



A Sponsor's Perspective on the Swedish Sports Movement



FoU-rapporter

- 2004:1 Ätstörningar – en kunskapsöversikt (Christian Carlsson)
- 2004:2 Kostnader för idrott – en studie om kostnader för barns idrottande 2003
- 2004:3 Varför lämnar ungdomar idrotten (Mats Franzén, Tomas Peterson)
- 2004:4 IT-användning inom idrotten (Erik Lundmark, Alf Westelius)
- 2004:5 Svenskarnas idrottsvanor – en studie av svenska folkets tävlings- och motionsvanor 2003
- 2004:6 Idrotten i den ideella sektorn – en kunskapsöversikt (Johan R Norberg)
- 2004:7 Den goda barnidrotten – föräldrar om barns idrottande (Staffan Karp)
- 2004:8 Föräldraengagemang i barns idrottsföreningar (Göran Patriksson, Stefan Wagnsson)
- 2005:1 Doping- och antidopingforskning
- 2005:2 Kvinnor och män inom idrotten 2004
- 2005:3 Idrottens föreningar - en studie om idrottsföreningarnas situation
- 2005:4 Toppningsstudien - en kvalitativ analys av barn och ledares uppfattningar av hur lag konstitueras inom barnidrott (Eva-Carin Lindgren, Hansi Hinic)
- 2005:5 Idrottens sociala betydelse - en statistisk undersökning hösten 2004
- 2005:6 Ungdomars tävlings- och motionsvanor - en statistisk undersökning våren 2005
- 2005:7 Inkilning inom idrottsrörelsen - en kvalitativ studie
- 2006:1 Lärande och erfarenheters värde (Per Gerrevall, Samantha Carlsson och Ylva Nilsson)
- 2006:2 Regler och tävlingssystem (Bo Carlsson, Kristin Fransson)
- 2006:3 Fysisk aktivitet på Recept (FaR) (Annika Mellquist)
- 2006:4 Nya perspektiv på riksidrottsgymnasierna (Maja Uebel)
- 2006:5 Kvinnor och män inom idrotten 2005
- 2006:6 Utvärdering av den idrottspsykologiska profilen - IPS-profilen (Göran Kenttä, Peter Hassmén och Carolina Lundqvist)
- 2006:7 Vägen till elittränarskap (Sten Eriksson)
- 2006:8 Näridrott i skolmiljö (Björn Forsberg)
- 2006:9 Kartläggning av det idrottspsykologiska området med avseende på svensk elitidrott (Göran Kenttä)
- 2007:1 Idrotten Vill - en utvärdering av barn- och ungdomsidrotten (Lars-Magnus Engström, Johan R Norberg och Joakim Åkesson)
- 2007:2 Sexualisering av det offentliga rummet (Birgitta Fagrell, Jesper Fundberg, Kutte Jönsson, Håkan Larsson, Eva Olofsson och Helena Tolvhed)
- 2007:3 Det sociala ledarskapet (Martin Börjeson, Johan von Essen)
- 2007:4 Frivilligt arbete inom idrotten (Lars-Erik Olsson)
- 2007:5 Varumärkets betydelse inom idrotten (Anna Fyrberg, Sten Söderman)
- 2007:6 Analys av träningsstider inom föreningsidrotten - en studie av sju lagidrotter sett ur ett ålders- och könsperspektiv (Christian Augustsson, Göran Patriksson, Owe Stråhlman och Stefan Wangsson)
- 2007:7 Målstyrning och bidragsgivning inom svensk idrott (Johan Söderholm)
- 2007:8 Ekonomiska styrmedel inom ideella organisationer (Erik Lundmark, Alf Westelius)
- 2007:9 Näridrott i skolmiljö, etapp 2 (Josef Fahlén, Björn Forsberg)
- 2007:10 Doping - personlighet, motiv och moral i idrotten (Jesper Thiborg, Bo Carlsson)
- 2007:11 Eliten e' liten - men växer. Förändrade perspektiv på elitidrott (Mikael Lindfelt)
- 2008:1 Doping- och antidopingforskning - En inventering av samhälls- och beteendevetenskaplig forskning och publikationer 2004-2007 (David Hoff)
- 2008:2 Idrottens anläggningar – ägande, driftsförhållanden och dess effekter (Josef Fahlén, Paul Sjöblom)
- 2008:3 Idrottens roll i samhället II (Sara Sandström, Mats Nilsson)
- 2008:4 Vilka stannar kvar och varför? (Britta Thedin Jakobsson, Lars-Magnus Engström)
- 2008:5 Medlemskapet i den svenska idrottsrörelsen - En studie av medlemmar i fyra idrottsföreningar (Torbjörn Einarsson)
- 2008:7 Äldre en resurs för idrottsrörelsen (Margareta Johansson)
- 2008:8 Möjliga teknisklösningar för LOK-stöd, SISU verksamhet och antidoping (Kenneth Olausson, Stewe Gårdare, Torbjörn Johansson, Mikael Wiberg, Oskar Juhlin)
- 2009:1 Kunskapsöversikt: Styrketräning för barn och ungdom (Michail Tonkonogi)
- 2009:2 Kunskapsöversikt: Kost- och näringslära inom idrotten (Eva Blomstrand och William Apró)
- 2009:3 Varumärkets betydelse inom idrottsrörelsen – ett sponsorperspektiv (Anna Fyrberg och Sten Söderman)
- 2009:3 A Sponsor's Perspective on the Swedish Sports Movement (Anna Fyrberg och Sten Söderman)



Rapporterna kan beställas från Riksidrottsförbundets kundtjänst – kundtjanst@rf.se

Business values the brand of sports

The sports movement is active in a market where 2008 investments by Swedish sponsors amounted to 5,1 billion SEK. This figure has increased since 2007 and it is expected to increase further. The sports industry is perceived as solid in terms of investors seeing new opportunities and the possibility for returns on their investments.

The choice of the sponsor is based on several factors and increasingly similar to other investments carried out by the company. This means that valuations are assessed in a more traditional manner and sponsorship increasingly integrated into the corporate strategy. To a greater extent, the sports movement must be well prepared for meetings with sponsors and other partners. This includes formulating what the movement stands for in terms of values, target groups and sets of offerings. This brings forth an important correlation to the rationale of an earlier report “*Varumärkets betydelse inom idrotten – RF:s FoU 2007:5*” (*The significance of the brand in sports*) by Fyrberg and Söderman and the relevance of active brand management as a way of creating long-term success. This highlights the purpose of this study, the direct follow-up to *The significance of the brand in sports*, while it follows the decision of the 2007 general assembly in increasing the revenue of sports from partners and sponsors.

Sports sponsorships normally tend to be based on a specific individual, where an athlete generates sponsorship opportunities as a personal brand. Another option is at an organizational level, where a specific association's brand generates the actual sponsorship. *Riksidrottsförbundet* aims at increasing the degree to which business evaluates sponsoring activities as part of its strategy, as well as increasing the awareness around the importance of continuously keeping the brand as a point of reference. This study aims at demonstrating the possibility for increased self-financing through thorough reflection, planning and long-term collaboration. It is our hope and belief that you will find this reading to be inspirational.

Riksidrottsförbundet
Idrottens hus, Stockholm
Oktober 2009

Camilla Hagman
Director Communication & Marketing

Max Lauritzson
Brand and Market Strategy

The study has been financed by Riksidrottsförbundet and carried out at Stockholm University School of Business. The authors are responsible for the content.

A Sponsor’s Perspective on the Swedish Sports Movement

by Anna Fyrberg and Sten Söderman

Table of contents

1 Introduction.....	3
2 The design of the study	4
3 Literature survey and the base for a framework	6
3.1 Sponsoring and branding in general.....	6
3.2 Sponsorship has been defined as a “cash and/or in-kind fee paid to a property”.....	6
3.3 Matching sponsor and event or event and sport.....	7
3.4 Some features of strategic alliance theory	7
3.5 Corporate branding and reputation	8
3.6 Legitimacy	11
3.7 Value co-creation	12
4 A first sponsor model – three rational motives for sponsoring.....	13
4.1 ROI.....	13
4.2 Tradition and Relationship building	15
4.3 Image.....	15
4.4 The sport organization revenue streams – subsidy in relation to sponsoring	17
5 A second sponsor sequential model.....	18
6 Conclusions.....	28
6.1 Insights on sponsoring by using the sponsor view.....	28
6.2 Some implications for sports organizations	31
7 Answering the questions	31
7.1 Reflections and suggestions	31
7.2 Future research	33
References:.....	34
Internet sources	37

Table of figures

Figure 1: The eleven corporations and their roles that are studied in this report.....	5
Figure 2: Corporate Reputation (Elliot and Percy 2007 adapted from Hatch and Schultz 2003).....	9
Figure 3: Stakeholder groups based on Dowling (2001)	12
Figure 4: Illustration of sponsee and sponsor connected by revenues and motives	18
Figure 5: The sponsee view I - service, experience and transfer (adapted from Normann, 1977)	20
Figure 6: Sponsee view II- initiates two driving forces and might create one conflict	22
Figure 7: Sponsee view III- to acquire and develop sponsors	23
Figure 8: Sponsor view I	24
Figure 9: Sponsor view II.....	25
Figure 10: Sponsor view III	26
Figure 11: The aggregate sponsor-sponsee view	27
Figure 12: Three typical situations.....	28

1 Introduction

Spending on branding activities and sponsoring (here seen as the same as sponsorship) actions has greatly increased in recent years. Despite the present world financial climate sponsoring is globally expected to increase by 3.9 percent by the year 2010 to \$44.8bn (Financial Times 14-15 February 2009). “Sport” dominates this allocation and will constitute 88 % of the total predicted sponsoring outlays.

An estimation of Swedish investments in sponsoring during the year 2008 amounted to approximately 5.1 billion SEK. Despite the financial crisis in the second quarter of 2008 investments in sponsoring increased by ca. 12 % compared with previous year. Further, sponsoring investments were larger than investments in TV-commercials (5.1 and 4.9 billion SEK respectively) according to the IRM institute.¹ In comparison the total amount invested in sponsoring in Sweden corresponds to investments made by the largest two sport sponsors Adidas and Nike. Adidas stands out as the leading sports sponsor by investing approximately 391 million dollars globally on sport naming right deals (around 3 billion SEK) followed by Nike – 231 million dollars (about 2 billion SEK).²

The acceleration in the growth of sports sponsorship is caused not only by global business complexity and media channel fragmentation, but also by the more sophisticated approach to sponsorship on the part of brands and sport properties. This has included improved measurement of the return on investment (ROI) for sports sponsorship across a wider range of objectives, better demographic research, increased flexibility, joint revenues and performance related contracts. The complexity of the global business environment has required enterprises to strengthen their brands and to strive to convey a strong, consistent and appropriate message to consumers, perception and experience. For numerous brands, sports sponsorship has become pivotal within their global marketing campaigns and is considered to be as important as traditional marketing strategies, if not more so. This also means that sport organizations carefully need to consider their values and associations since those are used in the marketing communication of commercial enterprises (see also Fyrberg and Söderman 2007).

The aims of this study can be expressed in the following three research questions:

1. In what way is sponsoring attractive for corporations?
2. How do corporations value possible sports sponsoring?
3. To what extent does the corporate brand formulate possible sports sponsoring?

¹ The information from IRM is published by Sponsor Insight, Insight news April 2009 <http://www.insightnews.se>. accessed 2009-06-05

² <http://www.idrottensaffarer.se/sponsring/2009/03/adidas-storst-inom-sponsring> and <http://www.idrottensaffarer.se/sponsring/2009/05/zlatans-val-nike-eller-adidas> accessed 2009-06-05

2 The design of the study

The focus in this study is on empirical research and on case studies relevant to Swedish conditions. It can directly be concluded that the availability of data is very limited and in some areas non-existent. Confidentiality agreements in this area of business are very strict and it is therefore difficult for an outsider to obtain information on deals made between a sponsor and a “sponsee”. A sponsee is here defined as an organization or an individual being sponsored. A comprehensive yet untested proposition is that sponsoring is not based on a rational basis. We have as far as possible, sought to identify sponsors with some contextual variation.

Therefore, the design of the study consists of three different approaches in order to cover the research questions. We have identified corporations with the following characteristics:

- I) Companies that sponsor sports today
- II) Companies that are potential sponsor partners to sports
- III) Companies that have decided to discontinue sports sponsoring

The following companies have been identified and analyzed during October 2008-June 2009 with a variety of study details, following one and the same questionnaire but varying in depth. One or several representatives of the organizations have been interviewed from Ericsson, Svenska Spel, ATG, Vattenfall, Disney, Volvo, TV4, BMW, H&M, Swedbank and VOR (Volvo Ocean Race). Four of the sponsors (Volvo, Ericsson, Svenska Spel and Swedbank) are shown to be the Swedish top-sponsors by investing almost 1 billion SEK into sports.³

³ http://www.sponsorworld.com/_project/_media/_doc/upload/Topp-50.pdf accessed 2009-06-03

	I) Companies that sponsors sports today	II) Companies that are potential sponsor partners to sports	III) Companies that have decided to discontinue sports sponsoring
Ericsson	Women tennis Sailing		
Svenska Spel	Swedish sports in general and locally sponsoring of ball sports in Visby		
ATG	Equestrian sports		
Vattenfall	Skiing		
Disney	Donald Duck tennis by license		Withdraw sponsoring by decision from top-management
Volvo	Sailing		Football decline Equestrian sport cancelled
TV4		Indoor hockey through joint-venture	
BMW	Stockholm Open STCC		
H&M	Equestrian sport		
Swedbank	Mainly Ski sports and sport arenas		
VOR	Volvo and partners: Ericsson, Adidas		

Figure 1: The eleven corporations and their roles that are studied in this report

The literature review consists of two main fields that will be described in the next section. Both streams include relevant theory to approach the research questions and emphasize not only sport and marketing but also organizational aspects.

1) *“Sport Sponsor Marketing theory”* (3.1- 3.4) focusing on the sport perspective

2) *“Corporate Branding and Reputation, value co-creation and legitimacy”* (3.5-3.7) reputation described from an organizational perspective

3 Literature survey and the base for a framework

3.1 Sponsoring and branding in general

Sponsorship has not only become an important emerging field of study, commensurate with its increasing significance in the field of marketing, including for many firms, but today is also a key element of an integrated marketing communication strategy in Sweden and the world over. “Sponsorship can be characterized as a promotional practice that has moved from its roots as a tool for corporate donations to a highly developed marketing discipline where both the sponsors (investors) and the sponsee (property) benefit in a marketing relationship” (Polonsky and Speed 2001, Soderman and Dolles 2008).

It needs to be considered that in most cases a long-term perspective has to be taken by sponsors (Crompton, 2004). In this sense sponsorship awareness, image or relational objectives are pursued in order to create a favorable environment for future sales. The measurement of media coverage, thought important in the earlier days of commercial sponsorship, is now largely discounted (Pope, 1998) since the extent of media coverage has been shown to have little impact on consumers’ attitudes and behavior towards a brand. Brand as a concept is defined in the literature in various ways but most often these are based on a traditional perspective, such as the definition made by de Chernatony and McDonald (1998): “A successful brand is an identifiable product, service, person or place, augmented in such a way that the buyer or user perceives relevant, unique added values, which match their needs most closely. Furthermore, its success results from being able to sustain these added values in the face of competition” (*ibid*, p. 20).

A further perspective views brands as culture and symbolic resources. Cultural codes constrain how brands produce meaning or how cultural rules create brand meanings (Elliott and Percy, 2007). Those brand meanings can be seen as symbolic resources through the construction of individual identity (e.g. Belk 1988, Fournier 1998). The individual actively construct himself/herself out of available symbolic materials (Thompson 1995). This means that consumers co-construct their own consumption experiences and as a result co-create unique value for themselves (Holbrook 2000, Prahalad and Ramaswamy 2003).

3.2 Sponsorship has been defined as a “cash and/or in-kind fee paid to a property”

Typically it is a sports, entertainment or non-profit event or organization in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with a specific property (International Events Group, 2000, p. 1).

Giving the global attention it should be added, that “sponsorship of the arts and or sporting events is an increasingly popular way of generating positive feelings about firms.” (Meenaghan, 1991, p. 36) Sponsoring thus occurs in several different contexts. On an individual level an athlete can cooperate with a sponsor firm, on an organizational level there is cooperation or an association between a sports team and a sponsor firm. The most frequently investigated theoretical concept related to the improved processing of sponsorship stimuli is undoubtedly the

idea of matching or congruence (between the sponsor and the event or activity also called fit, relatedness and similarity) (Cornwell *et al.* 2005).

Underlying many marketing communications theories is basic psychological theory on information processing. The key to an understanding of what happens in the mind is the idea of associative networks (Anderson and Bower, 1973) and spreading activation (Collins and Loftus, 1975). If advertising, as an area of study, embraces sponsorship as part of the domain of advertising, then sponsorship decision-making must be embraced as part of the domain of advertising management, something which has not yet occurred. The old set of advertising relationships focused largely on the relationship between the agency and the client (e.g. Gould *et al.* 1999), and on the transactional perspective of buying advertising exposure. For many clients advertising agencies were the gateway to media. In contrast, sponsorship-linked marketing may take many forms and include many intermediaries, but may also include direct alliances between the firm and the property (Farrelly and Quester, 2005). Sponsoring is almost always relational in orientation.

How sponsorship information is encoded and later retrieved depends not only on the nature of the exposure but also on the nature of the receiver. Previous research suggests that the knowledge a person holds about a sport influences the perception of the congruence of a sponsor-event pairing (Roy and Cornwell, 2004). This research only captured event knowledge, but what is the role of other information held in memory? What influence does it have on a new sponsorship relationship?

3.3 Matching sponsor and event or event and sport

The pairing of a brand or corporate name with an event or activity is similar to the paired-associate learning task found in numerous studies in psychology: “Is the brand the Olympic Games or the five rings”. In the paired associate paradigm, two words are presented at study and then individuals are asked to recall one given the other. The literature on memory has provided the most comprehensive account of how pre-existing memories might contribute to recall. These works accept the associative networks and then focus on understanding one word’s relationship to another and the way in which these relationships influence memory (Söderman and Dolles 2009). They now have convincing evidence that when recall is cued with an associate of a to-be-remembered word, the network of associations emanating from both the cue and the target are involved in the recall process (Nelson and McEvoy, 2002).

3.4 Some features of strategic alliance theory

When defining the term strategic alliance there are many viewpoints. However, simply put it is a relationship between one or more organizations that – through the combination of resources – can create significant and sustainable value for everyone involved (Arregle *et al.* 2006, Wild *et al.* 2007). Cisco has (according to Steinhilber 2008) five basic criteria to identify and characterize such relationships:

- 1) Significant business impact with sustainable value
- 2) Broad and deep initiatives
- 3) Strong organizational commitments
- 4) Substantial investment by both (or involved) companies
- 5) Strategic alignment and fit

Cisco says that there are three reasons why alliances are a ‘must’ investment for any company competing in the global marketplace: they are I) “Product life cycles” are becoming shorter and shorter and few companies have the necessary ability and capital in all segments of their value chain to achieve their objectives solo. II) “Any time/Anywhere” communication is possible now as communication technologies and cheap bandwidth are enabling services and capabilities to be delivered from anywhere in the world. III) “Customer expectation” means that both business and consumers expect and demand more integrated solutions to solve their needs, pushing companies to work together to create differentiated offerings (ibid pp 3-4).

But when is an alliance not the answer? It is important to remember when selecting a business strategy that strategic alliances are just one business tool that, if used at the wrong time, can materially hurt an organization. You must be able to step back and look at your three options. Should you build capacity yourself, buy it through an acquisition or strategic partnership? You do not have to choose one option. The real power and benefit to your organization often comes when you understand how all three of these strategic options can be used simultaneously to help your company address a new market opportunity. Alliances do not make sense when your organization has the requisite skills and resources necessary to win a battle on its own in a targeted market space. Alliances do not make sense when you need to control a certain technology, skill, or capability to ensure your company’s success and profitability (ibid, pp 6-7)

... the right way to think about partnering revolves around negotiating win-win agreements and growing the market for everyone. If you are spending your time in the discussion worried about dividing a pie that is not growing, you are probably not looking through the right lens. Think in terms of building incremental value and creating a bigger pie, not just getting the fattest slice... (ibid p 9)

One implication is the importance of familiarity with the profit seeking organization’s goal and means and its values as described above. It is also clear that not all small sport organizations or not-so-popular sports associations have something to offer and enable a business deal with a modern business enterprise. If such a relationship, however, is required by the enthusiastic sport administrator and the enterprise does not see any real revenue value then the area of “cooperation” is rather in the context of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) or philanthropy.

3.5 Corporate branding and reputation

As pointed out earlier sponsorship is argued to be integrated in the overall marketing strategy (Polonsky and Speed 2001, Soderman and Dolles 2008). This also means that sponsorship should support the corporate brand and the elements of the brand. In general, there is an overall belief that sponsoring is a favorable method for strengthening the corporate brand (e.g. Elliott

and Percy 2007). *Corporate Branding* is a stream within brand management and provides insights into how companies think and act in relation to their brand. As sponsoring and branding are integrated (or no manager will say that their sponsoring is isolated from the brand strategy) the corporate brand ‘approach’ provides insight into the nature of corporate sponsorship. However as stressed by Elliot and Percy (2007), little demonstrates that sponsoring has any long-term effect on the corporate brand. Hence, huge amounts of resources are spent on sport sponsorship. This mechanism is rooted in branding but is also a reputational issue or the fear of an unfavorable reputation.

Corporate branding and sponsorship is part of the overall “corporate reputation”. Companies are highly concerned with their reputations since it is the main resource of the organization (Power 2007). The reputational asset is of major concern since incidents are sometimes transformed into reputational crises. Recently the University College of Arts Crafts and Design (Konstfack) experienced this through the debate around a student who pretended to be mentally ill as part of her examination. These kinds of incidents cut off the reputational asset (SVD, Strannegård 2009). Within this branding and sponsorship become even more important fundamentals as they present a means for improving reputation, at the same time as they also represent how the organizations deals with their reputation (ibid).

The brand and the reputation go hand-in-hand or the brand is a means to sustain and improve the overall reputation (ibid). A contemporary view on corporate brands and reputation refers to three features of importance: *vision, culture and image* (e.g. Hatch and Schultz 2003, Elliott and Percy 2007). Those three aspects need to be linked and balanced. The vision, according to Hatch and Schultz (2003), is the top-management expression of the firm: the corporate culture involves internal values, beliefs and ‘assumptions’ of the organization. Finally, the image is the set of perceptions held by related stakeholders such as employees, customers, stockholders and the media.

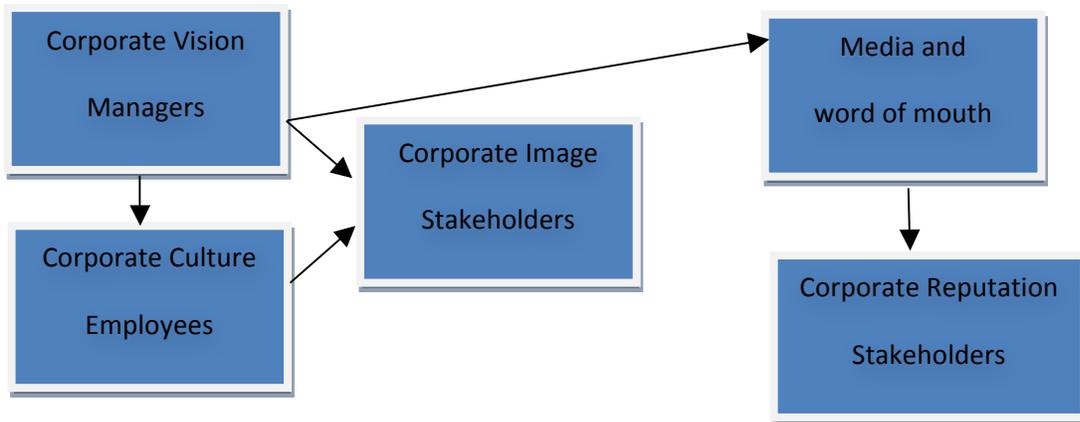


Figure 2: *Corporate Reputation* (Elliot and Percy 2007 adapted from Hatch and Schultz 2003)

The figure illustrates how vision and culture influence the corporate image (held by the organizational stakeholders), and how the image iterates between internal aspects (vision and

corporate culture) and the public (media and word of mouth). Each and every one of the elements in the figure constructs the “corporate reputation” that, according to Elliott and Percy (2007) mainly concerns the stakeholders. A broader definition would not only consider stakeholders as influential but also include other groups of actors.

The question remains why organizations are so concerned with their reputations. An explanation to this is that intangibilities become risks when they are transformed from uncertainties to internal objects. Put in other words, reputational risks ‘need’ to be taken care of and handled internally. Hence, those reputational risks are *perceived* (i.e. not real). A major driver within this, according to Power *et al.* (2009), is the increased number of rankings, evaluations and indexes of corporate brands that forces companies to take action. This is in line with Deephouse and Carter (2005 p. 329) who argue that the “reputation emphasizes a comparison among organizations”.

The comparison is to a large extent driven by rankings that are launched by companies that operate by producing this information (such as Universum, Nordic Brand Academy, Reputational Institute, etc.) essentially determining the information and data that the list is based on. This information is subjective and rather often inadequate. Furthermore, companies comply with these ranking and interpret it as “truth” and are acting along with this information (Power *et al.* 2009). This systematically creates “reputational risks”. Risks are socially constructed (e.g. Beck 1992, Douglas 1992, Lupton 1999,), however, reputational risks are *purely* socially construed since the risks are a “man-made product of social interaction and communication” (Power *et al.* 2009, p. 302). Therefore, it is important to understand the impact and consequences of informational media such as rankings, accounting signals, performance information, strategy signals (Formbrun and Shanley 1990).

A further perspective on this is the ‘need’ for accountability and responsibility as drivers within this development. Lupton (2006, p. 12) stresses that individuals are responsible for their risks, since “individuals, are seen to both cause risks and be responsible for their minimization”. This development is extensively researched as the risk society. Our ‘late’ industrial society is characterized by the welfare of consumption. The will to consume, a positive logic also means that we create a negative outcome or risks that need to be handled and reduced (Beck 1992). The risks are part of our everyday life (Tulloch and Lupton 2003), the media frequently discuss risks and their consequences while individuals have major concerns about ‘their’ risks (Beck 1992). Generally speaking, the individual is seen as a calculating ‘self-critical’ and risk averse person (e.g. Beck, 1992, Lupton 1999, Tulloch and Lupton 2003,.) Furthermore, the knowledge of risk is ascribed to experts: the public ‘needs’ expert systems in the form of an expert identification and calculation that gives them advice on how to deal with risks (Giddens 1990, Beck 1992). A similar logic occurs on an organizational level: organizations are seen as ‘accountable’ for ‘their’ risks issues. This creates expectations of the organization in terms of risk management practices and standards; governed processes that can be *defendable* (Power 2007). Organizations are keen to stress rational motives i.e. defendable motives for doing sponsoring that will also be exemplified in this study.

To recap, since sponsorship is – or should at least be –integrated into overall branding and marketing, it is part of and also influences reputational constructions (including reputational risks) that take place. The ambiguity lies in the company working for something that they themselves cannot control or manage, but they must act as if they knew what was to come. Douglas and Wildwasky (1982, p. 1) have a famous statement that reads: “Can we know the risk

we face, now or in the future? No, we cannot, but we must act as if we did.” Within this, the governing of reputation, through branding and marketing, becomes a practice with too strong emphasis on what can be lost rather than what might be gained (Power 2004, p. 151). As this study shows, companies turn down sponsoring not because of primary financial risks but of secondary reputational risks. This means that despite a high return on investment companies decided not to sponsor the actual sport/event. This is argued through the possibilities of low probability risks (as accidents within non-risky sports) that might create reputational damage.

3.6 Legitimacy

The dependence on legitimacy is another driver within this development. The uncertain environment can be seen as a resource for the organization through ‘uncertain management’ i.e. the supply of scripts, routines and other forms that will bring guidelines to deal with sustaining legitimacy (Powell and DiMaggio 1991). According to Deephouse and Carter (2005), based on their examination of previous literature, legitimacy emphasizes a social acceptance resulting from norms and expectations.

Dependence on other actors and the ‘need’ for legitimacy creates an interesting intersection between branding and sponsorship. By stemming from this further definitions of sponsoring can be made. A concrete example is local sponsoring, where companies located in small communities “feel obliged” to sponsor local associations. This type of sponsorship provides opportunities (and maybe closes doors if not done) and the company is seen as “a good force” in the local context. An example obtained in this study is that of Svenska Spel which ‘sponsors’ local ball games in Visby, Svenska Spel stresses that this is about “good citizen actions rather than sponsorship”.

However, there is a thin line between what constitutes sponsoring, charity or a search for legitimacy. Within this, stakeholders have a crucial role through ‘demands’ on the organization, based on functional or emotional relationships (Dowling 2001). Further, Dowling (2001) classifies the interest groups into 1) *Customers*: customers to the organization that can be analyzed by their needs and towards the organization. 2) *Functional groups*: This includes employees, unions, suppliers, distributors, 3) *Normative groups*: Governments, regulatory agencies, stockholders, trade associations and finally 4) *Diffuse groups*: the media and other interest groups.

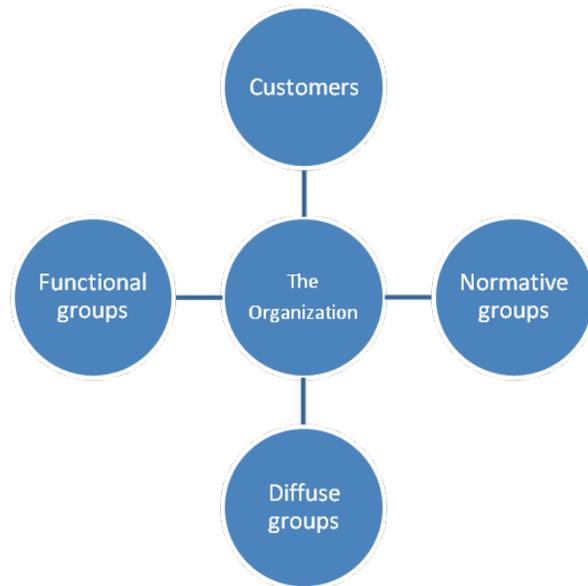


Figure 3: Stakeholder groups based on Dowling (2001)

3.7 Value co-creation

The perceptions of values in sports made by sponsors are a crucial question in this study. Within marketing literature it is stressed that value is “co-created”, i.e. it is the interaction between social and economical actors that generates value (e.g. Gummesson 2007, Vargo and Lusch 2008, Fyrberg and Juriado 2009). By this, the traditional distinction between the producer that produces and the consumers that ‘use up’ becomes of less importance (e.g. Normann 2001). Sports make a good example of this since the value, “a value offering”, is dependent on the situation and the relations, rather than being a physical product that is used and then wasted.

Edvardsson *et al.* (2005) argue that value must be seen through the lens of the customer and a process that is interactive and experiential (p.118). Along the same line of thought, other scholars argue that value is actualized through value-in-use due to the customer being a co-creator (Grönroos 2006, Gummesson 2007, Vargo and Lusch 2004, 2008, Sandström *et al.* 2008). However, a lot of work has been done on discussing customer co-created value from an experiential view. Consumer researchers have strived to determine how consumers co-create in the market. Scholars are arguing that value inheres in the consumption experience and that marketing need to focus on experiences that creates meanings for consumers (e.g. Holbrook and Hirschman 1982, Cova 1997, Fournier 1998, Holbrook 2000). Derived from this, experiences are further related to consumers constructing meanings (e.g. Cova and Cova 2002, Peñaloza and Venkatesh 2006).

4 A first sponsor model – three rational motives for sponsoring

The companies included in this study have indicated three general reasons for sports, i.e. they have all argued for ‘rational’ motives for sponsoring. We call this identification a “first sponsor model” (see also Fyrberg and Söderman 2007). This will, in a first step, be elaborated upon empirically by describing argued sponsoring objectives. In the second phase we will take this one step further and develop a sequential model or framework related to this. The motives that will be discussed are:

- 1) ROI - Return on Investments – “sponsoring as an investment”
- 2) Tradition “sponsoring as a way to uphold relations”
- 3) Image “sponsoring as a way to improve the brand image”

4.1 ROI

Return on investment means that the company carefully calculates the cost of the sponsorship and what they could get in return by making this investment. It is about ensuring the ‘business’ and the sponsoring is like any other marketing investment. If the calculation is negative the company simply chooses not to become a sponsor. This development is further derived from the increasing commercialization of Swedish sports. However, ROI is also nourished by the increasing will for a sophisticated sponsoring as companies are becoming more ‘serious’ about their sponsoring. As argued by one of the major sport sponsoring companies “*the choice of a sport is based on business and commercial potentials*”. Several respondents also believe that sponsorship agreements should be “*based on business decisions and not on emotions*.” Another former sponsor says: “*our judgment is that sponsoring for us does not produce any incomes, therefore we cannot justify sponsorships*”. Those statements characterize the motive “ROI” and are further described in this study. This is mainly represented by the media company Tv4 which recently made an interesting business agreement with indoor hockey sports.

A new phenomenon in Swedish sports is the business agreement between Tv4, the Swedish federation for Indoor hockey and Swedish Elite Indoor Hockey Sport (SEI). Tv4 took the initiative in this agreement and the idea to make a business concept of indoor hockey was actually driven by Tv4s talent program “Idol”, a success story that has been going on for several years.” Idol” is a global commercial concept, most famous for the American version “American idol” owned by the Fox Corporation. “Idol” functions through licensing where media companies around the world pay to use the brand. Tv4 are executing an internal business development of the concept. This was, according to the former manager at Tv4 (responsible for a group of employees -“the concept group”- only working with developing the business related to TV-programs), the starting point for Tv4’s interest in similar concepts.

Furthermore, Tv4 is profiled as a “sports channel” and is constantly seeking business opportunities in sports, hence the interest in applying the success of the “Idol” concept to a sports setting. However, according to the project manager for “the concept group”, a crucial factor for starting a new concept is the ownership of the brand. To own the brand or the license is a

necessary prerequisite for Tv4: *“Idol gave inspiration to seek a new concept where Tv4 could be owner of the brand and not pay for a license as with Idol”*. Therefore, the cooperation with Swedish Indoor Hockey resulted in a Tv4 ownership of the rights to the elite league, renamed by Tv4 as the “Swedish Super League” (SSL).

As stressed by Tv4 they consider this as a business agreement: *“We [Tv4] see our involvements in sports as business potentials and the specific objective with indoor hockey is to conceptualize and capitalize the sport ”*. This is the first time in Sweden that a media company has owned the rights and has exclusivity for a “sport”. Following the same principle Disney state the importance of ownership in sports: *“We do believe that sports are good for Disney, however, we want to be the owner of the brand that we invest in...”*

Usually the sport organizations themselves own their leagues and then contract sponsors and other partners. In this case, the indoor hockey sports organizations have responsibilities to arrange the league and its competitions. They do not have the authority to make other businesses contracts with sponsors: instead Tv4 makes those contracts. For example, Tv4 has made sponsor agreements with Svenska Spel, Expressen, and Puma. Furthermore, Tv4 has changed the design of the field to better suit television broadcasts. A focal point for Tv4 is their ‘platform’, that is to offer their clients exposure to millions of consumers. The agreement between the Swedish Indoor Federation and Tv4 was signed in May, 2007. By contracting sponsors Tv4 has developed SSL. Or as put by the former manager at Tv4: *“In this way the sport [the SSL league] has been developed and funded by sponsorship incomes which are unusual, if not unique in Sweden. This has been done by our [Tv4] competitiveness i.e. TV and media that is further combined with the entertainment value from indoor hockey.”*

From the sports perspective the agreement has in its initial phase evoked frustration. In the beginning, the indoor hockey clubs were disappointed and ‘rebelled’ against the agreement through media. The former manager admits the problems: *“Clubs have felt run over and that they must deliver a lot [arrange the competitions] but do not get anything back”*. However, the former manager further states that: *“The indoor hockey had nothing to lose...they do not have the competence or skills to make such an effort themselves [develop SSL]. To stabilize the situation, we created a reference group for knowledge-sharing between the parties. For the sport it has been critical to work with a commercial partner, otherwise the sport would have entered stagnation.”*

As time goes by, the clubs have accepted the agreement. Also, managers in the federations and in clubs are learning from the process. By following a commercial partner like Tv4 they are now experiencing how a commercial company is working with business development. The knowledge can then be further used in other business-like situations. However, a disadvantage for the Tv4 ruled SSL, claimed by a sponsor is the risk for an unfavorable image transfer: *“From our perspective, we were skeptical about the agreement in the beginning. We want to be associated with indoor hockey, that is to say the sports and not with Tv4...there is a risk that it becomes too commercial with Tv4”*.

4.2 Tradition and Relationship building

Several sponsorships are derived through tradition, that is to say the company has sponsored the sport for a long time and this is the main reason for sponsoring. Tradition-based sponsorship carries an advantage due to the fact that the parties have *developed relationships*. However, there is a risk that the long lasting cooperation limits the possibility of renewal and development. As put by one of the respondents: *“Some companies have sponsoring programs that have lasted for many years that is not an easy thing to change”*

Relationship building is important for sponsors and is argued for as *“a way to uphold relations with the target groups”*, as claimed by BMW which has sponsored tennis for the Stockholm Open for about ten years. Furthermore, it is stated by BMW that they don't see their sponsorship as a way to get direct sales but rather as a platform for creating and sustaining relations: *“Stockholm Open is primarily about meeting the target groups, to strengthen and create relationships”*. This approach shows that relationships but also expectations are of major importance.

As part of relationship building, another important aspect, perhaps the most critical factor for sponsorship, is the top-management personal interest: *“You need to be cynical...it is about what kind of sports that the top-management like or dislike”*. However, it is a transformation of the personal interest of a sport towards the overall marketing strategy: *“8 of 10 times, it is a personal interest in the company's CEO to sponsor a sport. There is nothing wrong with that, but the CEO must link this to the marketing department, which then can ensure a "right effort"”*. This can be described as a transformation process from a personal interest to organizational matter.

4.3 Image

A common motive for sponsorship can be argued for by the possibility of borrowing associations from the sport to strengthen the company's reputation. The respondents mention different aspects, however, in general they are referring to the importance of the corporate brand and its strengths and weaknesses. Within this, the ‘condition’ of the brand shapes sponsoring. Sponsoring is viewed as a method to improve identified elements of the brand. There are several examples of how sponsoring is said to be used to improve negative, weak or non-existing associations to the ‘right’ target groups. *“Within the sponsorship, it is crucial to create ‘right’ values, values that can enhance the corporate brand.”*

A company that works with sports associations to strengthen the corporate reputation is Disney. A brand weakness relates to that Disney is perceived *“as American and too commercial in Scandinavia”*. To delimit the strong commercial association, Disney *“wants to become a feature in the local culture”*. In Sweden, Disney has succeeded very well with Donald Duck's program on Christmas Eve. Every year it is broadcast on prime time, watched by millions of families—*“it's a Christmas tradition”*. Similar kinds of opportunities are of interest for Disney and they are trying different strategies in order to incorporate Disney in the local context. Sports as such are considered as an opportunity for Disney, but the conditions must be as follows: 1) *the values of the sport must fit Disney's values*. Disney prefers grassroots sports over elite sports as they are *“closer to the brand”* and 2) be *owner of the project* - Disney must be promoted as the major sponsor and brand i.e. have exclusivity. Furthermore Disney mentions that both companies and sports need to move ahead of the ‘transaction’ between sponsor and sponsee and *“try to go beyond an exchange of money and exposure, but rather think about how to create values in other*

ways". Those statements illustrate image as important but also how this should correspond with other values as well.

Another image-focused sponsor is Vattenfall. Vattenfall has been a sponsor of skiing for 14 years. They mainly cooperate with the Swedish Skiing association and the Swedish Biathlon Federation.⁴ "Our sponsorship provides our brand with favorable associations: ski sport is framed by tremendous nature surroundings". Those associations are attractive for Vattenfall - they 'eliminate' the negative 'pollution' reputation and associations that they sometimes suffer from. To strengthen their image, Vattenfall is working with what they call "activating the sponsorship". An example of this is local projects with regional ski clubs. The purpose of this is to improve the local trust for the brand. Hence, according to Vattenfall, this type of sponsoring can also be labeled as "good citizen" projects since it has a deeper effect than 'pure' sponsoring.

There are several reasons why Vattenfall is a sponsor of ski sports, and why they have invested and developed this relationship. The three main motives are described as follows: "1) *The ski sports create favorable associations, and have good role models in the skiers* 2) *Ski sport is a national sport with three million Swedes interested in it, Vattenfall has about 9000 employees in the Nordic countries and many or almost all of them have a relation to ski sports...* 3) *The ski sport is a well suited partner to Vattenfall since the sport communicates a sustainable and healthy environment and Vattenfall is investing much in environmental projects*". As for Disney, Vattenfall's sponsoring consist of many aspects not at least the possibilities to create internal proud and cohesiveness.

H&M is also an "image-focused sponsor". In comparison to other companies it is a relatively limited sports sponsor. However the company currently sponsors two individual riders and some equestrian events. H&M focuses on equestrian sport because of "the values of the sport" and that riding is a young female sport i.e. H&M target groups where "we can meet our target group on their conditions: on events people are in a good mood and this creates a good communication platform". However, event sponsoring is changing somewhat as "our target groups communicate through new media, therefore we are changing our event sponsoring and are seeking other opportunities."

Furthermore, H&M adjusts and develops the sponsorship (and marketing): "the H&M brand is unique, we are not any followers and as a fashion brand we must renew the brand constantly... our worst fear is to be perceived as a boring company and brand. Since H&M wants to be different as a brand we evaluate other alternatives for sponsorship in addition to the equestrian sport, such as design schools etc. Hence, the H&M brand symbolizes braveness and we are less careful compared to others". For H&M, as for the other sponsors in this study, the company stresses that the brand/company has an established brand awareness and is not using the sponsorship for exposure in order to increase awareness: "We are not looking for brand awareness in our sponsoring, in established markets we have basically 100% awareness...we work with values, equestrian values as teamwork, beliefs, 'straight forwardness' and those other values that Malin Baryard communicates to young girls, these values are good for young girls to take to in general. The equestrian sport allows us to communicate with our target audiences early"

⁴ Vattenfall is also a partner to SOK (Swedish Olympic Committee) since 2005

In addition to sports sponsorship, H&M invests in “charity” (they are involved in “Mentor”⁵ and “UNICEF”). H&M underline that this commitment has “*a completely different logic than sports sponsorship*” since H&M does not have any requirements for return: “*charity organizations should think about their projects and develop them and not on what the sponsors want.*” However, as stressed by Svenska Spel charity related associations can also be used within sponsorship since sports have those attributes. Svenska Spel has identified ‘responsibility’ as a lacking fundament in their brand and brand communications. Right now, Svenska Spel is communicating as the company that “*takes responsibility*”. The company is trying to use their position as the ‘donator’ to Swedish sports and view the company as *the sponsor* to the entire Swedish sports movement. This responsibility argued communication is derived through a missed opportunity: “*now we try to use our position as the sponsor to Swedish sports, others like Bingo-Lotto have hijacked our position as the partner of Swedish sports movement*”. Furthermore, Svenska Spel is talking about *citizenship thinking*” by being local sponsors to ball sports in Visby because of the company headquarters’ location in Visby. This local sponsoring also has another meaning, “*if you are located in a smaller place, you have to sponsor the home sports – otherwise you are perceived as disloyal to the local community*”

The three motives for sponsoring are further illustrated in the next section (figure 4) in which the sponsor and sponsee are linked. It should also be mentioned that the motives for sponsoring are multiple. However, we have tried to make a typology of the rational motives as a starting point.

4.4 The sport organization revenue streams – subsidy in relation to sponsoring

The importance of different revenue sources varies between sports and the type of club. For big audience sports (such as football and ice hockey) media and ticketing are crucial sources of income. Sports with less audience attraction are highly dependent on public subsidies. However, we can conclude that the sports sector in Sweden is shifting from being state financed and mainly driven by amateuristic and idealistic values towards becoming a commercially viable and privately financed ‘business’ (as described in the beginning of the article). The following categories represent the major revenues streams for a sports organization (sponsee):

- Public ‘sponsoring’ via subsidies
- Sponsor revenues from private/commercial actors
- Media
- Ticketing

As this paper focuses on the commercial side of sports, the subsidy is put aside but is, nevertheless, the most important source of incomes within the Swedish sport sector.

⁵ Mentor is an international organization that works with preventing young people using drugs

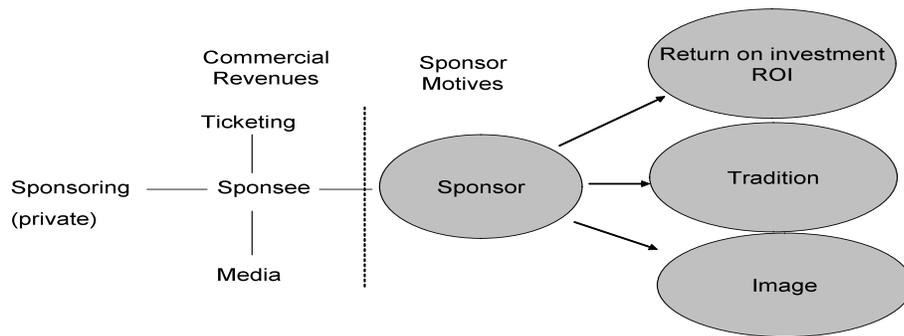


Figure 4: Illustration of sponsee and sponsor connected by revenues and motives

The figure illustrates private sponsor revenues (or other resources) and the transfer to the sponsee; when the transaction takes place it incorporates the motives of the sponsor. The point here is that if the sponsee accepts sponsoring revenues it also means that the sponsee is ‘regulated’ by the means and motives stressed directly or indirectly by the sponsor. Sponsor agreements mean a “quid pro quo” despite diverse interests.

In comparison with the public ‘sponsoring’ the expectations on the sponsee are dissimilar; the sponsor’s motives might be contradictory to the sponsee’s interests. A similar situation occurs with the media since broadcasts constrain when the events/matches should be held. The media is a crucial actor within sports. In this study we have identified media as co-constructors of sports; however, we encourage further research.

5 A second sponsor sequential model

An alternative conceptual approach is herewith developed represented by a sequential model. The financing of sports is a key question for many societies. It reflects the view of amateurism versus professionalism. Earlier this issue was linked to whether an athlete could participate at Olympic Games, the ultimate sport movement (in the past). The Swedish world record holder and Olympic champion in ice-skating Johnny Nilsson was, after winning his gold medal 1964 in Innsbruck, prevented from participating in any further amateurish competitions as he had received 30 euros from a local newspaper in Göteborg for his reports to the newspaper from the “Games”. The movement amateurism does not allow athletes to receive salary or remuneration which presents a barrier to the ambitions and dreams of many athletes to make a living from their

life interest, the sport. In Sweden, local companies in remote places have in the past offered a part- or full-time position to promising football players. Degerfors and Åtvidaberg are such places where good players have been fostered and successful teams often created because the local business society wanted the establishment of a top team which was supposed to also give awareness and legitimacy to the place. A subsequent increase in reputation and recognition of a brand or trademark would later become a brand asset.

But the situations differ, the relations are complex and, furthermore, the literature does not provide us with any holistic or usable frameworks. We therefore decided to reexamine our gathered empirical data, in fact a set of case studies, and create a sequential story including some typologies.

A sport organization has historically been focused only on the practice of sport. At present these organizations need money and other resources to advance, especially in the perspective of international competition. The Swedish sports movement is undergoing a rapid change and many organizations need to cooperate with business organizations which are used to working with suppliers, customers and partners on their conditions. Such conditions are not always known by the traditional sport organization therefore the sport organization is regarded, by their existing and potential business partners, as an actor in the service industry and more precisely in the entertainment sector. The two views undoubtedly lead to tensions.

In the text below the reasoning follows a step by step approach. New factors are inserted which create an emerging complexity. This construction of a cumulative sponsor model is hypothetical and is yet to be fully tested.

Sport is entertainment

The sponsor and the sponsee are the two main actors in figure 4 above. In the beginning the sponsee actor is assumed to be associated with entertainment and to present a “value offering”. This is a generic view when this offering is equivalent to a service, produced and distributed by a sport organization. It could be a team delivering a match or an athlete (belonging to a sport organization) producing a race. This factor is labeled A in the model. The sponsor, the other actor, is supporting the sponsee, influencing the sponsee and providing energy or resources.

The sponsee view I

In order to distribute the ‘service’ (which is a supply view, the term used by economists) a ‘need’ exists. The demand side is the need and is here labeled “experience” (D) assuming there is a subject consuming a service, namely a fan or a spectator. The service is offered, the need is experienced and this will happen at a special place called “arena” (B).

A is a sport organization SO in the entertainment industry.

B Performance at a special place an arena. The transfer is characterized as an iterative process, with cooperation and value co-creation. B is a broad construct and representing the context of resource “exchange”.

C Market, one or several segments. Marketing, by SO or others.

D Consumer or perception labeled experience. A and D are supposed to move closer decreasing the space/gap and this is enabled thanks to the B “exchange”.

E and F consist of audiences.

This initial framework represents the world of sports. The spectator consumes and perceives the performance (i.e. the service A):

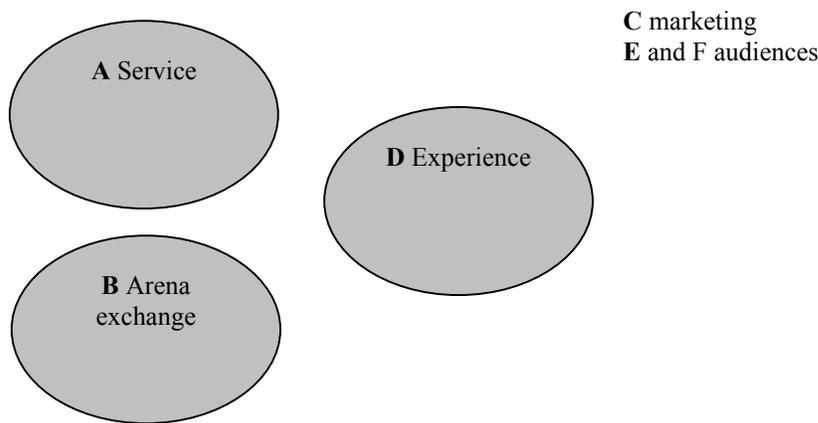


Figure 5: The sponsee view I - service, experience and transfer (adapted from Normann, 1977)

The sponsee view II

Three new driving forces are introduced: firstly a multiplier effect, secondly professionalization and thirdly commercialization. These corresponding activities are assumed to lead to the need for more stakeholders (see also figure 3 over stakeholder groups).

A sport club (A), is practicing and competing in an arena (B). The club is marketing the match (C) which is the event. The market consists of fans (D) which have different needs. If the spectators are visiting the arena they perceive a specific value. This might be different from that indirect value created and perceived by those remote fans called “media consumers” (F). If the quality of the match/event (G) shall increase then the athletes have to practice more and be more professional. This requires resources and the club needs to acquire greater revenues from the events in order to offer the club member a salary. If the spectator of an equestrian competition expects better quality from the performance or if the athletes should win the international

competitions then it becomes requisite to create a financial ground for any club’s new operations. This increased ambition can be matched with new revenues which require new services – often called commercialization (H). This might require new actors (J) willing to provide financial support. However, in general the “new financiers” would like to have specific services (K) in exchange. Requiring more qualified athletic performance or entertainment subsequently requires an escalation of resources (I) of professionalization as well as of commercialization. How can a small organization like a sport club reformulate its strategy implying a movement away from an amateurish and towards a professional activity direction?

	Behind the letter is a robust definition
A	A is a sport organization SO providing a service in the entertainment industry A sport club (A), is practicing, competing and offering experiences.
B	B is initially an “arena” but also a broad construct and representing the context of resource “exchange”. A and D are supposed to move closer decreasing the space/gap and this is enabled thanks to the B “exchange”.
C	The club is marketing the match (C) which is the event.
D	The demand side is here labeled “experience” (D); this is the market consisting of fans that have different needs.
E	If the spectators are visiting the arena they perceive a specific direct value. E is such a direct audience (might conflicting with F).
F	“Media” fans are the audience, the remote consumers, which perceive indirect value. This might be different from that direct value created and called “direct consumers” (E).
G	If the quality of the match/event (G) shall increase then the athletes have to practice more and be more professional.
H	This increased ambition can be matched with new revenues that require new services – often called commercialization (H).
I	If more qualified athletic performance is required and advanced entertainment subsequently demanded then an escalation of resources (I) occurs needed to enable professionalization as well as commercialization.
J	New actors (J) willing to provide financial support.
K	In general these new actors or financiers would like to have specific services (K) in exchange.
L	Since the sponsor and the sponsee have different views then an intermediary starts relationship marketing.
M	The sponsors (M) are offering the fans of SO their products or services.

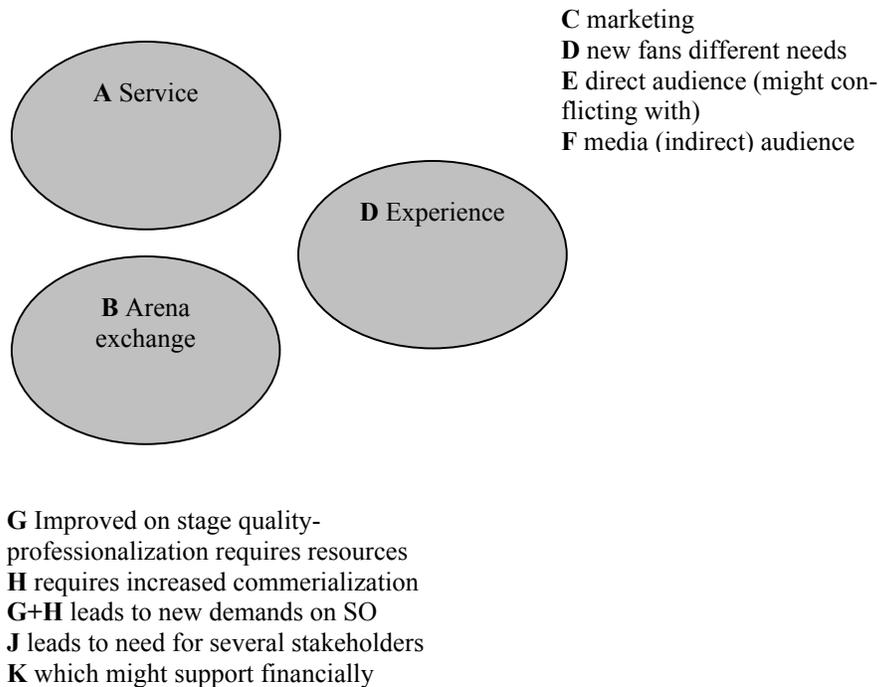
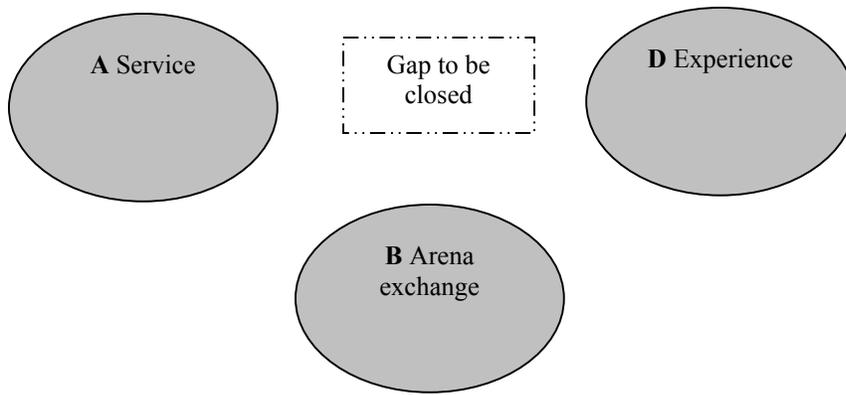


Figure 6: Sponsee view II- initiates two driving forces and might create one conflict

The sponsee view III

The sport organization (A) thus enacts a match or an event in connection with the presentation of an economic offering. One customer pays a ticket (E) which is a direct audience to the SO. Another customer pays an “entrance fee” indirectly via the media representatives from an SO which have in a collective way often negotiated with TV channels. This media revenue (F) is common in big sports and seems to be growing in importance with expanding technological developments. It is also important to acquire sponsors (J) with corresponding revenues (K). The sponsor is aiming for the customer base of the SO. The sponsors (J) differ because they can be assumed to have different motives (see figure 4) and methods which are here supposed to indicate the approach on measuring value.

C marketing
D new fans different needs
E direct audience (might conflicting with)
F media (indirect) audience



K financial support
J a new sponsor which offers money or “in kind” like naming rights. Important to discover if the newcomer has different objectives from the SO and/or measures value in other ways.

Figure 7: Sponsee view III- to acquire and develop sponsors

The sponsor view I

The sponsors (M) are offering the fans of SO their products or services. A classic case is Manchester United with their former sponsor Vodafone offering Manchester fans cheaper use of mobile phones. This view is certainly popular since a sponsor not only pays a “sponsor fee” that is an entrance ticket to the world of the football spectators. There is a golden rule in the sponsor business that the “sponsor ticket” i.e. the cost to be a partner must be followed up with activities often amounting to three times the sponsor ticket. The spectators constitute a very heterogeneous crowd. A concrete example in this study is H&M; they are searching for the equestrian sport audiences (mainly young girls) since they are argued to be target groups for H&M. This occurs through the arena (i.e. at an event) which H&M views as a positive platform in which it can meet its customers. In order to support this, H&M invests resources and creates perceptions and expectations on the event and on SO.

It is assumed in this framework that there are only two types of audience with different needs. Since several of our studied sponsors often referred to the necessity of exposure through television therefore focusing on the media audience being the prime target. This might create tension since the sport organization wants to focus on the direct audience. ATG has tried for

many years to increase the number of direct viewers at Solvalla with less success due to the popularity of media channels. The audience simply prefers to bet via internet and to watch TV.

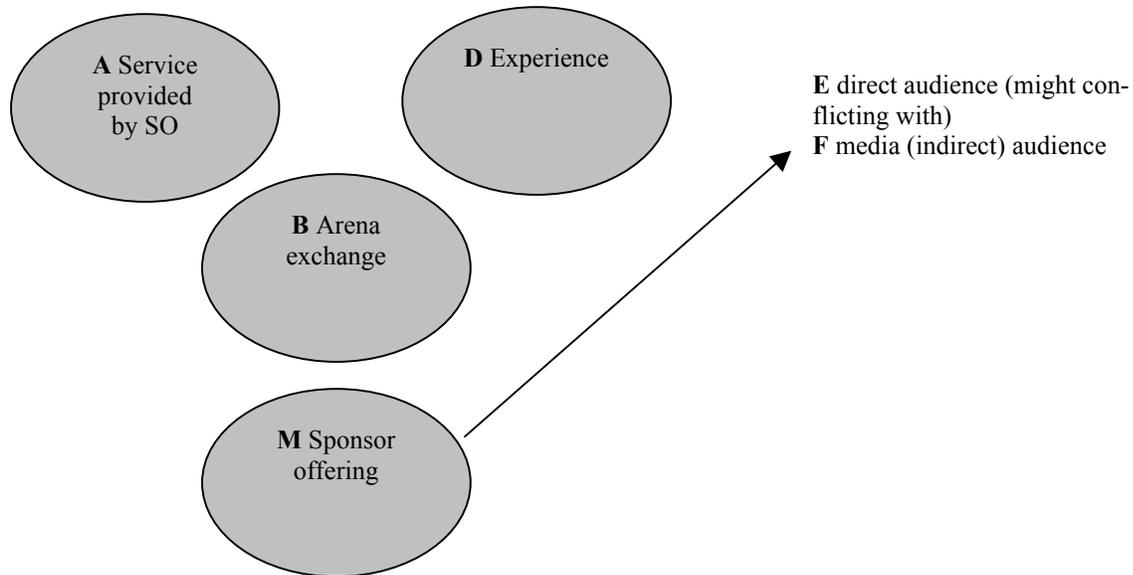


Figure 8: Sponsor view I

The sponsor view II

The potential sponsor is considering the customer base of the SO. The SO must propose and develop an offering aligned with the sponsors objectives and methods.

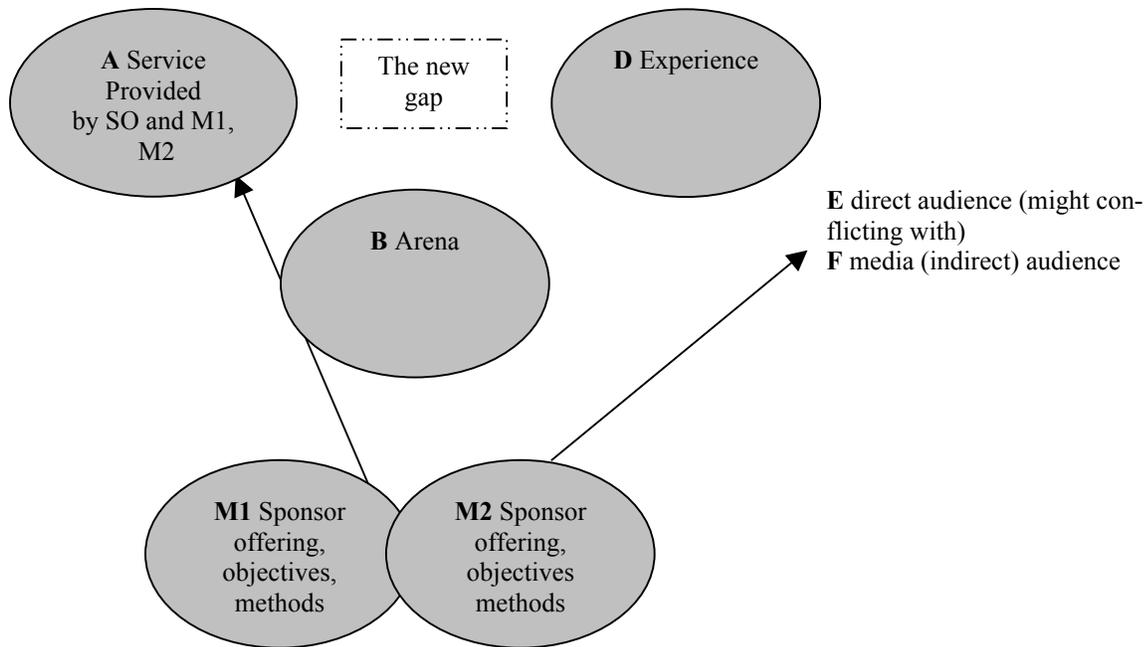


Figure 9: Sponsor view II

M1 might propose a strategic alliance between Volvo and Ericsson in the Volvo Ocean Race.

M2 can be a cash or in kind situation deal.

This illustrates that two sponsors might have two different perceptions of what they are expecting of the sponsorship.

The sponsor view III

The SO must propose and develop an offering aligned with the sponsor’s objectives and methods and furthermore the SO has to coordinate and align the ambitions of M1 and M2.

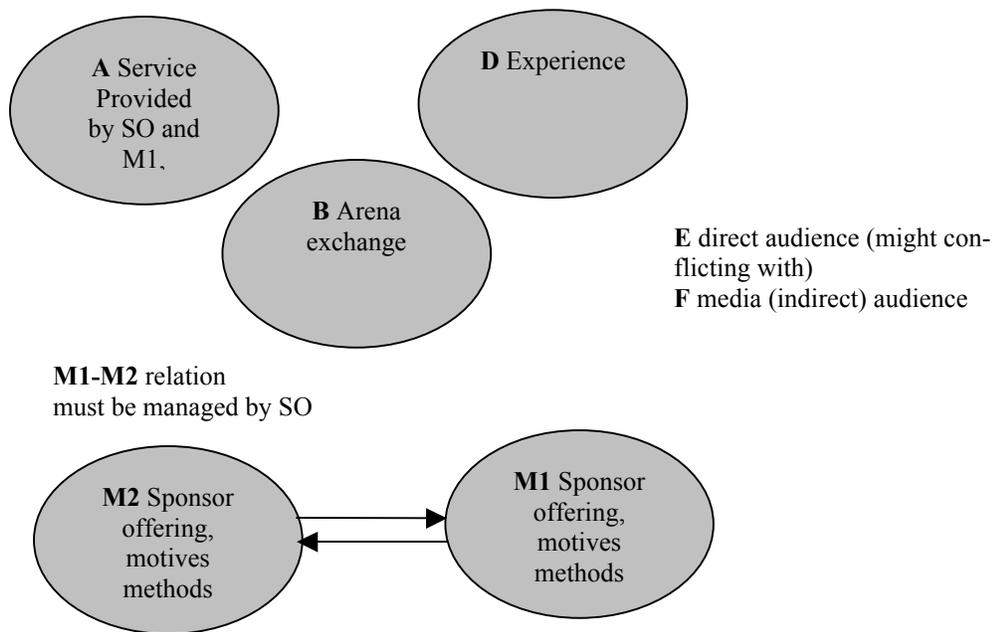


Figure 10: Sponsor view III

There is a risk that the role played by M1 differs from the one foreseen by M2. The existing customer base of M1 might join E or F (strategic alliance).

When sponsors of different sport organizations are identified, alignments have to be focused in this conceptual “language scheme”. Both types of actors (sponsor –sponsee) are often bad at closing the “new gap”. Due to their different views they seem to have a problem relating to the other party’s interests and motives. Sport organizations can seldom negotiate, while the business organization often is good at that. This creates an imbalance and the discussion is often interrupted. There is thus a need for a middleman who can start the process. In some cases this leads to a clarification at the sport organization of what it can offer (A), what the sponsor can accept (M) and what is in line with the motive (from above) of the sponsor: ROI, tradition or image.

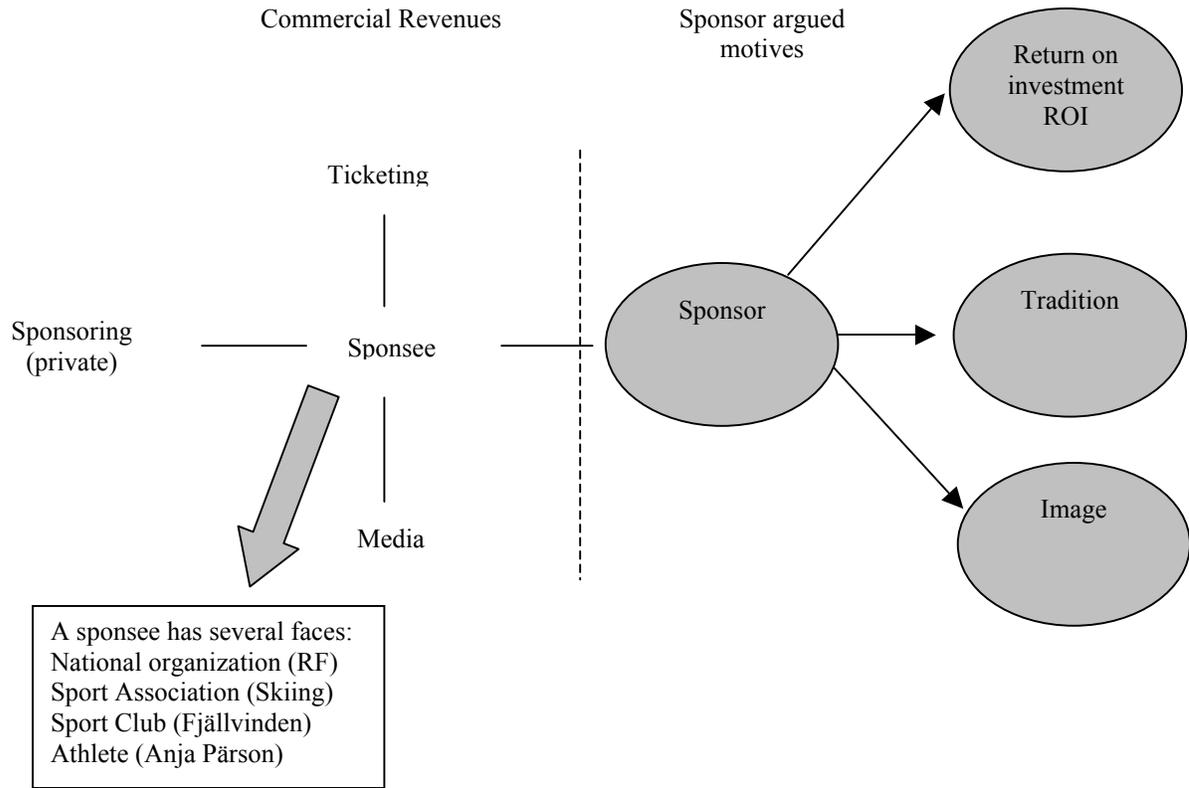


Figure 11: The aggregate sponsor-sponsee view

A sponsee is not always one individual but can be different actors. Therefore the relations between the sponsor side and the sponsee side tend to be complex. David Beckham seemed to have an agreement with a shoe maker. His club (SO in our terminology) at the time was Real Madrid which had a sponsor agreement with another shoemaker and the Spanish top league had a third shoe maker sponsor contract. It is obvious that there is a risk of conflict with several agreements. The sport movement has a long way to go in terms of governance in order to handle all upcoming problems in connection with professionalism.

Using the simple product-market framework we can finally identify three situations which require different frameworks to analyze the various practical situations. This aggregate figure also includes the various situations presented above.

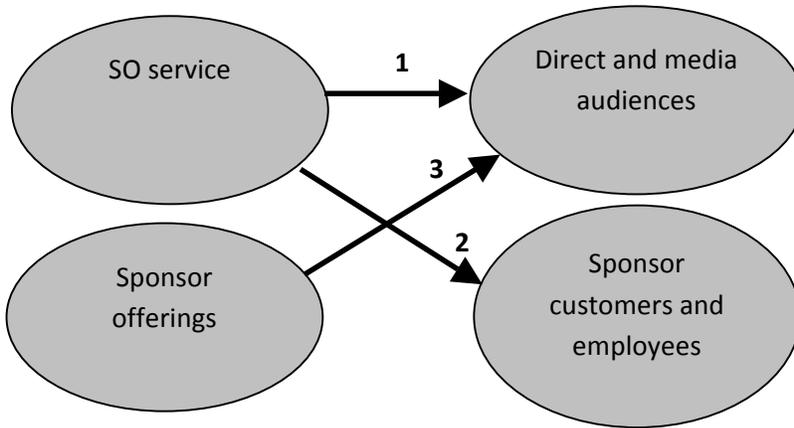


Figure 12: Three typical situations

Situation 1: the start i.e. match/event to sport audiences i.e. sponsee views I, II and III

Situation 2: a match/event is offered the sponsor customers and employees i.e. sponsee view I and II

Situation 3: the sport audiences are offered the products/services of the sponsor i.e. sponsor view I and II.

6 Conclusions

6.1 Insights on sponsoring by using the sponsor view

Why companies decide to sponsor sports and why they choose specific sports is unclear, however, there is no meaning behind searching for *the* answer to this. In this study the focus is rather on discussing insights on sponsoring by investigating sport sponsors and describing the implications for the sports organization. We further emphasize an intersection with features from strategic alliance theory, branding and reputational risks, and value co-creation (including legitimacy) which all contribute to developing the field of sports sponsoring.

As described earlier, the sponsors argue with rational motives when they are explaining why they are involved in sports. The rational motives are conceptualized into ROI, Tradition and Image. Our further interpretation is that sponsors are not that rational in their choice of sports, the decisions are rather ad hoc, related to personal interests, relations and emotions. In the case of H&M it is known that the owners likes horse sports and this is why H&M is involved in equestrian sports. We are not arguing that using personal interest or emotions is something lacking, rather we try to show the multiplicity of logics and values within sponsoring.

We have identified a variety of reasons incorporated in the formulated argumentations for sponsoring (see section 4 and 5). The search for *corporate legitimacy* i.e. social acceptance of the organization is an obvious rationale (Deephouse and Carter, 2005). Sponsors do not always have a choice of whether or not to sponsor. Svenska Spel ‘must’ sponsor local sports in Visby because of its headquarter location; Disney invested in the Mighty Ducks hockey team because of its park in Anaheim.

Furthermore, in Scandinavia Disney ‘needs’ to wash away the American commercial image, Vattenfall have a similar objective because of their reputation of pollution. Compared with local sponsoring this is also about legitimacy but is perhaps a ‘softer’ search for trust. However, we can hereby conclude that a ‘necessity side’ of sponsoring that is somewhat neglected within contemporary sponsoring literature (e.g. Cornwell *et al.* 2005, Walliser 2003) does exist. As previously highlighted, a lot of sponsoring literature revolves around the fit between a sponsor and a sponsee (Cornwell *et al.* 2005). A question that needs to be elaborated upon further is why sponsors are concerned about the right fit.

One might argue that sponsorship as a method to strengthen identified weak elements of the corporate brand is a reasonable branding practice. However, our assumption is that the process of sponsoring needs further approaches than simply a branding perspective. To start with, sponsoring includes issues of perceived reputational risks (constructed by the public and uncertain management functions such as consultants) that might force sponsoring to take place and trigger the search for an optimal fit. This is because of the possibilities of increasing trust and legitimacy on the market or at least a perceived increase. Despite whether sponsors are sponsoring for fun, for vanity or are more serious it becomes a matter that must be handled internally. This leads us to further conclude that the search for legitimacy is not only occurring external to the sponsor organization, but that the internal aspects are equally important. As pointed out earlier, the outside (such as the media) and the inside nourish each other (e.g. Hatch and Schultz 2003). In line with this we can observe a ‘transformation’ of emotion-driven ideas to rational motives.

This transformation takes place when the marketing department starts to deal with the sponsoring by taking care of the emotional choices made by top managers. Marketers and PR people incorporate sponsoring as part of the organizational need of marketing and branding. Sponsoring then becomes an acceptable activity (and investment) i.e. something that is *defendable* (e.g. Power 2007). By this the sponsoring becomes authentic internally and externally. The withdrawal of sponsorship follows a similar *logic of defense*; sponsors have a hard time preserving their sponsoring investments if they simultaneously have problems with their finances and dismiss people. Recent examples of terminated agreements include GM and Tiger Woods, Manchester United and AIG, Gevalia and Brynäs Hockey.

Organizations are seen as accountable for their actions and want to be perceived as in control. This is expressed in various ways. For the sponsor it is not a matter of primary risks such as the

risk of frequency of accidents. It is rather about *reputational risks*: socially constructed risks that might affect reputation since reputation is the value of the organization (Power *et al.* 2009). However this presents further difficulties for the sport organization in terms of understanding the perceptions of the other party (see next section – implications for sports organizations).

As this paper argues, this development can be explained by the notion of self-control (Lupton 2006) which is a consequence of societal risks. As put by one of the respondents “*sponsoring agreements should be based on business decisions and not emotions.*” This argumentation is not at all extraordinary. The sponsor acts in relation to the environment which ‘regulates’ the organization’s behavior responsibly and rationally (Power 2007). We can also describe this as the change of sponsorship from philanthropy to a more non-voluntary discourse driven by a need to show self-control and self-improvement (here we also have the example of CSR that becomes more non-voluntary for organizations).

Emotions and excitement, due to inherent risks and uncertainties, is what creates value within sports (e.g. Cashmore 2000). This creates experiences and, as described in our framework (chapter 5), the construction of consumer experiences that are essential within sponsoring. Experiences are a process when consumers construct meanings, and at the best create values for themselves (Pralhad and Ramaswamy 2003, Holbrook 2000, Thompson 1995). Emphasizing consumers and the subjective construction of experiences is crucial but not an easy task. A recent example (Spring 2009) is Djurgården IF and their problems with poor team performances and supporter “fights”. This has resulted in consumer dissatisfaction and rapidly decreasing revenues for the club.

Furthermore, the importance of image and reputation is repeatedly argued in this paper, yet we have also tried to illustrate another development path. Sponsoring is becoming a business agreement rather than a sponsoring agreement. An example of this is the case of Tv4 and their ownership of a sport system - the SSL league. In this case sports are considered as any other business opportunity which means new circumstances for the sport organization to consider, sports organizations thus have to consider business opportunities which represent new challenges. Sport organizations are in a situation where they need to re-consider their competitiveness in terms of the ownership of the system of competitions (see in Swedish Strategigruppens rapport till RS, 1993).

To-recap, approaches towards sponsoring are changing since sponsoring is becoming more ‘serious’ at the same time as other values seen in sports are expanding. However, in general the practice of sports sponsoring is the usage of sponsoring as a means to achieve values –values that differ between sponsors. Our analysis of this is that the sponsoring literature benefits from a broader perspective that emphasizes further ‘drivers’ of sponsoring such as the importance of legitimacy, reputational risks, implications of strategic alliances and value creation. This is due to demands for multiplicity from various sponsoring situations. Which means raising awareness of the implications of sponsoring for the sports organizations, balancing the ‘new’ commercial

situation with traditional values. One way of analyzing this sponsor-sponsee situation and its dynamics is to apply the sequential model in section 5 above.

6.2 Some implications for sports organizations

A general finding, from interviews with sponsors in this study as well as with sponsees in an earlier report (Fyrberg and Söderman 2007), is the overall lack of ability to imagine the other party's perception. One reason for this difficulty seems to be the character of the respective businesses. The sport organization is often seen as a private business by the partner organization. However, since sport is driven by many motives other than economic, the sponsor sometimes has problems discovering the logic in the sponsee's behavior.

Another implication is that the sport organization must prepare every sponsor they "might be meeting" in different ways. One way is to examine any "regional" association: whether there are any existing or potential organizations which can sponsor the sport organization. Another way is to find "individuals" as a sponsor. Molde football club in Norway has for example one strong sponsor, a wealthy businessman who sponsors the local top team more or less alone. A third way is for the sport organization to identify companies with expressed branding strategies and ambitions. Is this ambition focusing on the corporation or a specific product in the product-line of the company?

Once more it is important to stress that sport organizations carefully need to re-consider their core values, beliefs, brand statements and vision before any sponsors are processed. If the formulation of the own organization and communication is foreseen it is difficult to make any long-term sponsor progress. The importance of this will increase; as argued in this study sponsors have multiple reasons with their sponsoring. By this, it is crucial for sport organization to have formulated their future progress and development.

7 Answering the questions

7.1 Reflections and suggestions

In the beginning of the report we formulated three research questions that we answer by conceptualizing some of our earlier reasoning.

1. In what way is sponsoring attractive for corporations? It is very attractive and it is increasing dramatically; investments in sponsoring are now bigger than investments in TV-commercials (IRM Institute). Since global competition is constantly increasing, the level of creativity in finding new marketing tools is also increasing. We have been maintaining that some industries are more sponsor-friendly than others. Consumer oriented companies are traditionally associated with sponsoring. Within the top 50 list of Swedish sponsors they represent 60 percent of the total investments in sports or 1.8 billion SEK.⁶

The attractiveness of sponsoring is broad; there are as many reasons as there are sponsors. We have tried to describe the various logics that drive sponsors and have also tried to summarize

⁶ http://www.sponsorworld.com/_project/_media/_doc/upload/Topp-50.pdf accessed 2009-06-03

these into some general reasons - ROI, Tradition, and Image. These are the major motives that the sponsors refer to. We have also identified other values; a general driver is the opportunity to create experiences. What experiences and for whom depends on the sponsor objectives.

2 How do corporations value possible sports sponsoring? As already touched upon, there is a wide variety of opinion on what creates its value. The companies in this study are established sport sponsors; they are not seeking for awareness but are rather searching for other meanings. We have been illustrating that the risk for reputational damage is the main threat to positive value creations. Hooliganism and doping are two known factors that destroy value. However, we have also observed that publicly constructed opinions are of importance. Reputational risks are impossible to capture; they can take place as well as not happen. This is fundamental. Both parties know that the sponsor avoids 'bad' reputations and associations. The sponsor strives for 'secure' engagements – but the value in sports has much to do with excitement and uncertainty. However, in general sponsors try to make the uncertain as certain as possible. Further, in general sponsors are searching for the sports-based values the particular sport is representing.

The strict rules formulated by the sponsors might not only make agreements more difficult but eliminate any space for agreements. The sport organization always has difficulties controlling the athletes who strive for records. Finally it is important that the sport organization chases the ownership of the event. They shall be more distinctive and act in an offensive way. This is perhaps the only clear asset which the sport organization must be careful to protect.

3 To what extent does the corporate brand formulate possible sports sponsoring? The corporate strategy is the main criteria. The top management in some companies just state that sponsorship is of top priority. Vattenfall does not have many options to reduce their dirty image other than striving for an association with the "whitest" of all sports skiing. This is one reason why they desire this sponsorship with the Swedish Association of Skiing and are also associated with the Olympics. Volvo wants to be associated with global activities and with technology; a reason the Volvo Ocean Race is a logical choice to partnering with Ericsson. But the organization structure of the sponsor firm is decisive. The construction company Skanska is working in about ten thousand places simultaneously. Every place has a project leader and their legitimacy derives from decisions on the local sponsorship strategy. This is done without strong coordination with the central headquarters.

Companies often argue that sponsorship supports identified brand elements. As this study shows the brand analysis and its relation to sponsorship is a post-construction that is not driven by the brand, but is based on other aspects. However, since the sponsors use the image aspect when they are actually sponsoring, it has a connection to the brand regardless of whether the brand analysis process takes place before or after the decision to sponsor sports. To legitimize sponsorship, internally and externally, it is integrated in the marketing and brand strategy. As a result sponsoring is transformed into a defensible process.

7.2 Future research

In this paper we have elaborated upon the relation between the sponsor and the sport organization mainly by using the sponsor perspective. In the process we have identified further aspects that are of importance for understanding the complex logic behind sponsoring. As touched upon in this paper, the media is a crucial player within constructing sports, sponsors and their sponsoring. This seems to grow in importance and we suggest that future research should emphasize the media and its role further and describe the implications of media involvements in sports. Further, media is influential when it comes to reputational risks and how the risks are framed. This influences the perceptions of reputations and risks and it is essential to study the mediums that form our perceptions of risks, brands and, not least, sponsoring.

As earlier argued, business agreements between commercial companies and sports organizations are here to stay. We have described some implications of this but we are also encouraging more research in this area. Particularly, the situation when sponsors are allowed to “take over” or change the systems of competition. One might argue that sponsors have always had an influence. We agree but we also want to stress that this influence is becoming more substantial due to sponsors today being more serious with their sport sponsoring.

Finally, we suggest that future research should place more emphasis on internal branding. We have described that sponsoring has an internal effect on the company. This means that if sponsoring is well communicated and ‘implemented’ within the organization it can contribute to the organizational identity as well as create a spirit of pride. It can also be an opportunity to engage in activities related to the sponsored sports and its events. Knowledge about sponsoring and its organizational implications are therefore of interest for the sport organization. A prerequisite for this is that sport organizations already have to formulate their own values and brand issues. Communication and implementation within a sport organization is especially important due to the fact that they are built upon democratic values. Therefore major attention needs to be paid to employees – imbuing in them the values and brand strategy so that they might not only understand it but believe it and practice their behavior towards customers and other stakeholders (e.g. Hatch and Schultz 2003). Put in other words, the ideal scenario is when the organization is “living the brand”.

References:

Anderson J. R. and Bower, G.H. (1973), *Human associative memory: a brief edition*, Hillsdale NJ: Erlbaum and Associates.

Arregle J.L. Hèbert L. and Beamish P.W. (2006), "Mode of international entry: advantages of multilevel methods", *Management International Review*, 46 (5), 597-618.

Beck U. (1992), *Risk society: towards a new modernity*, London: Sage.

Belk R.W. (1988), "Possessions and the extended self", *Journal of Consumer Research*, 15 (2), 139-68.

Cashmore E. (2000), *Sports culture: an a-z guide*, London: Routledge.

Collins A. M. and Loftus, E.F. (1975), "A spreading-activation theory of semantic processing", *Psychological Review*, 82 (6), 407-428.

Cornwell T.B., Weeks, S.C and Roy, D.P. (2005), "Sponsorship-linked marketing: opening the black box", *European Journal of Marketing*, 34 (2), 21-42.

Cova B. (1997), "Community and consumption: towards a definition of the "linking value" of product or services", *European Journal of Marketing*, 31 (3), 297-316.

Cova B. and Cova V. (2002), "Tribal marketing: the tribalisation of society and its impact on the conduct of marketing", *European Journal of Marketing*, 36 (5/6), 595.

Crompton J. (2004), "Conceptualization and alternate operationalizations of the measurement of sponsorship effectiveness in sport", *Leisure Studies*, 23 (3), 267-281.

De Chernatony, L. and McDonald, M. (1998), *Creating powerful brands – in consumer service and industrial markets*, 2ed., Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Deephouse D .L. and Carter, S.M. (2005), "An examination of differences between organizational legitimacy and organizational reputation", *Journal of Management Studies*, 42 (2), 329-60.

Douglas M. and Wildavsky, A. (1982), *Risk and culture: an essay on the selection of technological and environmental dangers*, Berkeley: University of California Press.

Douglas M. (1992), *Risk and blame: essays in cultural theory*, London: Routledge.

Dowling G.R. (2001), *Creating corporate reputations: identity, image and performance* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Edvardsson B., Gustafsson, A. and Roos, I. (2005), "Service portraits in service research: a critical review", *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 16 (1), 107-121.

Elliott R. and Percy, L. (2007), *Strategic brand management*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Farrelly F. and Quester, P. (2005), "Examining important relationship quality constructs", *Industrial Marketing Management*, 34 (3), 211-219.

Financial Times, 14 - 15 Februari 2009.

Fombrun C. and Shanley, M. (1990), "What's in a name? Reputation building and corporate strategy", *The Academy of Management Journal*, 33 (2), 233-58.

Fournier S. (1998), "Consumers and their brands: developing relationship theory in consumer research", *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24 (4), 343-73.

Fyrberg A. and Söderman, S. (2007), "*Varumärkets betydelse inom idrottsrörelsen*", Forskningsrapport 2007:5, Riksidrottsförbundet.

Fyrberg A. and Juriado, R. (2009), "What about interaction? Networks and brands as integrators within service-dominant logic", *Journal of Service Management*, 20(4), 420-432.

Giddens A. (1990), *The consequences of modernity*, Stanford University Press.

Gould S. J., Grein, A.F. and Lerman, D.B. (1999), "The role of agency-client integration in integrated marketing communications: A complementary agency theory – interorganizational perspective", *Journal of Current Issues and Research in Advertising*, 21 (1), 1-12.

Grönroos C. (2006), "Adopting a service logic for marketing," *Marketing Theory*, 6 (3), 317-33.

Gummesson E. (2006), *Many-to-Many marketing as grand theory* i Lusch, R.F. and Vargo, S.L. (Eds.), *The service-dominant logic of marketing*, M.E. Sharpe, New York.

Gummesson E. (2007), "Exit services marketing - enter service marketing", *Journal of Customer Behaviour*, 6 (2), 113-41.

Hatch M. and Schultz, M. (2003), "Bringing the corporation into corporate branding", *European Journal of Marketing*, 37 (7/8), 1041-64.

Holbrook M.B. and Hirschman, E.C. (1982), "The experiential aspects of consumption: consumer fantasies, feelings, and fun", *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9 (2), 132-40.

Holbrook M.B. (2000), "The millennial consumer in the texts of our times: experience and entertainment", *Journal of Macromarketing*, 20 (2), 178-92.

International Events Group (2004), "Sponsorship spending to see biggest rise in five years", *IEG Sponsorship Report*, 23 (24), 1-5.

Lupton, D (1999), *Risk*, London: Routledge.

Lupton D. (2006) i Mythen, G., Walklate, S. (eds.), *Beyond the risk society*, Berkshire: Open University Press

Meenaghan J.A. (1991), "The role of sponsorship in the marketing communications mix", *International Journal of Advertising*, 19 (1), 35-47.

- Miller, K.D. (2009), "Organizational risk after modernism", *Organization Studies*, 30 (2-3), 157-80.
- Nelson D.L. and McEvoy C.L. (2002), "How can the same type of prior knowledge both help and hinder recall?" *Journal of Memory and Language*, 46 (3), 652-663.
- Normann R. (1977), *Management for growth*, UK: Wiley.
- Normann R. (2001), *Reframing business: When the map changes the landscape*, Chichester: Wiley.
- Penaloza L. and Venkatesh A. (2006) "Further evolving the new dominant logic of marketing: From services to the social construction of markets," *Marketing Theory*, 6 (3), 299-316.
- Polonsky M.J. and Speed, R. (2001), "Linking sponsorship and cause related marketing", *European Journal of Marketing*, 35 (11/12), 1361-1385.
- Pope N. (1998), "Consumption values, sponsorship awareness, brand and product use", *Journal of Product and Brand Management*, 7 (2), 124-136.
- Powell W. and DiMaggio, P.J. (1991), (eds), *The new institutionalism in organizational analysis*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Power M. (2004), *The risk management of everything*, London: Demos.
- Power M. (2007), *Organized uncertainty: Designing a world of risk management*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Power M., Scheytt, T., Soin, K. and Sahlin, K. (2009), "Reputational risk as a logic of organizing in late modernity", *Organization Studies*, 30 (2-3), 301-24.
- Prahalad C. K. and Ramaswamy V. (2003), "The new frontier of experience innovation," *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 44 (4), 12-8.
- Roy D.P. and Cornwell, T.B. (2004), "The effects of consumer knowledge on responses to event sponsorships", *Psychology and Marketing*, 21 (3), 185-207.
- Sandström, S., Edvardsson, B., Kristensson, P. and Magnusson, P. (2008), "Value in use through service experience", *Managing Service Quality*, 18 (2), 112-126.
- Söderman S. and Dolles, H. (2008), "Strategic fit in international sponsorship – the case of the Olympic Games in Beijing 2008", *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship*, 9 (2), 95-110.
- Söderman S. and Dolles. H. (2009), "Sponsoring the Beijing Olympic Games - patterns of sponsor advertising", *Asia Pacific Journal of Marketing and Logistics*, 21(4).
- Steinhilber, S. (2008), *Strategic alliances*, Boston: Harvard Business Press.
- Strannegård, L. (2009), "Anseendet den nya hårdvalutan", SVD 2009-03-10.

Strategigruppens rapport till RS 15/9 (1993) PM: Strategisk profilering och positionering av svensk idrott- ett resursperspektiv av Berg, Eggertz, Gröön, Hellström, Jacobsson och Olsson.

Thompson, J.B (1995), *The media and modernity: a social theory of the media*, California: Stanford university press.

Tulloch, J. and Lupton, D. (2003), *Risk and everyday life*, London: Sage Publications.

Vargo, S. L. and Lusch, R.F. (2004), "Evolving to a new dominant logic for marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 68 (1), 1-17.

Vargo, S.L. and Lusch R.F. (2008), "The service-dominant logic – continuing on the evolution", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 36 (1), 1-10.

Wild, J.J., Wild, K.L and Han, J.C.Y. (2007), *International business- the challenges of globalization*, fjärde utgåvan New Jersey: Pearson/Prentice Hall.

Internet sources

<http://www.insightnews.se> accessed 2009-06-05

<http://www.idrottensaffarer.se/sponsring/2009/03/adidas-storst-inom-sponsring> accessed 2009-06-05

<http://www.idrottensaffarer.se/sponsring/2009/05/zlatans-val-nike-eller-adidas> accessed 2009-06-05

http://www.sponsorworld.com/_project/_media/_doc/upload/Topp-50.pdf accessed 2009-06-03



RIKSIDROTTSFÖRBUNDET

Idrottens Hus, 114 73 Stockholm • Tel: 08-699 60 00 • Fax: 08-699 62 00
E-post: riksidrottsforbundet@rf.se • Hemsida: www.rf.se

