

## PHD BY PUBLICATION

### **Expanding beyond the core. An investigation of the approaches adopted by professional sport clubs (PSCs) into the development of product portfolios**

Pritchard, Adrian

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**Expanding beyond the core. An investigation of the approaches adopted by professional sport clubs (PSCs) into the development of product portfolios.**

**Adrian Pritchard**

*A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the University's requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy*

**November 2020**



17 November 2020

Dear Sir/Madam

**Re: Ethical Approval – P16187**

I am writing to confirm that Adrian Pritchard has received ethical approval on 9 October 2013 for the research project entitled 'It's not only cricket'.

The research project has addressed the main ethical issues appropriately, and has been approved by the Faculty of Business and Law Research Ethics Committee at Coventry University.

If you have any further queries please do not hesitate to contact me.

Yours faithfully,



due to the

Sophie Krumins  
Research Ethics and Integrity Manager  
E-mail: [ethics.uni@coventry.ac.uk](mailto:ethics.uni@coventry.ac.uk)





## **Certificate of Ethical Approval**

Applicant:

Adrian Pritchard

Project Title:

Brand extension in EFL English Football league teams

This is to certify that the above named applicant has completed the Coventry University Ethical Approval process and their project has been confirmed and approved as Medium Risk

Date of approval:

26 August 2016

Project Reference Number:

P45610

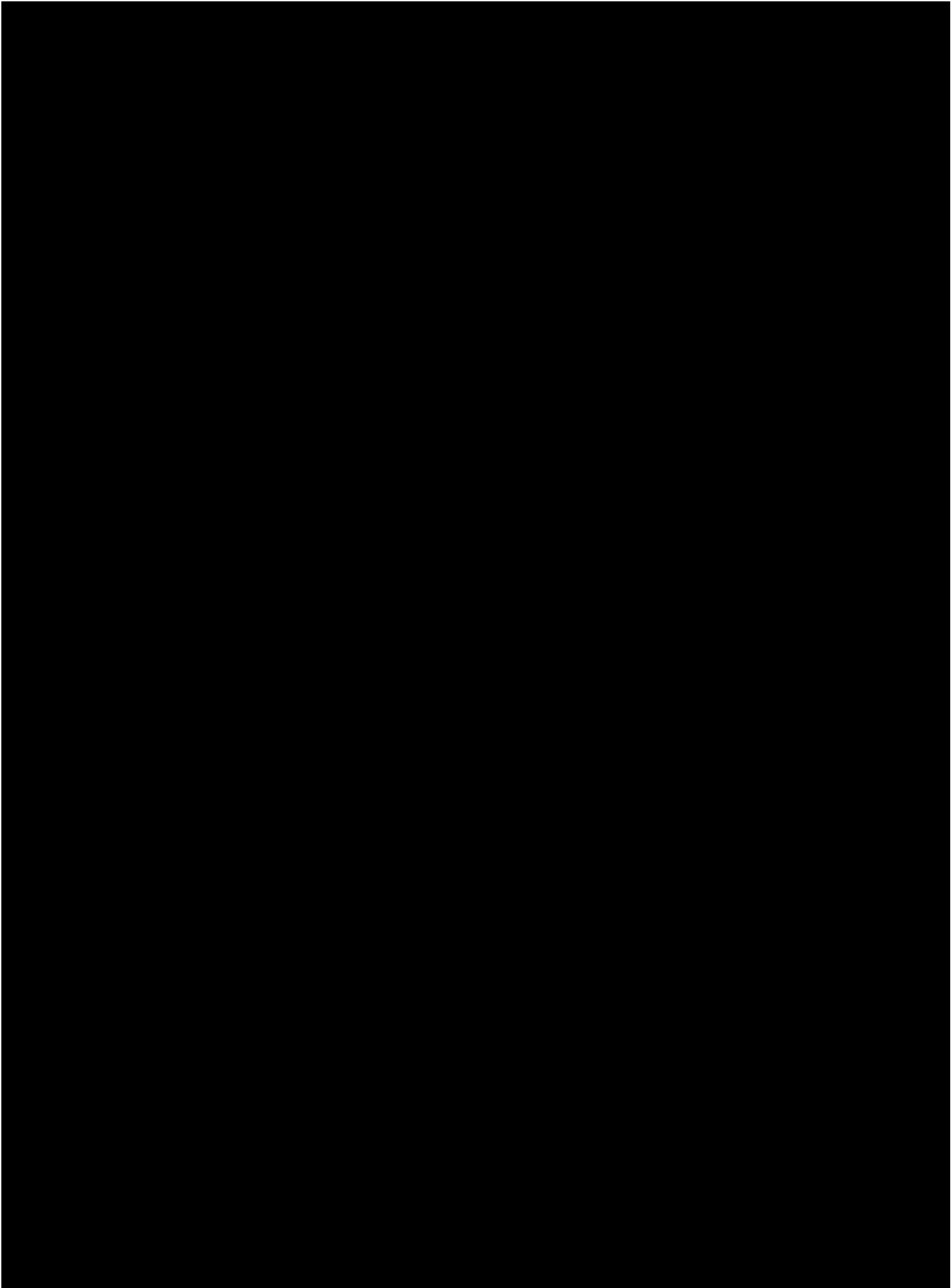
18 November 2020

I confirm that Adrian Prichard adhered to Coventry University ethical procedures and that permission to conduct primary research was granted by the university for the research in this PhD by Publication submission.



Professor Nigel Berkeley

Chair  
Coventry University Research Ethics Committee



## **Acknowledgements**

Thanks to Nigel Berkley for his help over several years and to Rui Biscaia for his support as supervisor. I would also like to thank the three internal reviewers of the prima facie case.

They provided some extremely helpful feedback in structuring the work particularly in the areas of defining and explaining concepts.

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The portfolio critically evaluates the outputs that were published over the period 2009 - 2020.

The portfolio consists of seven peer group reviewed journal articles that have all been published in journals with both an Association of Business Schools Academic Journal Quality Guide (ABS) ranking (Chartered Association of Business Schools, 2018); and an Australian Business Deans Council (ABDC) journal quality ranking (ABDC, 2020).

**Table 1: Published work that constitute the portfolio.**

<b>Output Number</b>	<b>Publication</b>	<b>ABS ranking</b>	<b>ABDC ranking</b>
1	Hyde, C., & Pritchard, A. R. (2009). Twenty: 20 cricket, an examination of the critical success factors in the development of the competition. <i>International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship</i> , 10(2), 132-142.	1	B
2	Pritchard, A. R. (2011). Caught between a base and a foot place: the first year of operation of the Indian Premier League (IPL). <i>International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship</i> , 12(2) 153-166.	1	B
3	Pritchard, A. (2016). It's not just cricket- the portfolio of products and services of the English and Welsh cricket teams. <i>Sport, Business and Management: An International Journal</i> , 6(1), 19-35.	1	C
4	Pritchard, A., Cook, D., Jones, A., Bason, T., Salisbury, P., & Hickman, E. (2019). Professional sports teams: Going beyond the core. <i>International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship</i> , 20(4), 554-566.	1	B
5	Pritchard, A., Cook, D., Jones, A., Bason, T., & Salisbury, P. (2020). Building a brand portfolio: The case of English Football League (EFL) clubs. <i>European Sports Management Quarterly</i> , Earlycite.	3	A
6	<a href="https://doi.org/10.1080/16184742.2020.1802501">https://doi.org/10.1080/16184742.2020.1802501</a> Pritchard A.R. & Lee, T.J.L. (2011). Evaluating tourist attractions: The case of Luang Prabang, Laos, <i>Tourism Analysis</i> , 16(3), 305-314.	2	A
7	Pritchard, A. & Kharouf, H. (2016). Examining the nature of leisure consumption: Contrasting forms and time preferences. <i>Leisure Studies</i> , 35(4), 438-453.	2	A

## **Abstract**

**Research question:** The ability of professional sport clubs (PSCs) to diversify and add additional product lines to the staging of matches, such as conference and events facilities, received little academic attention until the second decade of the twenty first century. The inability of some PSCs to generate sufficient income from match attenders, broadcasters and sponsors means there is likely to be a need to diversify and add products unrelated to sport in order to maintain professional status. What this body of research sets out to do is to investigate the range of products offered by PSCs, how they diversify beyond sport and the marketing techniques used to market their portfolio of products.

**Research methods:** Drawing on the body of literature related to sources of income, product lines, brand extensions and brand architecture, the work incorporates seven published articles. The initial work investigates a reconfigured version of cricket (T20), by using semi-structured interviews with seven industry experts (output one). Output two investigated the same sport but in a different country (India as opposed to England and Wales); to quantify the importance of investment from broadcasting, sponsorship and franchise owners in the organization of a new league (output two). The research returns to the context of PSCs in football and cricket in England/Wales using semi-structured interviews with twelve industry experts (output three) and 21 industry experts (outputs four and five) to examine diversifications from sport. Additional product lines were then investigated using secondary sources in the area of a tourist resort (output six), a context used because of the similarities in the hedonistic nature of the purchase. Output seven uses an online survey with 632 consumers of cricket in England and Wales to examine product consumption over the course of a season.

**Results and findings:** The main findings of the research are that PSCs should not be viewed as purely providers of sports matches (their core business), it is too narrow a definition of what they do. Matches form only part of their business, in effect they are staggers of events. All of the organizations, interviewed, who had the right to use their stadium outside of matchdays, market a portfolio of product lines that extend beyond sport targeting both business to business (B2B) and consumer markets (B2C). They capitalise on their ability to stage sport matches and transfer this skill to the more generic field of events. It is also a recurring theme that when clubs invest in the infrastructure of a stadium, or move to new venues, they design the stadium with diversification in mind and the ability to offer a range of events in addition to sport. Most of the events staged by PSCs are targeted at markets in close geographical proximity to the stadium, leading to clubs evolving as regional brands within the area they are located. Those that have larger stadiums and budgets have invested in their facilities in order to target a wider geographical market and stage events with larger capacity.

**Implications:** The originality in the work lies in the incorporation of product lines with low perceived fit to sport into a typography of product lines. The construct of brand architecture is used as a framework to examine how different names and logos are used (e.g. using different names for conference and events centres and teams). This helps in the marketing of products that are not directly related to sport but are involved in the production of sporting matches (e.g. stadiums to stage matches). The research extends previous work that had not examined empirically product lines with little fit to sport. However, when diversifying these organizations are still likely to be perceived by consumers as a sports team because of their history and this is difficult to move away from. Tourism resorts are in a similar situation as perception is always likely to be linked to their natural / cultural attractions. This means for

both types of organizations additional product lines need to be aligned strategically with their original product range(s). For generic businesses the removal of any product lines is likely to be far easier.

In terms of the applicability of the findings to organizations outside the sport industry PSCs offer lessons to businesses in how to build a brand that operates within a small geographical area. They do this by utilizing the resources they use in the production of sport in other areas (e.g. staging social events). Additional product lines to sport are often co-created and co-branded with other organizations, who operate outside the field of sport, targeting both B2B and B2C markets in the geographical area where their venues are situated. The success of this commercial approach is evidenced by their survival and history which in many instances extends to nearly a hundred years.

## **1.0 Themes explored by the work**

A number of authors had prior to 2009, when the first output in this portfolio was published, observed that PSCs (professional sports clubs) market additional products to matches branded with a team's name. Using the framework of brand extensions researchers investigated additional product lines such as team merchandise (e.g. Apostolopoulou, 2002; Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005, Hill & Vincent, 2006, Papadimitriou et al., 2004). A common theme that emerges from this body of research is that PSCs increase income by selling additional products such as team shirts to fans of the team. Yet although there is much merit in this work little empirical work had been conducted, when the research commenced, into how PSCs diversify from sport and market product lines that have a low perceived fit to sport, for instance using stadiums to stage non-sporting events (Papadimitriou et al., 2004).

A concurrent stream of literature into sources of income in sport recognizes the problems faced by PSCs who do not generate sufficient income from fans paying to attend matches, broadcasters and sponsors (Musso et al., 2016; Shibli & Wilkinson-Riddle, 1997, 1998; Wilson & Plumley, 2017; Wilson et al., 2015). It hints at the need to generate extra income and future financial problems that may threaten the existence of clubs. Although there is much merit in the work in both brand extensions and sources of income, when this research commenced little scholarly activity had investigated in any detail how PSCs diversify and market product lines, such as conference centres, that target non-sport markets. Research in this area is needed because adding additional product lines and branding them creates extra sources of revenue and leads to a revision of the perception of PSCs as merely being providers of sporting events (Mason, 1999).

If additional product lines are added and markets entered where there are likely to be established competitors (e.g. other venues staging events) then branding is important. This is

because it allows an organization to differentiate their products from those of competitors helping them to highlight their capabilities and be more competitive in the market. Using brand architecture and attaching different names and logos to products allows an organization to position its products in different markets. A common phenomenon amongst marketers of fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG) and consumer durables (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000), as it allows an organization to construct different identities for different product lines (Brexendorf & Keller, 2017).

For leading sports organizations who have a strong team brand name through their success on the field the use of brand architecture is arguably of less importance; as the team brand generates income through broadcasting and commercial agreements (Deloitte, 2017, Maguire, 2020). However, for PSCs who cannot generate income through the sales of broadcasting and sponsorship rights, sources of revenue unrelated to sport are likely to be important in maintaining professional status (Musso et al., 2016; Wilson et al., 2015, 2017). Using brand architecture provides PSCs with an opportunity to build on their brand image developed through the staging of sporting events and diversify into markets unrelated to sport. For instance, using the stadium name rather than the team name highlights the capabilities of the venue rather than a sports team.

## **1.1 Research aim, authors development and the post hoc nature of the research**

The development of the work has been influenced by the author's interest in the marketing of product portfolios by leisure organizations, and the analysis of literature existent to date about this topic. It is important to note that at the onset of the research there was no intention to try and obtain a PhD by published work. I did not consider this to be an option until the publication of output three in 2016. At this stage it was starting to become clear that the existing body of published work in sports marketing had not investigated in much detail additional product lines that represent a diversification from sport and target non-sport fans. Understanding how PSCs diversify beyond the core product (i.e. sport events) is important because additional product lines may represent a significant part of a sport organization's operations.

The articles in this submission have been selected retrospectively in order to provide a portfolio of work that analyse the product portfolios of PSCs in England and Wales. The research argues that the definition of them as providers of sporting events (Mason, 1999) is too narrow and that many have diversified and offer product lines unrelated to sport. In particular there was a lack of empirical work on the views of commercial managers of PSCs into the addition of product lines that have little perceived fit to sport (Moore & Levermore, 2012).

During the writing of output three it became clear that the findings on diversification might apply to other team sports, in addition to cricket. I sought the help of other researchers to help in researching the product portfolios of clubs in the EFL, that resulted in the publication of outputs four and five . At the onset of this work it was clear that the number of clubs in the league meant that obtaining, recording, transcribing and analysing interviews was likely to be a lengthy process. This helped in my development as a researcher as I was able to work as

part of a team and the contribution of the co-writers on outputs four and five was invaluable. Particularly in the areas of methodology and the analysis of qualitative data.

While each of the journal articles address specific questions the overarching theme of the work is to investigate the development of product portfolios by PSCs and how they have diversified away from sport. A tourism resort is included because of the similarities between the disciplines of sport and tourism management that is explained below and the opportunities for each context to learn from each other. The research mainly focuses on two contexts: the 72 clubs in the English Football League (EFL) and the 18 English cricket clubs (referred to within the sport as counties) (outputs one, three, four, five and seven). These organizations were selected as they have a long history as PSCs; often being based at the same venue and with the exception of Wimbledon/Milton Keynes Dons always being based in the same geographical area. This heritage allows them to develop as regional brands (Abosag et al., 2012), something that more recently established clubs in other sports find harder to do. They have also managed to maintain professional status in spite of limited income from sport (Shibli & Wilkinson-Riddle, 1997; Deloitte, 2012). Research in a North American context had highlighted how PSCs could use sports stadiums to diversify into the conference and events market (Lee et al., 2012), although there was a lack of empirical research into the views of commercial managers when the research commenced.

Other sporting contexts such as clubs in rugby union were not investigated because full-time professionalism is a recent phenomenon (Wilson & Plumley, 2017). The limited number of professional clubs in rugby league and regional nature of the sport also led to it being excluded (Wilson et al., 2015). Initial desk research conducted into stadium ownership for outputs four and five also reveal that a number of rugby clubs, in both codes, share stadiums with football clubs. Basketball and ice hockey are also excluded because their stadiums (usually referred to as arenas) are far smaller than those of cricket, football and rugby clubs



which limits their ability to add product lines. Recent research reveals some horse racing tracks do use their facilities to stage musical concerts (Lea, 2019). However, horse racing, as well as golf and motor racing are excluded because they are individual sports and do not tend to operate within a league structure like team sports.

In addition, the number of EFL clubs and cricket clubs made it easier to generate a reasonable sample size and contrast operations; and the limited income they receive from sport means additional product lines to sport are likely to be important in maintaining professional status (Wright, 2011). The top tier of English football the English Premier League (EPL) was excluded as there is a large difference in turnover between clubs that play in this league and all other PSCs in these countries, see table 4 p. 31. This is reflected in the levels of investment from broadcasters and sponsors (Deloitte, 2017) meaning that income from playing matches alone is often enough to maintain professional status. A further example within this study is provided by the Indian Premier League (IPL) where developing a league by selling franchises has led to million-dollar investment from broadcasters, sponsors and franchise owners (Badale & Hughes, 2020). The income generated from these sources allows the franchises to attract the better players and in financial terms outperform their England/Wales competitor (output two).

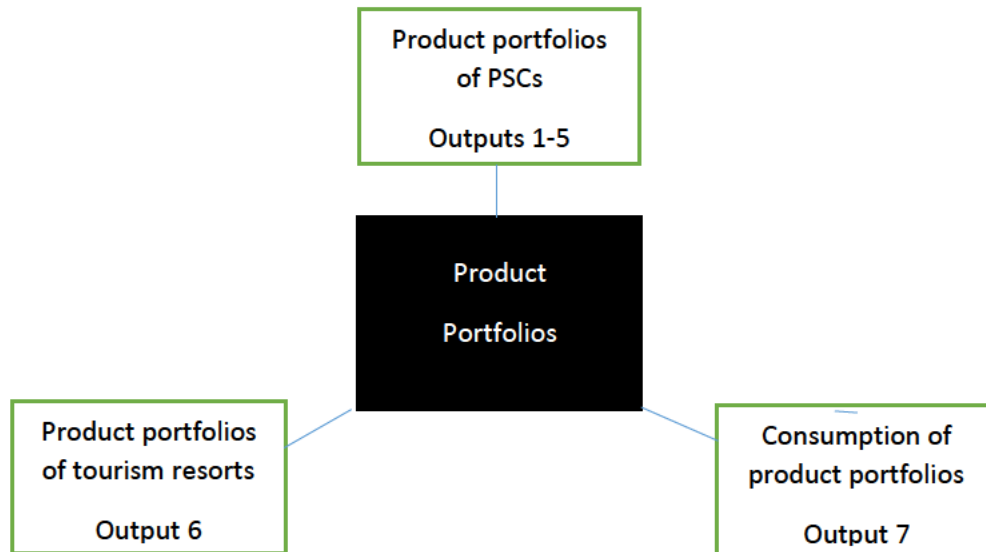
The context of tourism resorts is included (output six) because there are a number of similarities between resorts and PSCs. As a more established discipline than sport management tourism has a larger body of work to draw upon (see ABS rankings, Chartered Association of Business Schools, 2018). These similarities include:

- Both tourism and sport are hedonic purchases where consumers experience high levels of pleasure, enjoyment and excitement during consumption (Kim et al., 2019).

- The marketing and branding strategies of both types of organizations are influenced by a governing body; in the case of resorts it is the national tourist body (Dooley & Bowie, 2006) and for PSCs the league in which they play (Kunkel et al., 2014).
- Both organizations' product ranges are strongly influenced in consumers' minds by their heritage; in the case of tourism resorts it is their natural and cultural attractions (Prideaux, 2000) in the case of sports clubs the sport(s) they play (Giroux et al., 2017). This places constraints on diversification as there is a need to align additional product lines with this heritage.
- Co-branding with partner organizations is also common in developing new product lines (Dooley & Bowie, 2006; Motion et al., 2003).

Although the focus is on the supply of a product portfolio by sporting organizations, the research extends to exploring the consumption of product lines by sports fans and how they follow and consume sporting products over the course of a sports season (output seven). Adopting this approach allows for the analysis of consumption of sport over the course of a sporting season and to highlight how consumers' needs are satisfied by following a sport (e.g. socialization and aesthetics). A knowledge of these factors is important because it allows new products to be developed that meet consumers' need (e.g. social events for sports fans). The manner in which the outputs explore product portfolios is illustrated below in figure one.

**Figure 1: Connecting product portfolios.**



The next section of the work reviews the development of sport management as a discipline, the concept of the product within sport marketing and the addition of product lines by PSCs. It highlights the limited work on diversification and how the research I have undertaken adds to the body of work in product portfolios. The methodology employed in the work is explained followed by a summary of each of the individual papers. The contribution to knowledge in the area of sport marketing and finance is then discussed.

## **2.0 Literature review**

### **2.1 Sports management as a discipline**

The aim of this commentary is to show that since 2009 the candidate has published a coherent body of research in the subject area of sport management and more specifically sport marketing. The main crux of the work presented here is that the playing of matches form part of a portfolio of products offered by sporting organizations and their product offering goes beyond the production and marketing of sport.

The study of sport management as an academic discipline is a recent phenomenon evolving in the 1980s, broadly conceived as concerning organizations that dealt with sport (Chelladurai, 2013). Scholars have still to agree on a definition of the subject, widely used is that proposed by Chelladurai (1994, p. 15), who defines sport management as “a field concerned with the coordination of limited human and material resources, relevant technologies, and situational contingencies for the efficient production and exchange of sport services”.

Initially papers started to investigate competitive balance in sport, with articles appearing in economics journals (e.g. Neale, 1964). Increasing interest in sport as an academic discipline led to the formation of The North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM), recognized as one of the leading professional bodies. They held their first annual conference in 1986. The Journal of Sport Management was first published in 1987 and has grown to be one of the leading journals in the field. At the same time the study of sports for tourism purposes started to attract academic attention (Anthony, 1966; Glyptis, 1982) with the Journal of Sport & Tourism published for the first time in 1993.

**Table. 2 The development of sport management as an academic discipline**

Year	Development
1964	Appearance of papers in economic journals concerning competitive balance (e.g. Neale, 1964).
1966	Sport and tourism (Anthony, 1966) published.
1982	Sport and tourism in Western Europe published (Glyptis, 1982).
1986	The North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) formed.
1987	Journal of Sport Management published for the first time by NASSM.
1993	The European Association for Sport Management (EASM) founded and European Sport Management Quarterly published for the first time. Journal of Sport & Tourism published for the first time by Sports Tourism International Council.
1995	Sport Management Association of Australia and New Zealand (SMAANZ) founded and Sport Management Review published for the first time.

Sources: Nite & Bernard (2017), Oddy & Bason (2017), Weed (2005).

It is generally agreed that sport has grown since the 1960s, into a trillion- dollar industry (Nite & Bernard, 2017). The growth stemming from the growing interest from broadcasters and sponsors leading to increasing commercialisation in sport (Chadwick, 2015; Deloitte, 2017; Slack, 2003). There has been increased recognition by commercial organizations that sporting contests can be used as input into the production of a broadcast, providing both broadcasters and sponsors with access to profitable markets (Borland & McDonald, 2003; Karg et al., 2019). A legacy of the growing commercialization of the industry has been an increase in the professionalism of those who are involved in managing sports organizations. Increased income within sport allows PSCs to move from being an organization run by volunteers to ones employing full-time staff, leading to a more commercial approach.

Defined by Dowling, et al. (2014) as “the process by which sports organizations systems and the occupation of sport transforms from a volunteer driven to an increasingly business-like phenomenon”.

Sports marketing is viewed as important within sport management, as it the business function that helps organizations in the industry grow and survive (Ratten & Ratten, 2011; Richelieu, 2016). Marketing in a generic sense has been defined by the Chartered Institute of Marketing (CIM) in the UK as “The management process responsible for identifying, anticipating and satisfying requirements profitably” (CIM, 2020). In terms of sports marketing there has been some debate over the need for a specific definition to contrast it with generic businesses. A consensus has yet to be reached but a widely adopted definition and one that is used here is that of Chadwick (2005, p. 7). He defines sport marketing as “a process through which a contest with an uncertain outcome is staged creating opportunities for the simultaneous fulfilment of objectives among sports customers, sport businesses and other related individuals and organizations”. This definition highlights an important difference to generic marketing, in that the sport marketing process commences with the product and concentrates on marketing it to different groups. In generic marketing the process starts with a focus on the requirements of the customer and then configuring a product to satisfy those needs. So generic marketing would view sport as satisfying the need for entertainment with the product, the match, devised to satisfy that need.

The definition of sports marketing cited above is consistent with previous work that examines the product marketed in sport. Mason (1999, p. 404) poses the questions as to what the sports product is from a finance perspective and who buys it? Assessing the offering in the context of sports leagues, he defines the core product as “a series of league games with an uncertain outcome”. The buyers who these games are marketed to, constitute four distinct segments: fans, broadcasters, communities in which the clubs are based and corporations who own

teams and/or have commercial dealings with them (e.g. sponsorship agreements). Mason (2016) reflecting on his work, commented that uncertainty of outcome was included in the definition to highlight the need for more than one organization to produce the product. Something that is not necessarily the case in generic marketing. Other streams of generic marketing literature posit that value to consumers is not solely created by the product producer, but co-created in a collaborative process between organizations, customers and other stakeholders (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). This has become known as the service dominant logic (SDL). It has been increasingly adopted in sport marketing research, acknowledging the role of different actors in the creation of sporting events and products (e.g. Da Silva & Casas, 2017; Horbel et al., 2016; Tsiotsou, 2016; Yoshida, 2017). However, although there is a consensus that different actors are involved in the production of sporting events, little work has examined the role of these organizations in the production of events unrelated to sports (e.g. conferences and events).

Other authors have focused on the nature of sports markets, identifying the characteristics that distinguish the industry from generic businesses. Woratschek et al. (2014) develop the SDL by proposing the sport value framework (SVF) to explain phenomena in sport.

Highlighting the specific characteristics that include, but are not limited to: the notion of cooperation between clubs (cooperation and competition simultaneously); the existence of a governing body in the form of sports leagues who manage and co-ordinate teams; the mixture of profit and non-profit organizations; a product that is marketed directly and via different media; and very strong fan loyalty. Although other scholars question the extent of consumer loyalty. Baker et al. (2016) and Fujak et al. (2018) both posit that the behaviour of match attendees is similar to that of other repeatedly purchased products in consumer markets; in that in both contexts consumers buy from a repertoire of brands. Both suggest there is a need

to develop a sporting organization's consumer base and encourage customers to buy more often, without outlining how this could be done.

## **2.2 The product within sport marketing**

The definition of Mason (1999) of the sports product as a “series of league games” has been widely cited in the literature on sports marketing and finance since its publication. However, its focus is on the core product, the match. In the period since its publication many sports organizations have recognized the commercial opportunities and consumer demand for product lines related to sport (Dowling et al., 2014). This has led to many sporting organizations developing a range of products, a portfolio (Apostolopoulou, 2002). Other streams of research observe how some of these product lines are often developed in partnership with other organizations (e.g. football kit with sportswear producers), leading to co-branding agreements (Motion et al., 2003).

Several authors have investigated the addition of product lines to matches. These streams the author argues can be broken down into four groups: auxiliaries, secondary, tangibles and low perceived fit, that are discussed below.

- Auxiliaries – entertainment offered before, during and after a game to enhance the experience of fans (Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005; Ginesta 2017; Magalhães et al., 2017).
- Secondary – spending that takes place during a match (e.g. food and drink) (Bauer, et al., 2005; Richelieu, 2016).
- Tangibles – products/merchandise that can be stored for future use outside of the match. (e.g. banners, scarves and caps, shirts) (Campbell & Kent, 2002; Dolles & Söderman, 2005; Richelieu & Desbordes, 2013).



- Low perceived fit – products developed that are not related to a sports match but use inputs that are involved in the production of a match (Papadimitriou et al., 2004). These target a different market to sport, for instance using the stadium to stage private parties and exhibitions (Lee et al., 2015).

The divergence of work above highlights the complexity of the product in sport marketing because of the range of product lines, both related and unrelated to matches, and the involvement of more than one party in production. Bauer et al. (2005, p. 498) label this “multi-level production”, highlighting the role of the league as the organizer of the infrastructure of production. Apostolopoulou (2002) brought some parsimony to proceedings by devising a typology labelled ‘*Types of extension strategies employed by U.S. professional sports teams*’. Five categories of extension are identified:

- Sport – launching another team (e.g. a youth team).
- Entertainment – providing extra entertainment during a match, this corresponds with the auxiliary category above.
- Media – providing the game by television and radio.
- Information related – using websites to engage fans.
- Low perceived fit – an extension that has little relationship to a match (e.g. credit cards and restaurants) but uses the brand name of a sports franchise.

The work presented here focuses on diversification, developing the concept of low perceived fit, a term that has been discussed in the literature on brand extensions in sport (Papadimitriou et al., 2004). However, no consensus has been reached as to if the fit is to the sport, stadium, or some other process. In terms of fans’ opinions of product line additions Walsh and Ross (2010) found the only evidence of brand dilution/damage to be caused by product line extensions where the association with the team brand was unclear. Abosag et al. (2012)

concur observing that fans accept brand extensions as long as they maintain the club's heritage and history.

A limitation of the work cited above is that the research was only conducted amongst team fans and did not examine fit from an organizational perspective. More recent work in generic business defines fit as being "the consumer perception of how logically and sensibly the new product is related to a parent brand" (Dwivedi & Merrilees, 2013). However, this can be problematic in the sport industry because PSCs can have within their portfolio a range of products/brands that target different markets (e.g. a team brand playing sport targeting sports consumers and a stadium brand staging conferences aimed at the organizational market).

The addition of product lines has also been discussed in streams of literature in the areas of: branding (Chadwick & Clowes, 1998; Gladden et al., 2001); corporate social responsibility (CSR) programmes (Babiak & Wolfe, 2009); hospitality and tourism (Lee, et al., 2015); and sports stadium economics (DeSchrive et al., 2016). These four streams of research all acknowledge that PSCs market products in addition to matches, often by using the stadium as a production resource. A strategy that enables them to diversify; by offering a broader product range to a wider customer base. These additional product lines may be of importance in maintaining commercial viability as income from sport may be limited (Moore & Levermore, 2012; Musso et al., 2016). Nevertheless, there remains a lack of empirical research into how organizations in sport diversify and brand the different product lines within their product portfolio.

The main gist of the argument presented here is that for the field of sports marketing to develop there is a need to investigate the range of products PSCs offer, and examine how they diversify, marketing additional product lines. It is accepted, though, that there is a crossover between markets (e.g. social events such as private parties that are marketed to fans

of the team). The work presented here adopts a marketing lens to investigate these additions. Various terms have been used in the marketing literature to describe product ranges with little clear distinction between brand extensions and product lines. For the purpose of clarity, the terms used are defined below in table 3 with an example provided for illustrative purposes.

**Table 3. Terms used in discussing product ranges**

<b>Term</b>	<b>Definition</b>	<b>Source</b>	<b>Sporting examples</b>
Brand	A name, term, design, symbol or any other feature that identifies one seller's good or service as distinct from those of other sellers.	Dibb et al. (2012, p. 787).	A football club attaching their name to any product/logo to differentiate it from competitors.
Brand architecture	The hierarchical structure as to how the firm's products and services are branded.	Brexendorf & Keller (2017, p. 1531).	Clubs using different brand names for teams and stadiums.
Brand equity (consumer perspective)	The strengths and weaknesses of a brand name or symbol that add or subtract value to a product/service from a consumer perspective.	Aaker (1996).	A fan of a football club being prepared to pay more money for a club's branded merchandise.
Brand equity (organizational perspective)	Incremental cash flow resulting from the strength of the brand name in the marketplace.	Shocker & Weitz (1988).	Increasing value attached to a club by investors because of its strong name.
Brand extension	The attaching of a name to a newly created product that exists in a new product category.	Aaker (1996).	Product unrelated to a match (e.g. credit cards branded with the team name/ logo).
Product line	A group of closely related product items that are considered a unit because of marketing, technical or end-user considerations.	Dibb et al. (2012, p. 801).	Additional product line to matches (e.g. football kit).
Product portfolio	The total range of products offered by the company.	Jobber (2007).	In addition to the product lines above events staged at the stadium (e.g. private parties).

What the normative literature tends to overlook is the reasoning behind the addition of products/services that utilise the facilities and competences of clubs/leagues (which could be described as a fit to their resources). As Lee et al. (2012) observe the use of stadiums for sport is limited to match days. Using a stadium to stage events on non-match days provides an additional stream of income and allows for increased utilization of the venue (DeSchrive, et al., 2016). Adding additional product lines to sports matches and providing a portfolio of products is likely to be important to PSCs who struggle to survive on income derived from sport alone. As a number of scholars have observed the sport sector in the United Kingdom is dominated by organizations with limited resources and interest from consumers in watching matches (Moore & Levermore, 2012).

The lack of coverage of the product ranges of PSCs and their ability to diversify to survive had started to attract some interest in the practitioner literature in cricket (Wright, 2011). The academic view of these organizations as stagers of matches (Mason, 1999) overlooks diversification as a strategy; and the product lines that can be added to matches by using the resources that provide the inputs to staging matches (Chelladurai, 1994). There is also a tendency to focus on PSCs which played in the top leagues and attracted most support from fans, broadcasters and sponsors (Apostolopoulou, 2002). Although subsequent research has started to acknowledge that not all PSCs attracted as much investment from broadcasters and sponsors (Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005; Deloitte, 2007, 2009; Moore & Levermore, 2012; Maguire, 2020).

### **3.0 Origins of candidate's involvement in the research**

Set against the above background, the offering of a product portfolio had always interested the candidate. Over the course of my career in lecturing marketing I have noticed increased interest in branding, an area that has since the 1990s spawned several specialist textbooks (e.g. Aaker, 1996; Kapferer, 2012; Keller, 1998, 2013; Kotler & Keller, 2016) and highly ranked ABS journals dedicated to brand management (e.g. *Journal of Brand Management*). The importance of branding in the field of sports marketing has long been acknowledged (Gladden et al., 2001) and led to the publication of specialist texts in the area (e.g. Bouchet et al., 2013; Stavros & Smith, 2019). Yet little work has examined the actual product lines that are branded. In generic business the construct of brand architecture is used as a framework to examine the names and logos an organization uses for its brands (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000; Brexendorf & Keller, 2017). The framework has been applied to team sport observing how leagues operate as master brands and teams and players as sub-brands, all three parties influencing consumer evaluation (Kunkel et al., 2014, 2017). For instance, the ability of new league such as the IPL to attract the best players in the sport is likely to have an impact on consumer perceptions of quality (Badale & Hughes, 2020).

Nevertheless, when the research commenced there had been little empirical work examining the addition of products with a low perceived fit to sport to a PSCs portfolio and how these product lines are branded. In sport most of the research on branding is also set in the context of the more successful PSCs. For instance, how clubs like Manchester United use their strong brand name 'on the pitch', commercially 'off the pitch' in both domestic and global markets (Hill & Vincent, 2006). However, work published in the area of sports management concerning: sources of income (Andreff & Staudohar, 2000), financial performance (Shibli &

Wilkinson-Riddle, 1997, 1998; Wilson et al., 2018) and sports marketing (Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005); observe that the nature of sport means that not all PSCs can be successful on the field. Those who cannot succeed on the field and/or play in leagues/sports with limited interest from broadcasters and sponsors, in global markets, are unlikely to generate millions of pounds in income (Deloitte, 2017; Richelieu et al., 2008).

At the same time as scholars were examining the development and globalization of brands several reports started to be published examining the commercial aspects of sport, mainly from a financial angle. Deloitte has published an annual report on the finances of professional football since 1992, Mintel has published market reports on professional sports such as cricket and rugby (e.g. Mintel, 2003, 2006). In North America Forbes has produced several reports on the commercial activities of the leading franchises (e.g. Forbes.com, 2009). One of the issues constantly quantified by these market reports is that income growth has been achieved by the sale of broadcasting rights and commercial agreements with sponsors across the globe (e.g. Deloitte, 2012, 2017).

Most notably growth has been achieved by two groups: the top tier European football leagues in England, France, Germany, Italy and Spain, often referred to as “The big five” (Abosag, et al., 2012); and the four major leading North American leagues MLB (Major League Baseball) the NBA (National Basketball Association) the NFL (National Football League) and the National Hockey League (NHL) (Bauer et al., 2005; Jozsa, 2006). Major League Soccer (MLS) may come to be regarded as a major league in financial terms. However, at the onset of the research it was not considered to warrant this status as it only started in 1996, had a limited number of teams (14 in 2016) resulting in limited geographical coverage (DeSchrive et al., 2016). Its limited finances also mean it does not have the ability to attract high quality players (Strutner et al., 2014). At the time of writing league revenue is increasing but has yet to reach \$1 billion per annum (Smith, 2019). The author coins the terms ‘five and four’ to

refer to these leagues and the clubs that play in them, as an acknowledgement that their resources are far greater than those clubs who compete in other leagues. Table 4 below highlights the income generated by these leagues and the 221 clubs who play in them.

**Table 4. Leading sport leagues by revenue – season 2018-19**

<b>League</b>	<b>Country</b>	<b>Revenue (€ billion, 2019)</b>	<b>No of clubs in league</b>
NFL <sup>1</sup>	USA	12.8	32
MLB	USA/Canada	9.2	30
NBA	USA/Canada	7.9	30
EPL <sup>2</sup>	England/Wales	5.9	20
NHL	USA/Canada	4.5	31
LaLiga <sup>2</sup>	Spain	3.4	20
Bundesliga <sup>2</sup>	Germany	3.3	18
Serie A <sup>2</sup>	Italy	2.5	20
Ligue 1 <sup>2</sup>	France	1.9	20

**Sources:** Statista (2020), Deloitte (2020)

However, for PSCs who do not belong to the five and four and play in leagues that do not attract as much income from broadcasters and sponsors other streams of income are more important in maintaining professional status. Indeed, as Couvelaere and Richelieu (2005) and Richelieu et al. (2008) observe outside the top leagues, most PSCs are regional operators.

These organizations generate most of their income in their local geographic area from

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<sup>1</sup> 2018 season.

<sup>2</sup> Included income from the UEFA Champions League.

Conversion rates used £1 = €1.13 (Deloitte, 2020) £1 = \$1.28 (HMRC, 2020).

The next highest leagues by revenue are in North America, MLS \$.8. for 2018-19 season, 26 clubs are in the league (Smith, 2019); and in Europe, the Russian Premier League (RPL) revenue €.75 in 2018-19, 16 clubs are in the league (Deloitte, 2020).



stakeholders based there (Andreff & Staudohar, 2000). The lack of coverage in the literature of the teams that lie outside the five and four grouping led to an initial interest in this type of PSC, as they appear to have been neglected in the sport marketing literature. In terms of justifying why these organizations are worthy of investigation these reasons include:

- The number of them, author estimated that there are over 100 PSCs in this category in England and Wales alone in the sports of cricket, football, rugby union and rugby league. There are also hundreds of professional football clubs outside the top leagues in Europe (Blumrodt, 2014).
- The length of their operation, many have a history that in many instances extends over a hundred years (Kuper & Szymanski, 2009).
- Their limited financial resources and smaller stadium sizes mean that their marketing strategy is likely to be different from the PSCs in table 4 (Moore & Levermore, 2012).
- The market for the sport in which they operate are smaller than the five and four grouping, as interest is likely to be limited to their geographical locality. This means they may need to diversify and extend beyond sport (Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005; Musso et al., 2016, Wilson & Plumley, 2017).
- The lessons they may be able to offer to other small regional businesses (Spence & Essoussi, 2010).
- The social value they provide to their local community (Abosag et al., 2012; Anagnostopoulos et al., 2014).

The generic marketing and strategy literature accept that most organizations market a range of product lines to different types of customers, the product portfolio (Jobber, 2007). The

composition of the portfolio is likely to evolve over time as the level of technology advances, corporations attempt to increase revenue and customer needs change. Although it is accepted that there is risk to an organization in adding new product lines and entering new markets, as this strategy is likely to lead to increases in both production and marketing costs. These costs need to be recovered from increased revenues (Frumkin & Keating, 2011). Diversification is regarded favourably in the strategic management literature as it allows organizations to utilise their resources more effectively (Mehmood & Hillman, 2017). Indeed, in some instances an organization may change its portfolio to such an extent that their original product range is dropped entirely or becomes a small part of their activities. For instance, Nokia started business as a wood pulp mill before moving into the telecommunications industry (Hira, 2012).

In terms of options to examine growth opportunities for organizations the long established Ansoff growth vector framework outlines four options: market penetration, selling more to existing customers; market development, selling existing products to new markets; product development, selling new products to existing markets; and diversification selling new products to new markets (Ansoff, 1957). In the area of sport most work has focused on increasing consumer spending by offering an increasing range of club branded products (Abosag et al., 2012; Bauer et al., 2005), entering new overseas markets (Hill & Vincent, 2006), and developing new products for sports fans (Apostolopoulou, 2002). A number of authors have highlighted the ongoing financial problems of lower league clubs (Beech, et al., 2010; Maguire, 2020; Plumley et al., 2018; Wilson et al., 2018, 2020) and the small number of team fans (Baker et al., 2016). Yet, little empirically is known as to how a diversification strategy could be used to increase both income and the number of customers for PSCs, who are less successful on the field and struggle to maintain financial viability from sport alone.

A theme that emerges in recent years is the adoption by PSC's of a diversification strategy, by using their stadium to offer additional product lines in an attempt to increase revenue and reduce dependence on matchday income that is likely to fluctuate according to on field performance. These may be aimed at the consumer market (B2C) by the staging of social functions such as music concerts, private parties, weddings and funerals (Lee et al., 2012).

Larger and better resourced stadiums also stage conferences and exhibitions that are targeted at the business to business (B2B) market (Ginesta, 2017). Scholars in a North American context have examined how stadiums have been used as multi-purpose venues, offering conference and banqueting facilities (Kim et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2015; Parrish et al., 2014).

Nevertheless, a diversification strategy by PSCs is not without financial risk. In order to enter new markets and compete against existing players investment is likely to be required in areas such as stadium infrastructure, marketing and the appointment of new staff. A number of PSCs have since the early 2000s invested in their stadium infrastructure and commercial staff to market product lines such as their conference and events facilities (Gibson, 2010). These additional product lines could result in losses to a club if the revenue generated by them does not cover costs. Losses from diversification may have to be recovered by cutting budgets for the core product of sport (Walsh et al., 2012, Wright, 2011) and lead to damaging fans perception of a club (Abosag et al., 2012; Walsh & Ross, 2010).

Yet little work has been conducted in a European context considering: the portfolio of non-match day events offered, the influences on these non-core activities, markets served, use of partners in providing these products/services, skills developed through these additions and the branding approach adopted. Research in a European context is justified because there are marked differences in the organization of professional sports between the two continents. The North American league system differs from the European system in a number of ways that are likely to influence their diversification strategy including:

- The closed league system means clubs do not move between tiers, so income does not fluctuate because of promotion/ relegation (Deloitte, 2017).
- The restrictions placed on geographical and commercial operations by the franchise system (Noll, 2003).
- The ability to relocate franchises to other geographical areas (Jozsa, 2006).
- The use of public subsidies to support franchises in an effort to stop them moving to other areas (Lee et al., 2012).
- Teams that play in lower leagues (known as Minor leagues in the USA) may be affiliated to franchises in the leading (Major) leagues (Agha, 2013).

In terms of the growth strategies of commercial organizations, most develop by their own entrepreneurial ability and expand their markets by both type of end user and geographical region of operations (Mehmood & Hillman, 2017). There are, though, a number of marked differences between PSCs and generic businesses in terms of their market coverage, that could be argued are contextual to sport. The nature of the historical development of sport, particularly in a UK context for those outside the EPL, means that most of their customers are located in their geographical area of operation, meaning they mainly function as local/regional brands. The EFL Supporters survey reveals that 44% of respondents became a fan of a team because it was near the area in which they grew up (EFL, 2020), whereas more successful clubs are likely to have a more geographically dispersed fanbase (Hill & Vincent, 2006). In addition, sport is their *raison d'être* and all additional product lines stem from this core product line. The author can find no instances of a PSC dropping the core product from its portfolio. Whereas noted above a generic business might do this (Hira, 2012). Also, PSCs are to some extent restricted by the regulations of the leagues to which they belong. These include staging matches, which limits the way a stadium can be used to stage other events (Lee et al., 2015), financial regulations (Plumley et al., 2018; Maguire, 2020), and obligations

in areas such as CSR (Anagnostopoulos et al., 2014). A further restriction faced by some PSCs is the ability to use their venues as a production resource. Not all have the ability to do this, as they may not own the stadium or have the right to use it for anything other than playing matches (Beech et al., 2010; Wilson et al., 2017).

Yet there are business lessons to be learned from these PSCs in terms of: survival, as many have a long history; operating as regional brands; competing against organizations with far greater resources; embedding themselves in their local community; and using the material resources involved in the production of sport (e.g. a stadium) (Chelladurai, 1994) to diversify. There are parallels to be drawn here with tourism, as both resorts and PSCs fulfil the need of hedonic entertainment (Kim et al., 2019). The products/ services lines added by tourist resorts stem from the natural attractions of the resort and need to be aligned with it (Cooper et al., 1999). Whereas PSCs increase income by diversifying from sport, tourism resorts develop by adding to their natural and cultural attractions. Unlike generic businesses both are unlikely to remove their original products from the portfolio they market as they are constrained by their heritage. Moreover, both tend to expand by working with commercial partners in the provision of goods and services. For instance, PSCs in producing merchandise (Motion et al., 2003) and tourism resorts in developing additional attractions such as theme parks (Prideaux, 2000) meaning different forms of ownership of the portfolio. In a generic business context expansion into national and global markets takes place through the efforts of an organization alone. Although there may be assistance from Chambers of Commerce and Trade Associations. For PSCs and tourism resorts much of the expansion is through (and constrained by) the efforts of governing bodies, (leagues in sport and tourist boards in resorts).

#### **4.0 Gaps in the literature- aims and objectives**

The portfolio of publications submitted in this thesis seek to develop existing work investigating the product portfolios of PSCs, more specifically extending existing work in the area of brand extensions (e.g. Apostolopoulou, 2002; Papadimitriou et al., 2004; Abosag et al., 2012). The emphasis in the research is on product lines that are diversifications from sport (e.g. the use of stadia for other non-sporting activity). If the core product is to be defined as a series of league games (Mason, 1999, 2016) it could be also said by default that there is a non-core, i.e. products marketed that are not a series of league games. However, a binary definition such as this though convenient is difficult to apply because of disputes as to what product lines are linked to sport and the definition of non-core covering a broad area.

What is evident is that PSCs may be capable of utilising their resources; together with those of different actors both within the sports industry (Horbel et al., 2016) and outside of it; to diversify and market products that are not related to the match nor aimed at sports fans. These are defined as product lines concerned with “utilizing the facilities and targeting a different market” (Pritchard, 2016, p. 28). This is consistent with the construct of low perceived fit (Papadimitriou et al., 2004), in that the products are not directly related to a match but use inputs/resources that are needed to produce a match. In effect they are diversifications from the core product (Ansoff, 1957). For instance, parties and social events held in the stadium, aimed at the B2C market and conferences and exhibitions aimed at the B2B market (Lee, et al., 2012). The work in this portfolio seeks to develop knowledge in the area of additional product lines by examining diversifications, that have a low perceived fit to sports matches. It focuses on how the resource of the stadium is used to diversify; the manner in which the portfolio is marketed and branded; the skills that are developed in the staging of non-match events; and the markets in which they operate. The objectives of the thesis are:

1. To assess the addition of new product lines within sport (outputs one and two).
2. To model the income streams of PSCs over the course of a season in English/Welsh cricket in order to quantify the importance of income unrelated to sport (output three).
3. To analyse the expertise that has been developed by PSCs in adopting a portfolio approach to product management and its impact on the definition of PSCs as providers of “a series of league games” (Mason, 1999, p. 404) (outputs three, four and five)
4. To compare and contrast the approaches adopted in PSCs and tourism resorts in their product strategy (outputs five and six).
5. To analyse the use of brand architecture in both sport and tourism as a marketing tool in aiding diversification (outputs five and six).
6. To analyse product line consumption by supporters of English/Welsh domestic cricket over the course of a season (output seven).

## **5.0 Ontology epistemology and research methodology**

This part of the thesis explains the ontological assumptions of the work (the nature of reality), what exists and what does not; together with the epistemology of the research (how we come to obtain knowledge and what should or should not be regarded as knowledge) in a wider philosophical content (Easterby-Smith et al., 2018). Assumptions on the nature of knowledge are important because they have wider implications as to the way the research is designed, data collected and analysed.

In terms of the reality and the existence of sports organizations the candidate adopts the view that ‘institutions’ (such as sports clubs) exist and should be regarded as a ‘real’ entity, despite not having a physical presence. They should be investigated and viewed separately to the employees/ owners who control them. Giddens (1984) justifies this approach to the study of organizations on the grounds that they are a set of practices of individuals that are enduring features of social life, embedded in time and space. In terms of the study of professional sports organizations, Slack and Parent (2006, p. 5) define them as “not unitary entities that can be exactly defined but rather are complex processes and sets of socially and historically constituted relationships”. These practices and processes mean that they need to be viewed separately to the individuals who manage them.

The generic business research literature tends to concur identifying a number of approaches to research design and the way organizational reality should be studied (Bryman et al., 2019; Cresswell, 2014). O’ Leary (2014) argues that simplified this boils down to being at one extreme an empiricist who believes that knowledge is limited to what can be observed through the senses. An approach that is best pursued through the traditional scientific method, focusing on the measurement of variables through objective measures, a positivist approach. At the other end of the spectrum is the interpretivism paradigm which takes the view that



reality is not objective. Truth is subjective in the way people make sense and develop meaning from their experiences. These two opposing paradigms have implications as to the way the methodology is designed, and the techniques employed to conduct research. Yet as scholars have observed the use of mixed methods research integrating both qualitative and quantitative methods have increased greatly since the 1990s in business research (Bryman, et al., 2019; O'Leary, 2014). A benefit of a mixed methods approach being that it allows for a greater diversity of views and the combination of different research methods (e.g. qualitative interviews with quantified financial measures).

The author's background is in marketing and more specifically marketing research (MR). Included within nearly all syllabuses and texts covering the subject are both quantitative and qualitative research, with both viewpoints recognized as being important in the analysis of marketing problems and reflected in empirical studies published in leading marketing journals (Nunan & Di Domenico, 2018). The discipline of MR views qualitative research as scientific (in a social scientific sense) and a legitimate foundation of knowledge. Quantitative methods (objective) and qualitative methods (subjective) are viewed from a methodological perspective as complementary as opposed to competing paradigms. This grounding in MR leads the candidate to adopt a mixed methods approach, collecting both quantitative and qualitative data in the investigation of business problems. The generic literature views this as a pragmatic approach, being more concerned with solutions to a problem, what works, than methodological issues (Easterby-Smith et al., 2018; O'Leary, 2014; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). In sport management research quantitative research has been dominant, although studies employing a qualitative methodology have been increasingly published. There is an increasing held view that the use of different research methods helps to increase the legitimacy of sport management as a distinct discipline (Oddy & Bason, 2017).

Drawing from different disciplines such as management, marketing and finance is consistent with the pragmatic viewpoint, as it allows the synthesis of a positivist and interpretivist methodology in order to increase validity and generalizability. The use of objective measures derived from an organization’s accounts such as income over a period of time (normally a financial year) is consistent with a positivist approach. Adopting this approach allows for the incorporation into the research of data sources contrasting and quantifying sources of income (e.g. Deloitte, 2007). In the discipline of finance researchers rely on secondary data such as published accounts to add to the body of knowledge by exploring relationships (Easterby-Smith et al., 2018). In this instance the work was conducted across functional boundaries incorporating aspects of finance, marketing and sports management. Although the methodology is qualitatively dominant the works were sequenced with quantitative measures (e.g. annual income and stadium size) used to categorize the units of investigation (PSCs).

**Table 5 Contrasting the methodologies and research philosophies of the outputs.**

<b>Positivism/ post positivism</b>	<b>Output number</b>	<b>Interpretivism</b>
	←—————→	
Emphasis on theory testing and measuring	7,                      6,3,4,5,2,1	Emphasis on theory building, meaning and understanding
Prior theory used to generate hypothesis		Prior theory may be used at various times
Structured		Unstructured/semi-structured
Researcher is objective		Researcher involvement

The position of each output on the positivist-interpretivism continuum is tabulated above.

The philosophy underpinning the design for output seven is positivist, as it was possible to

adapt theory that investigates the concept of consumer motivation to attend sporting events (Funk et al., 2001, 2009). The research design in the remaining outputs is situated towards the interpretivism end of the spectrum. Output six used objective measures, statistical tests, to analyse visitor numbers to a tourism resort and length of stay over a period of time. These were also interpreted in an attempt to build theory regarding the product portfolio. Output three adopted a case study approach incorporating both numerical measurement in the form of sources of income and semi-structured interviews.

The remaining four outputs are situated more closely towards the interpretivist end of the spectrum, as the aim of these works is to develop theories and a deeper understanding of the product portfolio from the perspective of commercial managers. This approach was adopted as when the research commenced there was a large body of research investigating consumers of sport. Yet little work had incorporated the views of commercial managers in sport, meaning little theory existed. A number of researchers had discussed additional product lines (Couvellaere & Richelieu, 2005; Lee & Walsh, 2012) and this work was used to guide the issues discussed in the semi-structured interviews (see table 6 below). Outputs four and five use objective measures of turnover and stadium size to classify PSCs but the studies are qualitatively dominant (Cresswell, 2014) as the focus is on increasing understanding of a PSC's product and branding strategy. This lends itself to an interpretivist approach because the work investigates how managers interpret the commercial environment of their organization. The reason for adopting this approach is that the candidate does not believe that there is one truth, an objective measure, in the measurement of brand extension/ additional product lines, there are multiple realities. The logic behind this is that PSCs operate in different ways to each other, leading to different views of managers and no objective measure to date has been devised. The approach also allows for cross-checking across methods. In

this instance quantitative secondary sources were analysed to prepare for the selection of organizations to be studied.

Output one adopts a similar approach to outputs three and four in trying to develop theory but unlike outputs three, four and five did not use any objective measures to classify PSCs as the focus was on a product line, not individual PSCs. Output two uses a range of secondary sources contrasting the organization of leagues to develop previous work into league structures and financing by devising a typology, although financial information concerning sources of income was included within the typology.

## **6.0 Methods employed**

The research designs are discussed in each of the outputs. A literature review was carried out into the themes that link the work together: sources of income; product line additions in sport and tourism; branding of these products; the use of brand architecture and product consumption in sport. This was done in order to identify the range of products offered by different PSCs across different sports in the UK. The secondary sources used can be divided into the following categories:

- Market reports published annually that focus on the business of sport (e.g. Deloitte and Forbes).
- Periodic reports published on sport by organizations who specialize in the field of business (e.g. Mintel, 2003 & 2006; Smith, 2009).
- Annual publications in the field of sport (e.g. Wisden Cricketers' Almanack and the Sky Sports Football Yearbook). These are aimed at sports fans providing a plethora of information and statistics on the history of clubs, attendances and performance over the course of a season.

- A review of sport organizations websites, all have their own website which detail both playing and commercial matters.

As Gerrard (2015) highlights sport provides a lot of data on both organizations and players to be analysed, that may not exist in other industries. Although on the other hand the limited number of staff in the commercial departments of PSCs mean obtaining respondents can be challenging (Dowling et al., Manoli, 2020). The primary research that was conducted is tabulated below, see table 6. When the research commenced little empirical work had sought the views of commercial managers (those concerned with ‘off field’ as opposed to ‘on-field issues’) into how product lines with low perceived fit to sport were marketed. The outputs utilise the following research methods to obtain data:

- Semi-structured interviews were employed in outputs one, three, four and five, an approach that was adopted as it allowed for a deeper, richer insight into decisions that were made and why. It also allows the findings to be grounded in sport phenomena in order to increase validity (Chalip, 2006) and provide management in context (Gerrard, 2015).
- An on-line survey was used in output seven to investigate the factors important to consumers in the consumption of sports brands adapting previous scales developed to investigate motives to attend sporting events (Funk et al., 2009).
- A range of secondary sources were utilised in outputs two, three and six to devise typologies of products and to aid further inquiry into relationships between product lines (Chelladurai, 2013).

In terms of the levels of evidence employed in this work, the Center for Evidence-Based Management (CEBMA) regards experts’ personal opinions and surveys and case studies as low down in the hierarchy of evidence levels. The randomized control trial (RCT) represents

the highest level of authoritative evidence, although from their point of view a study design depends on the question and availability of data. They regard qualitative studies as being the most appropriate methodology when the emphasis is on investigating people's experience, feeling and perceptions; and when trying to build theory (CEBMA, 2019).

A rigorous approach to data analysis has been employed across the seven outputs, this is illustrated in table 6 below. For the qualitative outputs with the exception of output one interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim using naturalised coding (outputs three, four and five). Thematic coding was used to examine the data and group it into relevant themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). For both outputs four and five discussions on analysis of the data were held with some of the co-authors to enhance academic rigour and reliability (Bryman et al., 2019; Cresswell, 2014). In the case of the online survey (output seven) data was analysed using structural equation modelling (SEM) to understand the relationship between the constructs of: consumption motivation, socialising, constraints and sporting preferences (Hair et al., 2010).

**Table 6. Summary of research methods (No. indicates output number)**

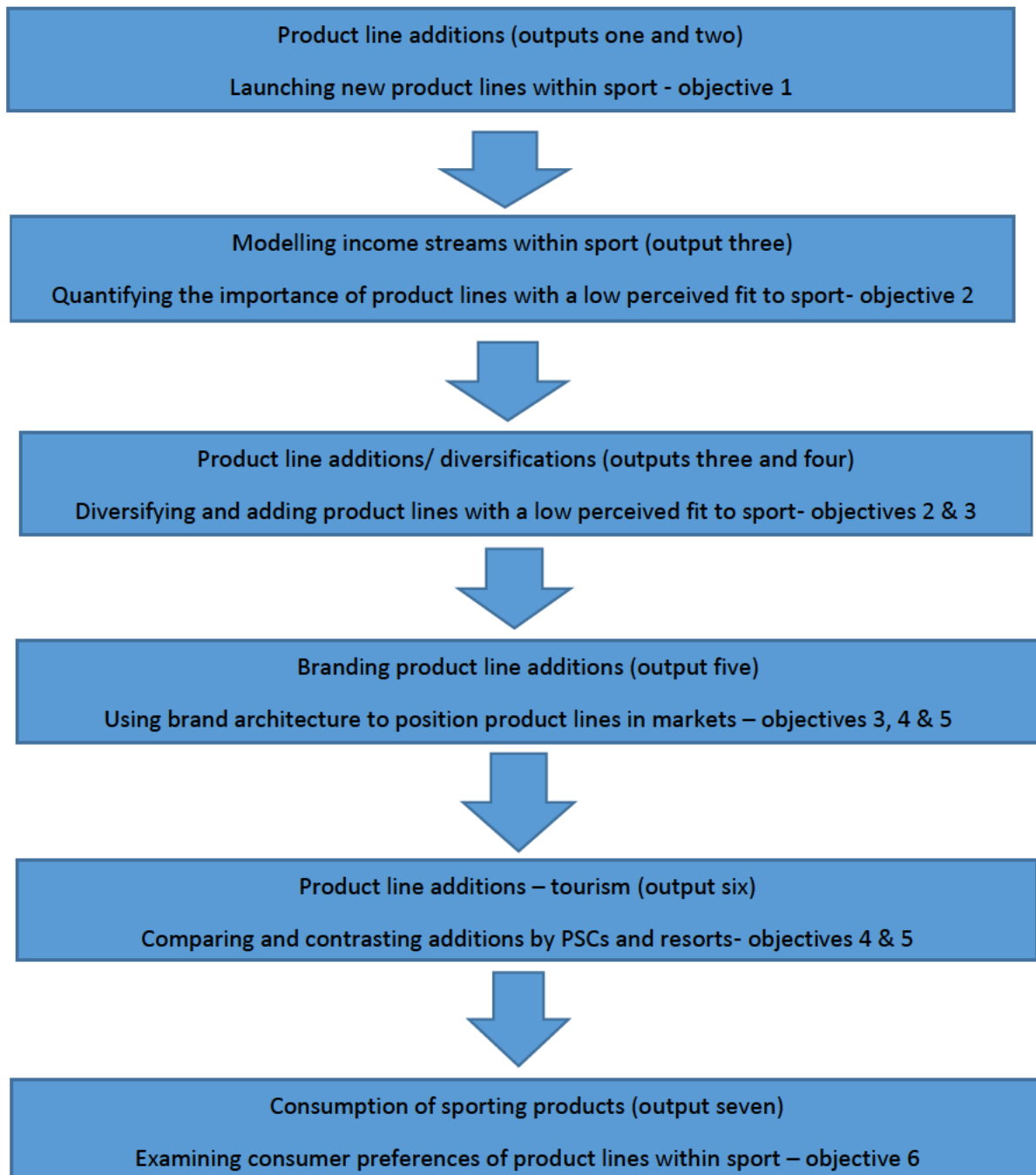
<b>No.</b>	<b>Sample</b>	<b>Instrument</b>	<b>Data analysis</b>
1	Semi-structured interviews with industry experts (N=7)	Six issues (adapted from Higgins & Martin, 1996)	Reflective logs written
2	Secondary sources	Review of secondary sources contrasting the organization of leagues (Noll, 2003; Cain & Haddock, 2005; Jozsa, 2006, Sloane, 2006)	Typology developed adapting Pomfret (2005) and Sloane (2006)
3	Case study: Financial reports of all 18 teams together with that of the governing body. Semi-structured interviews with industry experts (N=12)	Four themes 1. Marketing of the portfolios served-self-developed 2. Markets served in cricket (Wright, 2011) 3. Partners in product production (Lee & Walsh 2012) 4. Information sharing - self-developed	Content analysis of transcribed interviews developing typology adapting Apostolopoulou (2002)
4	Semi-structured interviews with industry experts (N=21)	Four themes 1. Stadium use (Pritchard, 2016) 2. Partners (Manoli & Hodgkinson, 2017) 3. Geographical markets (Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005) 4. Expertise – self-developed	Content analysis of transcribed interviews
5	Semi-structured interviews with industry experts (N=21)	Three themes 1.Brand names adopted (Lee et al., 2015; Pritchard, 2016; Walsh et al., 2015) 2. Markets served (Babiak & Wolfe 2009; Anagnostopoulos et al., 2014; Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005) 3. Hierarchical relationship between leagues and teams (Babiak & Wolfe 2009; Anagnostopoulos et al., 2014; Pritchard, 2016)	Content analysis of transcribed interviews
6	Secondary sources	Review of secondary sources including Tourism area life cycle model (TALC) (Butler, 1980), Resort Development spectrum model (RDS) (Prideaux, 2000)	Category of attractions model developed adapting TALC and RDS models
7	Online survey (N=632)	Four constructs developed 1.Consumption motivation (Wann et al., 1999) 2. Socialising (Trail et al., 2000) 3. Constraints (Funk, et al., 2001) 4. Sporting preferences (Bennett et al., 2007)	Structural equation modelling (SEM)

## **7.0 The submitted portfolio of work**

This section discusses the seven outputs individually, outlining the origins of the work objectives and the relationship between the papers. The authors role in each paper is outlined, if there was more than one author. Figure 2 below outlines how the outputs fit together and investigate the objectives that are stated on page 38. The diagram is followed by a more detailed discussion of the link between the individual papers.



**Figure 2. Linking the outputs**



## Launching new product lines within sport – Output One

### Twenty20 cricket: an examination of the critical success factors in the development of the competition

#### Keywords

Twenty20 cricket  
diffusion of innovation  
new product launch  
sports marketing

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#### Abstract

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This study examined the Twenty20 cricket competition launched in England and Wales in 2003. The findings identified that the competition has many of the characteristics which current diffusion models believe to be critical success factors. However, most research focused on American and Australian sports, and two key contextual factors are excluded: both timing and weather have been critical factors in the competition's success.

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**‘Twenty20 cricket, an examination of the critical success factors in the development of the competition’** was a journal article published in 2009 that examines the introduction of a new format or product line within the sport of cricket, Twenty20 (now more usually referred to as T20). Christopher Hyde, first author, suggested the idea for the paper, initially as part of his final year undergraduate thesis, and undertook the interviews. I wrote the paper developing the literature review, analysing the notes from the interviews, discussing the findings and providing the implications. Limited research had been conducted at the time into diffusion in sport, although the diffusion theory framework was developed and applied to a franchises re-location to a new stadium in the USA (Higgins & Martin, 1996). The work was exploratory in its scope aiming to identify the important issues in making the competition a success from a PSC perspective (objective one). At this stage the focus was on product lines linked to sport (the core) as opposed to those that had a low perceived fit to sport. The idea that PSCs provided a portfolio of products had not at this stage been investigated in the literature on sport.

One of the unique features of cricket is that it has been played in different formats professionally since the early 1960s: First class matches (scheduled for three to five days) and One day matches (scheduled to be played over a period of six to seven hours). Most recently a third format, T20 was launched in 2003 (to be played over a period of three hours). Other sports use different formats, football is occasionally played in five-a-side and rugby union in seven-a-side, but these tend to be in one-off tournaments.

The new shorter format was launched to try and attract a new audience to the sport, targeting those who regard the two more traditional formats as being too long. As a new version of the sport it has a perceived fit to cricket (Papadimitriou et al., 2004). In England and Wales, the 18 PSCs that compete in competitions across each of the three formats above are the only professional teams. The inability of these PSCs to generate sufficient income from sport alone has been acknowledged in the literature (Shibli & Wilkinson-Riddle, 1997,1998).

The diffusion rate model in sport (Higgins & Martin, 1996) was used as a conceptual framework and seven semi-structured interviews were then held with industry experts to discuss the critical success factors in the launch of the format. All respondents agreed that the competition had improved their finances through increased ticket sales, broadcasting and secondary spending on catering. In terms of assessing the success of new product lines (objective one) a number of factors were identified that had not previously been discussed in the literature. These are timing in making matches more accessible to potential fans; acquiring a reputation for being fast and lively; and avoiding competition with other sports most notably football. Positive media coverage and word of mouth advertising were also mentioned as being important. The work did not attempt to develop a conceptual framework, it did endorse previous research, although from an organizational perspective, that a more

positive evaluation is likely for extensions with a perceived fit to sport (Papadimitriou, et al., 2004).

## Launching new product lines within sport - Output two

# Caught between a base and a foot place: the first year of operation of the Indian Premier League

### Keywords

Asian team sports  
franchising in sport  
Indian Premier League (IPL)  
league organisation  
sports marketing  
Twenty20 cricket

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Peer reviewed

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### Abstract

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The cricket Indian Premier League (IPL) was set up in late 2007 and played for the first time in 2008. The IPL is probably the first time in the history of professional team sport that an Asian league has become stronger than a European one. This paper examines the IPL's first year of operation, comparing its organisation with Major League Baseball and the English Football League. The paper concludes that the IPL has more in common with Major League Baseball, although it has, in some respects, proved more flexible than both in its mode of operation.

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The journal article from 2011 ‘**Caught between a base and a foot place: the first year of operation of the Indian Premier League (IPL)**’ developed the work in output one by examining the role of leagues in organizing new competitions and generating income. It examines how the IPL is organized and the income streams that financed the league’s launch (objective two). The success of the T20 format in England and Wales had led to it being played throughout the cricket-playing world and the first world cup was held in 2007. This led to the setting up of the IPL, which was played for the first time in 2008. The investment in the IPL, through team owners, sponsors and broadcasters mean that it can attract the best players in the world (Andreff & Staudohar, 2000; Badale & Hughes, 2020). It quickly overtook the England & Wales league (output one) in terms of income generation. The paper investigated the part the organizational structure played in its success. The organization of sports leagues in North America and Europe had been contrasted previously, highlighting the franchise system in North America that led to leagues being closed cartels with an emphasis on profit maximisation (Sloane, 2006).

Yet little research had incorporated Asian team sports. Whereas in England/Wales existing teams competed in T20 as an additional competition/ product line for existing PSCs, in India

the governing body of the sport sold eight new franchises to organizations and individuals, effectively creating eight new cricket teams that only play in the IPL. The paper used secondary sources to devise a typology of league structures, observing the IPL was heavily dependent on broadcasting and commercial income. However, its franchise model enables it to be far more mobile than other leagues. This allowed it to relocate from India to South Africa at short notice for the 2009 season, due to security issues in India. Since the paper was written the mobility has been evidenced by the league being moved to the United Arab Emirates for the 2020 season due to the Covid-19 pandemic (BBC, 2020).

In terms of factors that marked it out as being different from other leagues and contributing to its success (objective one) these are: the short length of the season, with matches played every day for two months; the number of teams/ franchises (eight); and players only being contracted for this time period, which allows them to play for other teams throughout the year. At the time of the research the league was in its infancy and it was suggested that this type of league may become a prototype for other global leagues. This replication has occurred in cricket, with the launch of leagues in Australia, Bangladesh and The Caribbean amongst others. The Big Bash League in Australia being notably successful, played over a short window during the school summer holidays allowing it to attract a family audience.

**Quantifying the importance of product lines with a low perceived fit to sport;**

**Diversifying and adding product lines with a low perceived fit to sport: Output three**

## **It's not just cricket – the portfolios of the English/Welsh cricket teams**

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Portfolios of  
the English/  
Welsh cricket  
teams

**19**

### **Abstract**

**Purpose** – The purpose of this paper is to examine the range of products and services offered by the professional cricket teams in the UK. To what extent have they added to their core activity of staging matches?

**Design/methodology/approach** – A case study approach was adopted using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The accounts of the 18 teams and the governing body were reviewed to analyse the flow of income within the sport and categorize its sources. Interviews were then held with senior commercial staff of 12 of the teams.

**Findings** – All of the teams had engaged in brand extensions, offering a category of products/services that were more concerned with facilities utilization. These were not aimed at fans of the teams, as with conventional sporting extensions, but at a different market. Though there was some overlap between customers. The use of alliances and joint ventures was common in the provision of these lines.

**Research limitations/implications** – The research is limited to a single sport, with the portfolio being investigated from a management as opposed to a consumer perspective. The findings are likely to be relevant to other sports teams, particularly small and medium-sized enterprises, where income from the sport alone is insufficient to maintain professional status.

**Originality/value** – This paper adds to the previous research on typologies of brand extensions in sport by incorporating product/service lines that were aimed at resource utilization and different markets.

**Keywords** Cricket, Brand extensions, Facilities utilization, Sources of income, Sports products

**Paper type** Case study

The findings from output one and two, above, were developed in the 2016 journal article '**It's not just cricket- the portfolio of products and services of the English and Welsh cricket teams**'. Although the addition of T20 as a product line had helped PSCs in the sport, lack of income was still a problem for clubs in England and Wales (Wright, 2011). Whereas the previous outputs had focused on the addition to the product range in the core product of sport, they did not investigate other product lines that formed part of the PSC's portfolio.

Researchers in the area of sports finance had started to acknowledge there was a marked difference between the income streams of PSCs, contrasting those that could generate income on a global scale with those who struggled to do this and generated income at a local level (Andreff & Staudohar, 2000). A view endorsed in the sport management literature that observes how PSCs develop from local to global brands (Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005). Apostolopoulou (2002) developed a typology to categorise brand extensions. However, the main focus of her work was on the addition of product lines that were related to sport (e.g.

merchandise and websites that could be marketed to fans). Although ventures such as health clubs and restaurants are mentioned in the typology there was no discussion as to the target market for these types of products nor any empirical research to support the reasoning behind these additions.

This led to research into the product portfolios of PSCs, with the aim (objective two) of: modelling income within a sport to examine and quantify the importance of that unrelated to sport. This was developed by devising a typology of the portfolio offered; to contrast the marketing of the products within their portfolio. Cricket in England and Wales was selected as the context for the research because the practitioner literature (Wright, 2011; Gibson, 2010) had commented on how a number of these clubs had diversified into areas such as conferencing and banqueting, developing their grounds into multi- purpose venues. The methodology combined quantitative secondary sources and semi –structured interviews. The accounts of the annual reports for the 18 clubs for the financial year ending in 2009 (they are the only PSCs in the two countries) and the governing body of the sport the English and Welsh Cricket Board (ECB) show the sport is dependent on broadcasting income (objective two). The ECB market the broadcasting of the sport and in turn use their income to provide grants to the teams. A review of the accounts of the teams show that they generate a significant amount of their income from sources unrelated to matches. For 2009 estimates were that over 60% of income for the 18 clubs came from commercial activities, unrelated to matches.

The typology of Apostolopoulou (2002) was used as a framework to guide the research into the types of products they supplied that had a low perceived fit to sport with four themes being developed from the literature (see table 6 p. 46): marketing of the portfolio (self-developed); markets developed (Wright, 2011), partners in production (Lee & Walsh, 2012)



and information sharing (self-developed). Semi-structured interviews were then held with commercial managers of twelve of the 18 clubs.

The interviews revealed that sport and the venue facilities are marketed in a different way, with the facilities being used for a wide range of events. The product portfolio was modelled identifying two distinct categories: sports products and facilities utilization (see figure 3 p. 73). The first category in the typology was based on the work of Apostolopoulou (2002) and includes products that are related to the core and targeted at fans of the sport and team (e.g. matches and publications concerning sport). The second category was labelled facilities utilization and targets a different market to fans, although there may be some crossover in consumers. The category was divided into two sub-categories: 'ongoing' and 'events', the former consisting of products which provide a continuous stream of income (e.g. shops and hotels). The latter being ad hoc in nature (e.g. conferences and events such as firework displays). These products were often produced with partners in alliances/joint ventures (e.g. catering and music concerts). In terms of the thesis objectives the research extends previous literature on brand extensions (e.g. Papadimitriou et al., 2004), in showing that PSCs have developed a range of product lines independently of the sport's governing body with a low perceived fit to sport (objective 3). In doing so PSCs are mainly targeting markets in their local area, providing an important source of income in maintaining financial viability. The facilities of the clubs are marketed in a different manner to matches because the buyers of these products interest lie in how the facilities can be used as opposed to the core of matches. The paper also observed that sports clubs have constraints on suppling their portfolio (e.g. complying with league regulations) that do not apply to generic businesses.

## Professional sports teams: going beyond the core

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### Abstract

**Purpose** – The addition of products to the core of matches by professional sports teams (PSTs) has received much coverage. However, there has been limited work as to how their stadiums are used to stage non-sporting events. The purpose of this paper is to investigate how clubs in the English Football League (EFL) use their venues to diversify into other markets.

**Design/methodology/approach** – Secondary sources were used to categorise the teams who played in the EFL by: average division turnover, stadium capacity and stadium age. Semi-structured interviews were held with a member of the commercial teams of 21 clubs.

**Findings** – Clubs use their stadiums to supply a range of products and working with partners is commonplace. These products are targeted at a range of stakeholders, such as supporters, the local community and regionally based organisations. In addition to their own efforts, increased geographical coverage for clubs usually develops in three ways: via internal marketing by local organisations who use the facilities, agents who market the stadium for the club and the EFL who market the league/clubs holistically.

**Research limitations/implications** – The use of a stadium allows PSTs to diversify by providing new products for new markets. In this instance it has led to the development of capabilities in areas such as conferencing, funerals and weddings.

**Originality/value** – This is one of the first papers to examine the capabilities developed by PSTs that lie outside the staging of matches.

**Keywords** Stadiums, Facilities utilization, Professional Sports Teams (PSTs), Sports products

**Paper type** Research paper

The 2019 paper ‘**Professional sports teams: Going beyond the core**’ developed the work in output three on the addition of low perceived fit products to the portfolio (Papadimitriou et al., 2004). The aim of the paper is to examine how stadiums are used by PSCs to stage events unrelated to sport and diversify into other markets and the expertise developed (objective three). The context selected was the English Football League (EFL) because it is a sporting organization that does not generate billions of pounds in income like the five and four leagues, see table 4, p. 30. The gulf in the annual income of teams in English professional leagues is illustrated by the revenue they generate. At the time of writing this paper average income per team for 2015-16 was: for those in the top tier, the English Premier League (EPL) £182m. For those in the three divisions that make up the EFL: Championship £23m, League One £5.7m, and League Two £3.6m (Deloitte, 2017). Financial problems are commonplace

(Beech et al., 2010; Plumley et al., 2018) yet clubs, like those in cricket have a long history, rooted in local communities, in many instances over one hundred years.

The limited income from sport means like their counterparts in cricket (see outputs one & three) there is a need for many clubs in the EFL to diversify in order to maintain professional status. They use their stadiums as multi-purpose venues to stage events such as conferencing and events that target a different market to sport fans. As there are so many clubs in this league (72 across three divisions), four researchers collaborated on this project. I wrote the paper and conducted nine of the interviews. David Cook, Tom Bason and Andrew Jones conducted three interviews each and helped throughout in revising the paper. Paul Salisbury conducted two interviews and Ellie Hickman one, their contribution to the writing the paper was very limited.

A further reason for the selection of the EFL was that the large number of clubs allows for a greater contrast between PSCs. Initially secondary sources were used to categorize stadiums by age and capacity, the promotion-relegation system makes classification by division difficult as it constantly changes. A qualitative approach was adopted as this allowed for the views of experts to be more fully explored and richer data generated around the key themes. Interviews were requested by an email sent to the 80 clubs, who played in the EFL for the three seasons commencing 2015-16, subsequently, 21 commercial managers were interviewed by telephone and email. The semi-structured interviews covered four themes that were derived from the literature on brand extensions by sports clubs namely: stadium use (Pritchard, 2016), partners worked with in the production of product lines (Manoli & Hodgkinson, 2017), the geographical markets covered (Couvellaere & Richelieu, 2005) and expertise resulting from developing additional product lines (self-developed).

The major findings were that like cricket clubs they have diversified into areas unrelated to sport and developed expertise in using the resource of the stadium to provide a portfolio of

products that target different markets to sports fans. Most of these products lines are aimed at B2B and B2C markets in close proximity to the stadium (e.g. conferences, social events and private parties). Working with partners (e.g. concert promoters and caterers) to provide products and services is commonplace (e.g. musical concerts and weddings). This has led to the development of capabilities in areas unrelated to staging sporting matches, such as conferencing, funerals and weddings. To extend their geographical reach they use internal marketing by local organizations (word-of-mouth advertising), agents and the governing body the EFL. However, as with cricket restrictions are placed on clubs by the need to produce the core product (e.g. the pitch needs time to prepare matches meaning it is out of bounds for events such as weddings for most of the season). We argue in the paper for PSCs to be re-defined more broadly as producers of an event as opposed to producers of “a series of league games” (Mason, 1999, p. 404), to reflect the range of products they market (objective three).


## Using brand architecture to position product lines in markets: Output five

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### Building a brand portfolio: the case of English Football League (EFL) clubs

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#### ABSTRACT

**Research question:** Professional sports clubs (PSCs) may diversify by marketing a range of products that extend beyond sport. Using brand architecture as a framework, the research aims to examine: the brand names they adopt, markets they serve and the hierarchical relationship between the leagues and PSCs in the branding of the product ranges of both organizations.

**Research methods:** Set within the context of the English Football League (EFL), club websites were reviewed to examine brand names that are used when marketing activities unrelated to sport. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the commercial staff of 21 PSCs relating to their branding strategy.

**Results and findings:** Leagues and PSCs may market a number of brands in addition to their core products of sporting competitions and teams. EFL clubs have developed brands independently of the league, primarily by branding their stadiums as a multi-purpose venue to stage events not related to matches. Within their venues they have also developed a category we term 'stadium sub-brands'. These include business clubs, comedy clubs and restaurants. Some of these services are co-branded with partner organizations.

**Implications:** Devising a typology of the brand architecture of EFL clubs illustrates how sports organizations can diversify into markets other than football and add to their product portfolio by making use of their resources, in particular their stadium.

#### ARTICLE HISTORY

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#### KEYWORDS

Branding; brand architecture; sports stadiums; non-match events; professional sports clubs (PSCs)

The fifth output **Buildings a brand portfolio: The case of English Football League (EFL) clubs** used the same context and data from the interviews that were conducted for output four, co-author roles were similar. Whereas output four focused on products added and expertise developed this paper examines how the portfolio of products are branded by PSCs and leagues within their portfolio (objective five). The paper uses the construct of brand architecture, a framework that is used to examine the different brand names and logos used in marketing an organizations product portfolio (Aaker & Joachimsthaler, 2000). The construct had been previously used in a sporting context, but with a focus on the branding relationship between leagues, teams and players. It highlights that although clubs are sub-brands of leagues, brands in teams sport are developed through the combined efforts of leagues, clubs and players. (Kunkel & Biscaia 2020; Kunkel et al., 2014, 2017). However, the work cited

above does not incorporate product lines with a low perceived fit to sport, such as stadium brands. The major findings of our research in terms of their branding approach are that the EFL use their brand name on both sporting competitions and CSR initiatives. League regulations mean that clubs have an obligation to establish Trusts to administer CSR initiatives in their local area, although they are legally separate to the club, see figure 3 p. 73. The brand names and logos used by these trusts highlight the link to an individual PSC. There are similarities to tourism resorts (objective four) in that there is a master and sub-brand relationship with the marketing and branding strategies of both resorts and PSCs being influenced by governing bodies (national agencies for resorts, leagues for clubs).

Product lines unrelated to football are developed independently of the league (e.g. stadiums) by the PSCs, although the brand/name logos most organizations use suggest a link to the PSC. Using brand architecture allows PSCs to develop a portfolio of brand and diversify by positioning different product lines in a range of markets (e.g. stadiums in the B2C and B2B markets targeting non-sport consumers). This is evidenced by the developing of a category of brands we term ‘stadium sub-brands’, these operate within a stadium but are unlikely to exist without it (e.g. business clubs, function rooms and restaurants) (objective five). What is also evident is their ability to co-brand these products with partner organizations, endorsing the work with partners (outputs three and four) but in partnerships for products that do not target sports fans (Motion et al., 2003).

## Comparing and contrasting additions by PSCs and resorts: Output six

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### EVALUATING TOURIST ATTRACTIONS: THE CASE OF LUANG PRABANG, LAOS

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This article proposes the amalgamation of the categorization of attractions model (COA), the tourism area life cycle model, and the resort development model as a useful approach to audit a tourism destination's portfolio of attractions and to aid in the planning process. The main tourist area of the Luang Prabang Province, Laos, was used as a case study to test the usefulness of combining the three models for a better analysis. Four categories—natural, cultural, contemporary, and future—were examined. The study revealed the country to be in the development stage of tourism, although Luang Prabang Province shows some of the characteristics of an international destination. The audit identified planned developments that could lead to the portfolio becoming unaligned with the nation's tourism strategy. The process also revealed the existence and the potential for subgroups of attractions, termed associated attractions, which, in this case, emerge from natural and cultural attractions, but that are unlikely to exist without them. The study provides valuable information by investigating significant issues in tourism development particularly in an emerging market country.

Key words: Categorization of attractions (COA); Product portfolio; Resort development spectrum (RDS); Tourism area life cycle (TALC); Destination marketing

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The 2011 journal article ‘**Evaluating tourist attractions: The case of Luang Prabang, Laos**’ represents a diversion from sport. Unlike the other outputs this is set in the context of a tourism resort, as the candidate was based in South East Asia during the period the article was developed. This led to discussions with Timothy Lee following a tourism conference in Macau and he was involved in the editing of the paper. However, in common with the other outputs it focuses on the product portfolio being marketed.

There are a number of similarities between the product ranges of PSCs and resorts (objective four), that justify comparing resorts and PSCs namely:

- Both are situated geographically within a larger master brand that they cannot be separated from. Tourism resorts are sub-brands of a national brand (Dooley & Bowie, 2005) and PSCs are sub-brands of a league (Kunkel et al., 2014).
- Product line additions are constrained by organizations' history and heritage. In sport it is as a team playing sport (Giroux et al., 2017) and in tourism by their natural and cultural attractions (Agarwal, 2006).
- Product lines in both sport and tourism are often developed with partner organizations, who provide specialist skills and services (Horbel et al., 2016; Prideaux, 2000; Lee & Walsh, 2011).
- Additional product lines need to be strategically aligned with an organization's original product lines (Cooper et al., 1999).
- Both tourism and sport can also be viewed from a marketing perspective as being in the entertainment industry and satisfying the need for hedonistic entertainment (Kim et al., 2019).

In addition, the study of tourism is a longer established academic discipline, scholarly activity in the field of product portfolios dates back to the 1980s before the leading sports journals were established, see table 2. p. 20. Butler (1980) acknowledge that resorts, like generic products, have a life cycle devising the tourism area life cycle (TALC), although other authors contend that destinations can be rejuvenated by new attractions (Agarwal, 2006). Prideaux (2000) developed the resort development spectrum (RDS) to emphasise the importance of infrastructure in moving a resort through a series of phases that would take it from a local to international resort. However, although the TALC model is used widely in the tourism literature it does not focus how the product mix can be changed to influence the direction of the life cycle. Little work had investigated the product components that make up



the resort and that could influence the direction of growth. The candidate sought to develop a model in the context of Luang Prabang. This resort was selected as it is the county's major attraction but like the PSCs discussed above it does not have the resources of its richer rivals, in this case neighbouring countries in South East Asia, and is more dependent on local tourists. Analysis of a range of secondary sources covering visitor number and tourism reports led to the development of the categories of attraction (COA) model that proposes the development of contemporary attractions to attract new market segments and encourage visitors to stay longer. The COA model outlined four categories: natural, cultural, contemporary and future as well as highlighting the importance of 'associated attractions' that are developed from the natural and cultural attractions. The work also highlights the need to work with other organizations in the production of products.

## Examining consumer preferences of product lines within sport: Output seven

*Leisure Studies*, 2014  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/02614367.2014.962584>



### **Leisure consumption in cricket: devising a model to contrast forms and time preferences**

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A large body of research exists on the motivation to follow sporting and leisure events. However, the main focus of these studies has been on those who attend events (direct consumers). Little research has extended the investigation of sporting and leisure consumption to include those who consume sport by other means such as the media (indirect consumers) and their scheduling preferences. With the growth of indirect consumption and its importance from both a finance and marketing perspective, this is an area of increasing interest in sports and leisure management. The purpose of this paper is to examine the consumption of sport in the UK and time and form preferences of spectators. We develop and validate a four-dimensional model to measure spectators' consumption, empirically testing it using 632 questionnaires in the context of cricket. Our findings show that although there was a stronger preference for direct consumption, there was a greater engagement in indirect consumption forms. A number of these activities, such as following the sport on the Internet are peripheral to the actual game and complement consumption of the match. A further finding of the research was that weekend consumption was most favoured by those who were more involved in the sport as club members. They expressed a stronger preference for Friday evening and Sunday scheduling for two different competitions.

**Keywords:** consumption behaviour; leisure consumption; direct and indirect consumption; model development

The seventh output, '**Examining the nature of leisure consumption: Contrasting forms and time preferences**' investigates consumption preferences of product lines within sport.

The paper adds to the thesis by examining the nature of consumption of a sport over the course of a sporting season (objective six) and time and format preferences. Previous research had focused on the motives to attend sporting events, little research at the time had incorporated those who follow sport via the media. I wrote most of the paper but Husni Kharouf undertook the statistical analysis and commented on the content. The article was continuously revised by both authors. From a marketing perspective the study of consumption is important because if one can identify the needs of consumers of a PSC then it is likely to help in devising product lines that satisfy those needs, both sports and non-sport

related. For instance, socialization has long been accepted as a reason to attend sporting events (Trail et al., 2000) and PSCs may be able to develop other product lines to fulfil socialization needs (e.g. private parties).

The context used was cricket in England/Wales as previous research had suggested that although there was interest in the sport, many of those interested in the sport did not actually attend matches. It investigates the manner in which members of the Cricket Supporters Association (CSA) follow the sport over the course of a season, using a questionnaire that was emailed to members of this organization, a sample of 632 respondents was obtained. Respondents also placed a link to the survey on other sporting websites. The main finding, (objective six) is that although attending games is the preferred method of consumption respondents engage more in indirect forms. This is defined as action that does not occur during an event (Madrigal, 2006), such as visiting websites consuming media and talking about sport with friends. There is a preference for weekend consumption and socialising was an important issue in consumption. Respondents invest in membership then have a planned schedule based on tradition and constraints. Peripheral activities (e.g. viewing websites) do provide more opportunities to become involved in a sport. Constraints did not seem to have an impact in the short term on preferences. Although the paper cautioned that this might not be the case in the long term.

## **7.1. Reflecting on the links between the outputs**

This section explains the way in which the outputs are linked together, and the objectives achieved, it is tabulated below in table 7. In terms of the objectives stated on page 38, the research highlights the importance of income in sport from product lines with a low perceived fit to sport matches and the way in which PSCs diversify. Output one illustrated that though the addition of new lines within sport may help finances, diversification is likely to be necessary unless investment can be generated from club owners, commercial partners and broadcasters (output two). Output three quantifies the importance of income that is unrelated to sports matches by modelling the sources of income within a sport over the course of a season.

In terms of the skills developed by PSCs it is evident from the research (outputs three, four and five) that they transfer the skills used in the production of matches to a different context (e.g. conferences and events). Although there is a low perceived fit to sport (Papadimitriou, et al., 2004) there is a fit to the resources involved in the production and organization of matches. The results of this investigation develop the work of Mason (1999) who defines PSCs as providers of games. Although these are organizations that primarily exist to play sport, matches form part of a product portfolio. To explain this portfolio a typology was developed to categorize the product portfolio and build on previous work (Apostolopoulou, 2002) by incorporating products that had been identified in the literature but never investigated in detail (output three).

This was also done in the context of a tourism resort (output six) because of the similarities between the two contexts. These similarities include: the hedonistic nature of the purchase; consumer perception being influenced by their original product ranges, the need to align product line additions with initial product lines (natural resources in the case of tourism resorts and the staging of sporting events in the case of PSCs); the influence of a governing

body (national tourist bodies in the case of tourism and leagues in the case of PSCs).

Working with partners to develop product lines is also common in both contexts. In order to market a portfolio successfully branding is important to develop perceptions of product lines in consumers' minds, a process aided by the use of brand architecture (output five). A conceptual model is devised to explain the use of brand architecture in sport; and how branding can be used to aid diversification into other markets.

The work discussed above considers the portfolio from an organizational perspective. An understanding of consumers needs is important from a marketing perspective because it can help PSCs develop and market new product lines successfully to help satisfy those needs. Output seven investigates product line consumption, identifying socialization as an important need in attending matches. Live sport is the preferred mode, as opposed to watching matches outside of the ground, indicating that consumers like visiting sports stadiums. Scheduling of sports matches and constraints such as the time needed to watch a match are also identified as factors in deciding to consume sport. These are factors that need to be considered in marketing non-sport product lines, as an understanding of these issues can be used to attract sports customers more often to stadiums in order to consume other product lines. In sports in which there is a long 'off season' (cricket in England and Wales is only played for six months of the year) these products can strengthen the attachment of consumers to the club as well as generating additional income. This can be done by marketing products lines that have a low perceived fit to sport but a perceived fit to a consumer's needs (e.g. private parties/social events to fulfil the need of socialization).

**Table 7. Summary of objectives and findings**

<b>Objectives</b>	<b>Findings</b>	<b>Output number</b>
To assess the addition of new product lines within sport.	Success factors identified and the importance of timing and weather. The role of organizational structure in attracting investment from commercial organizations and broadcasters highlighted.	1 2
To model the income streams of PSCs over the course of a season in English/Welsh cricket in order to quantify the importance of income unrelated to sport.	Importance of income unrelated to sport quantified. PSCs utilize the facilities by diversify by offering product lines with a low perceived fit to sport.	3
To analyse the expertise that has been developed by PSCs in adopting a portfolio approach to product management and its impact on the definition of PSCs as providers of “a series of games” (Mason, 1999, p. 404).	PSCs have added additional product lines unrelated to sport. Matches form part of a portfolio of events offered. Working with partners to stage events is commonplace.	3,4,5
To compare and contrast the approaches adopted in PSCs and tourism resorts in their product strategy.	Similarities in that clubs and resorts are sub-brands of larger organizations (leagues and national tourism board). Additional product lines need to be aligned to the heritage of their original product range.	5,6
To analyse the use of brand architecture in both sport and tourism as a marketing tool in aiding diversification.	Different brand names used to position product lines in different markets. However, perception of both PSCs and resorts is influenced by their historical lines (sport and natural resources).	5,6
To analyse the consumption of supporters of English/Welsh domestic cricket over the course of a season.	A preference for attending matches, socialization and timing are important in consumption. Constraints do not have an effect on sporting preferences in the short term.	7

## **8.0 An overview of the contribution to knowledge, theory and methodology in the area of sport management**

The contribution of the research lies in the area of sports finance, product portfolios and brand architecture. It became clear over the course of the research that for a number of PSCs income from sport alone is insufficient for commercial viability and there is a need to diversify. The originality of the work lies its contribution to increasing knowledge in the area of product line additions and the use of brand architecture to position products within a market. The contribution is discussed below in the following three sub-sections: knowledge, theory and methodology.

### **8.1 Contribution to knowledge**

The work advances knowledge in the areas of sport marketing and sport finance by analysing in detail the product portfolio offered by PSCs. It identifies key factors in the development of new product lines in sport (output one), endorsing the importance of organizational factors in helping generate investment (output two). However, the main crux of the argument presented throughout the work is the need to diversify because for many PSCs income from sport is limited by a lack of interest from both B2C and B2B markets. This is quantified by developing previous work in the area of income by modelling the sources and flow of income in sport over the course of a financial year, in the context of England and Wales cricket. The analysis of income streams highlights the importance of developing product lines, unrelated to matches in order to maintain professional sporting status; and the importance of a governing body in marketing broadcasting and sponsorship rights (outputs two and three). Practically all of the organizations studied use their stadium to develop a range of products that target other markets (e.g. conference and events, private parties) (outputs three, four and

five). Venues were also used to develop a category of product lines we name ‘stadium sub-brands’, these utilize parts of the stadium and are unlikely to exist without the venue.

However, both the generic and sporting literature observe diversification is not without risk (Walsh & Ross, 2012; Walsh et al. 2010). During an interview for output three a commercial director said that the club had made heavy losses when they diversified into staging musical events and this had impacted on their playing budget. Since then, they have learnt that the best approach for them in staging events, that are not related to cricket, is to work with concert promoters who provide specialist marketing skills in order to reduce the financial risk. This is consistent with previous research observing that product lines within the sports industry are often produced with partners in a process of co-creation of value (Horbel et al., 2016; Tsiotsou, 2016) for the benefit of all parts involved. Yet the work presented here observes that co-creation extends beyond staging sporting events into other areas. For instance one of the PSCs described how they had used their facilities to enter the Asian wedding market; and how that after initial problems in entering this market they found that they need to work with specialist caterers and wedding planners in order to provide a high level of service to consumers (output four). Output seven endorses the need of socialization in sports consumption, subsequent research has highlighted the importance of consumer-to-consumer interaction and aesthetic scenery as being important to consumers in the consumption of sporting events (Kim et al., 2019). The argument made here is that these needs should be considered when PSCs design product lines with a low perceived fit to sport.

The research concurs with previous work (Andreff & Staudohar, 2000; Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005; Moore & Levermore, 2012) that there is a marked difference between PSCs in sport. This in essence boils down to those who play in leagues that can generate investment



globally from team owners broadcasting and sponsorship and those who cannot. The five and four leagues provide an example of the former, as does the IPL (see output two). The EFL and the leagues the cricket counties play in the latter. The research here extends the academic discourse by analysing the addition of product lines with a low perceived fit to sport. These product lines are important because without them PSCs may not be able to operate professionally. At the time of writing the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic is still being felt as PSCs can no longer generate income from match attendees placing the existence of a number of EFL clubs under threat (Wilson et al., 2020). This means that although these organizations main aim is to provide professional sports matches, their product portfolio extends beyond this with facilities being utilized to diversify into other markets and offer non-core products. This is illustrated below in figure 3

**Figure 3. The product/service portfolio of the county cricket teams (Pritchard, 2016 p. 28) (output three)**

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**Sources:** Annual accounts, interviews, county websites

What also emerges, consistent with previous research, is that income is largely generated in a cricket club's local geographical area (Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005). This applies to product lines such as events and CSR activities as well as core lines. A recurring theme that emerges is of PSCs being very flexible in the range of products with a low perceived fit to sport being offered. These are often developed in partnership with other local organizations (e.g. business clubs, caterers and entertainment agencies), targeting both the B2C and B2B markets.

A problem faced by PSCs and tourism resorts in developing product lines is that consumers' perception is likely to be influenced by their cognition of these organization's product lines, that are likely to be long established. Changing perception of an organization within the

sports industry is likely to be difficult because of a club's history and limited resources (Giroux et al., 2017). Nevertheless, many of the PSCs studied had attempted to capitalize on their sporting heritage in the development of brands with a low perceived fit to sport. The term 'stadium sub-brand' is coined to describe brands that are located within a stadium and unlikely to exist without it (e.g. spaces to stage private events). When developing these brands clubs and often co-brand with partners, who provide specialist help, in the production of events (e.g. comedy clubs, weddings and funerals).

The flexibility in their approach together with their ability to network with other organizations, particularly those based locally, provide lessons to other small businesses in both product and market development (Spence & Essoussi, 2010). They illustrate how resources can be utilized to reduce reliance on a limited number of product lines with limited interest. By transferring expertise from one area (e.g. staging sporting events) to other more general areas (e.g. staging events) and utilizing their resources they increase their customer base. PSCs also reduce the financial risk and investment required in attempting to develop new products by working with partners (e.g. music concerts). This has manifested itself in co-branding that helps in competing against established competitors in the events market and attempting to carve out a market niche for a club. In a PSC context it also may help when a team is not doing well on the field, in effect reducing the reliance on sports related product lines, such as match attendance and merchandise. One respondent made the point that though they had done well in the past few years on the field, when the team had not performed as well, and attendance income had fallen engaging with the local community had helped them survive (outputs four and five). What is also noticeable is that when a club invests in the facilities within their stadium, they seek to target a wider geographical market.

## **8.2 Contribution to theory**

The work contributions to the development of theory in the field of sport marketing in terms of the sources of income of PSC, the product lines offered, and the branding approach adopted. In terms of what PSCs market, the research developed previous typologies of product lines (Apostolopoulou, 2002) to incorporate items unrelated to sport that utilize the facilities of PSCs, see figure 3 above. Acknowledging the existence of a portfolio approach leads to a revision of the work of Mason (1999) in that matches only form part of the portfolio. PSCs should define themselves more broadly as producers of events, satisfying the requirements of consumers in this area.

Whereas sports marketing concerns itself with the marketing of a match and products associated with the match (e.g. merchandise), product lines unrelated to sport are marketed in a more conventional manner. The product (the event) is configured by using the stadium to satisfy a requirement (e.g. interaction for social or business purposes). There is also limited involvement by governing bodies, leagues, in the production of products unrelated to sport and co-operation between PSCs (Woratschek et al., 2014). Clubs are free to diversify as they wish as long as it does not interfere with league obligations. This has implications in terms of marketing and branding non- sporting lines. If PSCs are to diversify and enter new markets, then branding is important in differentiating their products from those of their competitors. This is illustrated below in figure 4, which shows how brand architecture can be used in sport by both clubs and leagues. However, the non-core items can to some extent be regarded as a by-product of the production of sport, in that they are part of the “material resources” (Chelladurai, 1994, p. 15) needed to produce a match, without sport they are unlikely to exist. This relationship distinguishes sport marketing from generic marketing (Cunningham, 2013; Doherty, 2013) although there are similarities with tourist resources where additional products lines need to be aligned to original attractions (Cooper et al., 1999).

**Figure 4. Brand architecture amongst professional sports clubs (Pritchard et al. forthcoming) (output five)**

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### **8.3 Contribution to methodology**

The outputs mainly adopt a mixed-methods approach combining quantitative measures (e.g. annual revenue) with semi-structured interviews. At the time of publication interviews with commercial managers of PSCs outside the five and four group was not widespread in the field of sport marketing. Incorporating the views of industry experts from PSCs outside of the leading leagues closes the academic-practitioner gap and highlights the differences in the day-to-day operations of these organizations. Access to this group is also challenging because

these organizations also employ a limited number of staff to act as potential respondents (Manoli, 2020).

Output three also adopts a case study approach which is not unknown in research into professional sports teams (e.g. Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005; Motion et al., 2003), but has usually only covered a handful of clubs and not incorporated financial data. Adopting this approach allows for the use of multiple sources of evidence and is regarded as appropriate when dealing with practitioners and real management situations (Yin, 2014). In this instance it combines quantitative information (a review of the accounts of all 18 PSCs and the governing body) that provides a census of organizations as opposed to a sample, together with semi-structured interviews. It is carried out with, and deals with practitioners (Gibbert, et al., 2008), in order to illuminate a set of decisions, their implementation and result (Schramm, 1971). A criticism of case study research is the ability to generalize. However, the author would argue that the research findings are not just specific to cricket but also to other sports where income from broadcasters and sponsors is limited, i.e. those outside the five and four group (Moore & Levermore, 2012; Wilson & Plumley, 2017; Wilson et al., 2017).

Output seven used a survey to a database comprising users of a website, which is common in sport research (Oddy & Bason, 2017). What emerged shortly after the survey was released was that a number of people who saw the survey placed a link to it on other sports forums. This helps promote a survey and highlights that gaining respondents in sports surveys may not be as difficult as more generic surveys. However, although it increases the response rate it does raise questions as to how representative the sample may be (Bryman et al., 2019). One of the problems of snowball sampling highlighted is that it is likely to include those who are highly engaged and may overlook the more casual supporter (Pritchard & Kharouf, 2014).

#### **8.4 Generalisability of the findings**

The research has been mainly conducted in the context of two professional team sports, cricket and football in one country, the UK. This may raise questions as to how applicable the findings are to other sports and contexts. In terms of other sports, the author argues that the findings are likely to be applicable where the inputs used to produce a sport (Chelladurai, 1994) can be used to produce other products with a low perceived fit to sport. An example of the research extending into individual as opposed to team sports is provided by horse racing tracks in the UK being used to stage music concerts (Lea, 2019). An example from other countries is provided by Minor League Baseball (MiLB) stadiums in the USA staging both corporate and social events (Lee et al., 2015). It is accepted though that adding product lines is dependent on a sporting organizations ability to adapt the stadium. Arenas in sports such as ice hockey and basketball that tend to have smaller capacity might be harder to adapt. An additional constraint is stadium ownership, as some clubs may only have the right to use the venue to stage sports matches.

In terms of extending the findings to non-sporting contexts and/or other forms of entertainment. I would argue, despite providing any empirical evidence, that it is possible that the work presented here could be adapted to be used in other hedonistic contexts. This can be done by examining if inputs that are used to provide sports and other forms of entertainment can be used to produce other products and diversify into other markets. Bond et al. (2020) argue that as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic and the restrictions imposed on attendances, at sporting events, clubs need to be more creative in leveraging their assets. Using the technology involved in the production of sports matches is proposed as a way to do this. A future line of enquiry in the leveraging of technological assets could be to investigate if booking systems that are used in producing a form of entertainment (e.g. theatre plays and

sports matches) can be used to produce other products that allocate individuals to spaces (e.g. medical appointments) and how these products could be branded.

## **9.0 An independent assessment of contribution**

Citations of the candidate's work are included below and divided into two areas: sport and tourism at the time of writing (1 October 2020). A more recent version can be found at

<https://scholar.google.com/citations?user=3ZK3mj4AAAAJ&hl=en>

### **Sport related**

Karg, A., McDonald, H., & Leckie, C. (2019). Channel preferences among sport consumers: Profiling media-dominant consumers. *Journal of Sport Management*, 33(4), 303-316.

Kler, B. (2016). The world's toughest mountain race: Key success factors of 25 years of the Mount Kinabalu International Climbathon. *International Journal of Event and Festival Management*, 7(2), 117-136.

Martin, F.V., Toledo, L.D., & Palos-Sanchez, P. (2020). How deep is your love? Brand love analysis applied to football teams. *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, forthcoming.

Mason, D.S. (2016). The sport product. In G.B. Cunningham, J.S. Fink, & A. Doherty, A. (Eds.). *Routledge handbook of theory in sport management* (pp. 286-295). Oxon, UK: Routledge.



Oddy, R., & Bason, T. (2017). The first century and beyond; A content analysis of sport, Business and Management: An international Journal. *Sport, Business and Management: An International Journal*, 7(4), 444-458.

Paul, R., Weinbach, A., & Riccardi, N. (2019). Attendance in the Canadian Hockey League: The Impact of Winning, Fighting, Uncertainty of Outcome, and Weather on Junior Hockey Attendance. *International Journal of Financial Studies*. 7(1), paper 12.

Plumley, D., Wilson, R., Millar, R., & Shibli, S. (2019). Howzat? The Financial Health of English Cricket: Not Out, Yet. *International Journal of Financial Studies*, 7(1), paper 11.

Tiago, T., Tiago, F., Faria, S.D., & Couto, J.P. (2016). Who is the better player? Off-field battle on Facebook and Twitter. *Business Horizons*, 59(2) 175-183.

### **Tourism journals**

Coenders, G. & Ferrer-Rosell, B. (2020). Compositional data analysis in tourism: Review and future directions, *Tourism Analysis*, 25(1), 153-168.

Kyophilavong, P., Gallup, J., Charoenrat, T., & Nozaki, K. (2018). Testing tourism-led growth hypothesis in Laos? *Tourism Review*, 73(2), 242-251.

Leask, A. (2016). Visitor attraction management: A critical review of research 2009-2014. *Tourism Management*, 57, December, 334-361.

## **10. Conclusion and claim for PhD equivalence**

The work presented in this document explains the origins, development, research design, finding and contributions to knowledge into the product portfolio offered by PSCs in sport marketing. Doherty (2013, p. 5) posts that the strength of an academic discipline lies in its ability to “provide a distinct body of knowledge not covered by another discipline”.

The candidate’s contribution to knowledge lies in the development of three models that:

1. Analyse the flow of income within a sport, quantifying the importance of additional product lines with a low perceived fit to sport.
2. Provide a typology to categorize the range of products offered by PSCs, incorporating product lines that represent a diversification form sports matches and utilize the facilities of the stadium.
3. Develop a typology to describe the use of brand architecture by both sports leagues and the clubs that play in them to market the product lines within their portfolio.

The candidate argues that the work is worthy of the award for a PhD because the collection of work presented here: indicate an ability to independently conduct a major piece of research and provide a detailed body of relevant academic knowledge in sport management. The work advances the subject in three areas of sport marketing: sources of income (this fits within the area of both marketing metrics/measurement and sports finance), product management and brand architecture. This development in knowledge is achieved by investigating the importance of product lines with a low perceived fit to sport (Abosag et al., 2012; Lee, et al., 2015; Papadimitriou et al., 2004). The incorporation of these products builds on existing theories concerning income streams (Andreff & Staudohar (2000), product portfolios (Apostolopoulou, 2002) and brand architecture (Kunkel et al., 2014, 2017). The degree of originality is evidenced by publication in refereed sport and tourism journals (see table 1, p. 8). It also lays the groundwork for future research which is discussed below.

## **11.0 Research limitations and Future research**

The main focus of the research is on the supply of products, from an organizational perspective, although output seven investigated products from a consumer perspective. It is intended that the research on consumption is extended as continual developments in technology mean that the broadcasting of sporting contests is changing; and a hierarchy of consumption may exist with live sport at the top. Socialization is viewed as important (see output seven), but what would be of interest in terms of consumption is to see how fans of a PSC consume product lines with a low perceived fit to sport. Anecdotal evidence from the interviews suggested there was overlap (e.g. fans using the venue for private parties) but the research into this type of consumption is limited. Does encouraging fans to use the stadium for events unrelated to sport improve their perception of both club and team?

Over the course of the writing of this article the Covid-19 pandemic has had a very negative impact on the finances of PSCs in the UK as they have been unable to admit fans to attend matches (Wilson et al., 2020). The lack of income from matchday attendances may lead to more clubs having to diversify to remain solvent. This does though present opportunities for PSCs to use their venues because they have the benefit of large spaces and in many instances parking facilities, which may aid social distancing in the staging of events. The response of PSCs to the pandemic may provide a fertile ground for researchers

The role of leagues in portfolio management is also worthy of investigation. In terms of products lines with a low perceived fit to sport clubs operate on their own, unlike core sporting products there is little evidence of cooptiton between clubs and the league in business development in these areas (Woratschek et al., 2014). However, PSCs may benefit from league involvement, as the league have greater resources, and are used to dealing with organizations on a nationwide basis (e.g. negotiating broadcasting and sponsorship agreements). However, in the interviews (outputs three, four and five) a number of

respondents pointed out that imposing product lines (e.g. health centres) is unlikely to be well received as all clubs operate in different markets with different customer requirements.

There is also scoped to examine how professional sports clubs interact with organizations in the B2B market and the manner of this relationship. The research above identifies that clubs work in the B2B markets staging events both with and for other organizations. Yet little research has investigated why organizations choose to use the facilities of PSCs; the attractiveness of the venue (green spaces), car parking and novelty of the setting were suggested. Discussions have also been held via email with academics in America about examining the fit of multi-purpose sporting venues to events.

## 12. 0 Errata / clarifications

Upon reflection there are some terms that I would have changed within the articles

- Joint ventures (output three). This term was used but upon reflection partnerships /networking is more relevant. Within the strategy literature joint venture implies a formal agreement and close co-operation over a long time period and possibly the setting up a new legal entity. Some of the ventures discussed above (e.g. comedy clubs, concerts) are far less formal and may be ad hoc events.
- Professional sports clubs (PSC). This is the term I have used throughout this work. Some of the papers use the term professional sports teams (PST). I offer the excuse that at the outset of the research the two could be used interchangeably as cricket clubs have one team only. However, as the research progressed it was clear that in mainland Europe this is often not the case (e.g. FC Barcelona in Spain operate teams in basketball, football and handball amongst other sports). In the UK Bristol City have added a rugby union club and basketball franchise to their football team. The terms used are discussed in more detail in output five.
- The term franchise is used when discussing North American sporting organizations as in this context the terms team and club are not used.

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