organizations.

References
Social responsibility of professional sport events in China: from the perspective of stakeholders

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Keywords: professional sporting events  social responsibility  stakeholders

Context
Although the concept of social responsibility (SR) has been evolving (Carroll, 1976) for more than half a century, the dimensions of SR in sport event are unanimous in China. Walker et al. (2010) evaluated the SR perception of IOC (International Olympic Committee) through the survey of the consumer of 2008 Beijing Olympics with few mention of other stakeholders. As an international issue, however, there are quite a few studies on SR of sports events in China, not to mention the study on relative stakeholders or methods. Stakeholder’s perspective provides a broad method to examine the SR of professional sports event.

Objectives
This study tried to expound the basic conception, features of SR of sports events, based on analyzing the interests and demands of various stakeholders. Based on theoretical basis construction, the study applied the methods of the evaluation system.

Methods
By using Delphi study, a survey via anonymous questionnaire was conducted in 2008, 7 experts on sports events theories study and operation in Shanghai were asked standardized questions to elicit their answers to the scope of SR and basic requirements of carrying out SR of professional sporting events. Anonymous questionnaire were applied to spectators, journalists, sponsors and officials related to Shanghai F1 Grand Prix and Shanghai ATP Mastercup Tennis Match as well. Try to find out people’s awareness and cognition of SR of the events. We used extant scales for the measurement of the constructs and the definition of SR awareness was from previous literature (Du et al., 2007; Sen et al., 2006). And the correlation analysis was applied among the stakeholders. Results: (1) All participants of social responsibility of professional sports are the stakeholders. (2) The social responsibility of professional sports is of fair competition, economic, legal, moral and educational duties carried out by operation agencies, sponsors, audience, athletes, media, government, members of relevant social groups for social members and social development. (3)The features of SR of the events in China mainly include: air competition is the foundation of SR of sports events of China, stakeholders balance, and the unity of subject and the object of the SR. (4) The present situation of today’s professional sports in China is that the overall image is satisfied by consumers, but the body has poor SR awareness and cognition. The performance of the duty is inadequate resulted from the lack of macro-guidance from the government, law and ethic etc.

Conclusions
This study provides a sketch of the basic conception, content, features of SR of professional sports events of China. More research is needed in how to construct the evaluation index system as well as related regulatory mechanism.
Abstract

This paper discusses “institutional change,” since it observes the manifestations of institutional behavior, however its scope does not refer to any change made by any institution, but to those adopted by the international Olympic Committee (IOC) in relation to the convention of sustainability.

Starting at Los Angeles games, the IOC added to its 2 institutional faces, “humanitarian” and “facilitator”, a third one named “entrepreneur”, which obliged it to implement an organizational reorganization. Now IOC’s structure is based on horizontal and vertical contractual relationships that involve large costs of transaction; IOC vertical relationships mirror its role as the games franchisor and the manager of its monopoly of specific and intangibles assets, its horizontal ones represent its commercial relationship with the sponsors.

In parallel, the IOC changed the nature of its “facilitator” face by providing a dramatic increase in resources (incentives) to be distributed to the Olympic movement. In this context, within this environment of change, strategy and structure, that in the 90’s the convention of sustainability officially arrives at the IOC and that, by definition, must talk to all its institutional faces.

The sustainability strategy of the International Olympic Committee

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Effects of the WTA championships on youth tennis in Istanbul

Year one

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Aims of abstract
The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of a women’s professional sport event on youth sport participation. The TEB BNP Paribas Women’s Tennis Association (WTA) Championships took place 25-30 October 2011 in Istanbul as the grand finale of the WTA season. The top eight singles players and top four doubles teams were invited to compete based on results throughout the 2011 season. Prize money for the WTA Championships totaled US$4.55 million. A total of 70,824 fans filled the Sinan Erdem Dome across the six days of the tournament; average daily attendance was 11,804, peaking at 13,676 on finals day (Sunday). The event will be held in Istanbul in 2012 and 2013.

Theoretical background
Anecdotal evidence suggests that elite sport events can drive interest in youth sport participation but little empirical research supports this conclusion. Coaches have reported increases in enrollment for gymnastics, swimming and diving, and snowboarding following Olympic competitions (Konecky, 1998). In 1998, the US women’s ice hockey team won the gold medal in Nagano, Japan. According to USA Hockey, the number of girls’ and women’s ice hockey teams grew from 149 in 1990-91 to 1,071 by the end of 1998. Still, little is known about the effects of women’s professional sport events on youth sport participation particularly in emerging countries.

Methodology
Surveys of Turkish youth four weeks before and after the WTA event were administered in eight high schools and two universities in Istanbul. A total of 2,200 surveys were collected. The questionnaire used for data collection was modeled after the sport participation survey developed by Kao et al (2010). Survey data were coded, entered and analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The study will be replicated in 2012 and 2013.

Results, discussion and implications/conclusions
For the pre-tournament survey, 53% of subjects were male, 47% were female; the average age was 16 years. Females and males were equally interested in learning to play tennis (37%). Conversely, 28.8% of females had no interest in playing tennis; 37% of males had no interest. Boys were slightly more aware of the 2011 WTA Championships in Istanbul than girls (62% to 53%). Most subjects (57.7%) indicated that they would not attend the WTA in 2011, or were not sure if they would attend (31.4%). Post-tournament survey results revealed that approximately 11% percent of boys and 6.1% of girls attended the 2011 WTA Championships. Approximately 13.5% of males played tennis regularly compared to 11.7% of females. Thirty-eight percent of females would like to learn to play tennis compared to 33% of males. More Turkish girls had relatives or friends who played tennis than Turkish boys (68.7%; n=334 to 55.8%; n=329). Among the most prevalent constraints to tennis participation for youth in Istanbul were lack of instruction and lack of equipment to play. Lack of time to play was more frequently noted as a constraint for girls than boys (31.5% to 23.5%). As the data were reported in frequencies, Chi square analyses were performed to test the observed and expected responses to constraints to tennis participation by gender. The statistical null hypothesis was that the proportions of constraints to tennis participation for youth would be equal by gender. The difference in proportions is significant (Pearson chi-square=29.375, 13 df, P=0.009, N=1110). Additionally, gender and levels of tennis participation were examined; it was concluded from the chi-square statistic (chi-square=20.921, 9 df, P=0.005, N=1110) that an association exists between gender and youth tennis participation.

References
Master’s program "sport management" as a project

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Aim of paper
Along with implementation of Bologna principles and dramatic changes in economic, social and political life, Russia substantially undergoes modernisation of the higher education system. The most difficult problems emerged in the social sphere where a special significance has physical education and sports. The State’s strategic goal is to increase the share of citizens regularly engaged in physical activity and sports from 17.3% in 2009 to 40.0% in 2020 as only 20% of the population is engaged. Realisation of the Federal Target Program "The development of physical education and sports in the Russian Federation for 2009-2015" has shown that the weakest point is management training. There are more than 470 sport management programs at the leading universities and educational centers worldwide (Pedersen et al., 2011). Modern Russia is a country of sporting opportunities and will hold a great amount of world-class events such as the World Summer Universiade (2013), Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games (2014), World Aquatics Championship (2015), Ice Hockey World Championship (2016), FIFA World Cup (2018). The aim of the paper is to summarise various research results and the experience of creating and implementing the master’s program "Sport Management" in the School of Management, Herzen State Pedagogical University of Russia, St. Petersburg.

Organisational context
According to the statistics Russia has sport and recreation institutions, enterprises, associations and organisations of more than 164,000 (62.35% in the education system); sports facilities – more than 248,000 (federally owned 5%), stadiums for 1500 seats and more than 2000 with one-time capacity of approximately 300,000 spectators; 19 facilities were put to use in 2010; there are more than 20,000 sports clubs, more than 70,000 sports centers, 3500 swimming pools, 130,000 flatwork sports facilities, etc. At the moment there are more than 311,000 staff members in the sphere of physical training and sports. Their preparation was put to use in 2010; there are more than 20,000 sports clubs, more than 70,000 sports centers, 3500 swimming pools, 130,000 flatwork sports facilities, etc. At the moment there are more than 311,000 staff members in the sphere of physical training and sports. Their preparation was put to use in 2010; there are more than 20,000 sports clubs, more than 70,000 sports centers, 3500 swimming pools, 130,000 flatwork sports facilities, etc. At the moment there are more than 311,000 staff members in the sphere of physical training and sports. Their preparation was put to use in 2010; there are more than 20,000 sports clubs, more than 70,000 sports centers, 3500 swimming pools, 130,000 flatwork sports facilities, etc. At the moment there are more than 311,000 staff members in the sphere of physical training and sports. Their preparation was put to use in 2010; there are more than 20,000 sports clubs, more than 70,000 sports centers, 3500 swimming pools, 130,000 flatwork sports facilities, etc. At the moment there are more than 311,000 staff members in the sphere of physical training and sports. Their preparation was put to use in 2010; there are more than 20,000 sports clubs, more than 70,000 sports centers, 3500 swimming pools, 130,000 flatwork sports facilities, etc. At the moment there are more than 311,000 staff members in the sphere of physical training and sports. Their preparation was put to use in 2010; there are more than 20,000 sports clubs, more than 70,000 sports centers, 3500 swimming pools, 130,000 flatwork sports facilities, etc. At the moment there are more than 311,000 staff members in the sphere of physical training and sports. Their preparation was put to use in 2010; there are more than 20,000 sports clubs, more than 70,000 sports centers, 3500 swimming pools, 130,000 flatwork sports facilities, etc. At the moment there are more than 311,000 staff members in the sphere of physical training and sports. Their preparation was put to use in 2010; there are more than 20,000 sports clubs, more than 70,000 sports centers, 3500 swimming pools, more than 6000 jobs. The most of sport managers are former coaches or administrators from other areas. Thus, the "staff shortage" of professional managers in the Russian sport industry is a fact. So the whole amount of educational programs is not appropriate to growing needs of market. Besides some issues have to be decided concerning with lack of qualified teachers, special textbooks, scientific research, international mobility and academic network.

Educational issues, experiences and implications
Research conducted by experts from the School of Management in Herzen University allows distinguishing the most in-demand competences. Russian professional sport managers should be able to:
- provide the operation and maintenance of sports facilities;
- provide innovation and "green technologies";
- organise mass sporting events and ensure their safety;
- know the methods of effective transfer policy;
- attract sponsors and investments;
- keep up the interest to sport in the information space;
- work with supporters, fans and volunteers;
- organise promotions and manage brands of sport team and club;
- provide the engagement in physical activity and sports.

Program Uniqueness. During the design phase representatives of the European Association for Sport Management, Ruhr-University Bochum, FC "Schalke 04", Rotterdam University of Applied Sciences and FC "Feyenoord" became our partners. The strategic partner is Russian FC "Zenith" and its General Director chaired the Program Council.

Program Structure. The duration of the program is 2 years and 5 months (120 ECTS) and includes five sessions of 5-6 days full-time teaching, practice and international internships. The curriculum has a modular structure and consists of 7 modules, provides orientation to practice, international mobility and innovative teaching methods.

Program Management. Management is based on the process approach. At the initial phase prospective students’ expectations are analysed and have impact on the program content, taking into account the applicants’ job positions, functions and career plans.

Program Efficiency. As a result of education the graduates acquire skills and competencies to manage sport projects, work in a team, communicate effectively; provide administration in sports; carry

unique Russian database of sport management scientific and methodological materials based on scientific research.

References
**Sport events management: a systematic literature review**

**Authors:** Elsa Sacramento Pereira, Margarida Ventura Mascarenhas, Irina Saur-Amaral, Adão Flores & Gustavo Pires

**Abstract keywords**
sport events management, systematic literature review, qualitative research

**Aim of abstract/paper - research question**
Our paper looks to perform a systematic literature review on the sports event management, analyzing conceptual and empirical research developed from 1987 to date.

**Theoretical background or literature review**
The importance of sport events management in terms of tourism and economic development, urban regeneration, cultural and social goals and marketing has been increasing (Dwyer & Fredline, 2008). Nevertheless a myriad of studies with different approaches and methodologies were being developed. Weed (2009) highlighted the importance to make meta-reviews as a way to analyze and reflect about different perspectives and a path to create maturity in the study field. Endnote is efficient in performing simple content analysis and to assist originally with the categorization of different articles (Kofinas & Saur-Amaral, 2008). NVivo is a useful tool for performing qualitative research and is used to analyze abstracts of relevant articles aiming to identify key themes and coding them (di Gregorio, 2000) so as to identify patterns.

**Methodology, research design and data analysis**
We use a review protocol to plan and orientate our systematic literature review. This protocol defines the primary review goal, target, topic, key-words, sources, issues, search string, criteria for paper inclusion or exclusion, and for quality and validity. Primary data is extracted from scientific databases, ISI Web of Science and Science Direct, available to the five reviewers, using specific search terms based on the protocol developed jointly. We analyze scientific papers published between 1987 and 2012, assisting the analysis with two scientific softwares: Endnote X5 and NVivo 9.

**Results, discussion and implications/conclusions**
This work allows us to identify different research approaches and analyze their conclusions in order to spot the different domains of intervention and management of the implementation processes. Although the results are not available at the time of the abstract submission we guarantee that they are by the time of the conference.

**References**

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The roles of perceived quality and age: the influence of sporting event reputation on volunteer satisfaction

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Volunteers have become a vital resource for sporting event organizations in worldwide. In an attempt to develop effective volunteer recruitment and retention strategies, it is necessary to pay close attention to volunteers’ attitudes toward a sporting event that may make a significant difference in reinforcing volunteer satisfaction. Social identity theory (Tajfel, 1981) proposes that individuals develop a feeling of positive social identity from belonging to preferable social groups and/or from their affiliation to groups that are different from other groups (Burgess & Harris, 1999). We argue that a sport event’s reputation leads to high levels of volunteers’ satisfaction because volunteering at a well-reputed sporting event can be a means that individuals can use to achieve positive social identity (Bang, 2009). Moreover, volunteers’ perceived event quality and age may play key roles in the relationship between event reputation and volunteer satisfaction. Previous consumer research suggests that when customers receive higher quality and value of services, their satisfaction will be higher. Younger workers tend to be more associated with career related considerations than their older peers (Wisner, Stringfellow, Youngdahl, & Parker, 2005). Thus, a sporting event’s reputation may become a more important factor to younger volunteers who could obtain career related benefits through volunteering at such event. Therefore, the purpose of the present study is (1) to examine the influence of sporting event (brand) reputation on volunteer satisfaction and (2) to examine the moderating roles of perceived quality and age in the relationship between sporting event reputation and volunteer satisfaction. In light of the aforementioned, we hypothesize the following: H1: Event reputation is positively and significantly related to volunteers’ satisfaction. H2a: Perceived event quality moderates the influence of event reputation on satisfaction. H2b: Age moderates the influence of event reputation on satisfaction.

The sample included one hundred seventeen individuals (66% female; 34% male) who volunteered for the 2010 Super Bowl game, held in Miami, USA. The volunteers were asked to participate in a survey questionnaire at volunteer appreciation. The questionnaire consisted of four parts: (a) event reputation, (b) perceived quality, (c) volunteer satisfaction, and (d) demographic information. Event reputation was assessed using two modified brand reputation items used by Selsnes (1993). Perceived quality was measured with two items from Erdem and Swait’s (1998) brand quality [QUAL items]. Volunteers’ satisfaction was measured using Leisure Satisfaction Scale (LSS) Short Form developed by Beard & Ragheb (1980). Those question items were scored on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree; 7 = Strongly Agree). Results of the reliability measurements were found to be above the recommended level, .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994); the Cronbach’s alpha values for event reputation, perceived quality, and volunteer satisfaction were .72, .76, and .87, respectively.

Simple linear regression analysis was employed to test H1, and the regression model was positively significant (R1, 99)=45.95, p<.001, R2=.32, β = .56, p < .001), which supports H1. Moderated hierarchical multiple regression analysis was then performed to test H2a, and H2b. The main effect and moderating variables were centered to reduce potential issues of multicollinearity by subtracting the mean from each variable (Howell, 2002). Interaction terms were then computed as crossproducts of the centered predictors. The event reputation, perceived quality, and age variables were entered as predictors first where a criterion variable was volunteer satisfaction, and then each individual interaction term was added in the second model and the third model, respectively. Results revealed that the variance explained by the first model including event reputation, perceived quality, and age was high (R2 = .32, R2 = 13.47, p < .001). The second model that added the interaction term of event reputation and perceived quality was significant (R2 = .35, R2 = 11.64, p < .001) with significant Rsquare change (ΔR2 = .034, p < .05). The third model with an additional interaction term of event reputation and age was significant (R2 = .36, R2 = 11.09, p < .001) with a significant incremental increase in Rsquared (ΔR2 = .044, p < .05). The results indicated that there were significant interaction effects: event reputation × perceived quality (β = 3.02, p < .01), and event reputation × age (β = -.23, p < .05), supporting H2a and H2b. A simple slope analysis was further conducted to understand the direction of the interaction effects. It indicates that the relationship of event reputation and volunteer satisfaction is stronger when the levels of perceived quality are high while event reputation-volunteer satisfaction relations are weaker when the volunteers are older. Further implications will be discussed.

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Call for Sub-theme Workshops, 21th EASM Conference, Istanbul 2013

EASM invites members to organise workshops on sub-themes of sport management at the 21th EASM Conference held in Istanbul, Turkey, 2013. The workshops aim to encourage a profound discussion and close cooperation between participants on a particular subtheme (which is a specific focus within a more general topic). If successful, workshops can channel their work into special issues in ESMQ or other journals or edited books. Members interested in organising a workshop should submit the following information by email to both the Chair of the Scientific Committee (hallgeir.gammelsater@himolde.no) and the Vice-chair Veerle De Bosscher (vdebossc@vub.ac.be) quoting Workshop Proposal in the subject line:

1. The sub-theme and title of the Workshop.
2. A short description of the proposed Workshop (maximum 500 words), to include four key words that capture its essence. Remember that the title and description should be used to arouse interest in the workshop when announced in the Call for Abstracts. Please refer to the history of the Workshop if it has already been staged in previous EASM conferences.
3. The argument and expected demand for papers to the Workshop.
4. The expected format of the Workshop (such as small symposium, panels, presentation of small or full papers, numbers of papers expected etc.)
5. The names, institutions, email addresses, phone numbers and research fields of all the conveners (should be minimum 2 – maximum 4, and representing more than one country).
6. The name of the lead convener. This person will be responsible for the review and final acceptance of the papers in the Workshop, the coordination of conveners, and for communication with the scientific committee of the Conference as well as with colleagues at EASM involved in organizing the Conference.
7. A short description of the lead convener’s previous experiences of organizing conference Workshops or other relevant information on the lead convener’s organization capabilities.
8. A brief biography of each convener, and in the case of scientific workshops the convener’s most relevant international publications should be cited.
9. The deadline for submission of a Workshop proposal is October 1, 2012.

The workshops can have different forms within the limits of the conference program and depending on the ideas of the conveners which are responsible for putting together the workshop program, but as a general rule the Conveners guidelines found below should be adhered to.

Guidelines for EASM Sub-theme Workshop conveners

a) Before applying to set up a workshop, conveners should take care that the sub-theme will capture abstracts of a subset of broader topics rather than inviting abstracts that will more naturally fall within a broader topical session (such as sport policy, sport marketing, sport leadership, sport governance etc.)

b) To keep focus on the suggested sub-theme conveners are advised to plan for a rather small number of presentations and sessions. Unless the demand is very high the format should not exceed 2-3 sessions or 6-10 papers/presentations.

c) The conveners should prepare an introduction to the workshop, stating the current state of research in the field and the ambitions of the workshop.

d) At the end of the workshop the conveners should undertake a conclusion of the workshop, summarizing its contribution to the field.

e) The conveners should prepare a brief written report of the contribution of the workshop to be published on the EASM website.

f) The conveners are encouraged to keep a contact list of the delegates attending their workshop.
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THE TIME IS RIPE FOR ISTANBUL

Sport plays a critical role in creating social capital within diverse communities and multicultural settings. The ultimate aim of such sport engagement is to enhance Quality of Life, globally and locally. It is the duty of the Science of Sport Management to create theoretical/applied models and methods on this route. Istanbul presents the unique historical/modern ambience to experience such cultural diversity as well as to illuminate this visionary route. Istanbul has hosted many different civilizations and their historical remnants are still “alive”. We believe that all participants of EASM 2013 will be able to integrate their perceptions of this cultural richness into their scientific work.

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