

ATHLETES4SOCIETY PROJECT

EMPOWERING THE PUBLIC VALUE OF SPORT THROUGH ATHLETES AS ROLE MODELS



REVIEW REPORT

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WORK PACKAGE 2:

EVALUATING THE PUBLIC VALUE OF SPORT



LITERATURE REVIEW

Over the past decades there has been an upward trend of investing resources in elite sport. This is often referred to as the 'global sporting arms race', whereby governments are increasing their public resources in elite sport to keep pace with international success (De Bosscher et al., 2008). The rationale for elite sport investment is based on an 'input-throughput-output' programme theoretical approach, by which policy focuses on the process of input (i.e., the financial input for elite sport), throughput (e.g., sport accommodation, training facilities, coach education) and output (i.e., the number of medals) (De Rycke & De Bosscher, 2021). However, recent sport literature reveals that funding does not guarantee success (De Bosscher et al., 2015): "Whilst 'money in equals medals out' it does not follow that 'MORE money in equals MORE medals out'" (p. 17). This finding brings us to several important questions: Should countries invest in elite sport with the aim of winning more medals? What is the return on investment? Is the population's tax money well spent? Those questions entail that there is a need for accountability of using public money for elite sport. Consequently, governments do not merely focus on outputs, but also on the outcomes and impact of their investments (De Rycke & De Bosscher, 2021). By arguing that sport is intrinsically good (Grix & Carmichael, 2012), governments legitimise their investments by stating that "elite sport success stimulates a wide range of positive societal outcomes that will 'trickle down'" (De Bosscher et al., 2021, p. 625).

Over the years several frameworks have been developed to outline the social impacts of elite sport (Lee et al., 2013). However, since most of these frameworks focus only on particular components of elite sport's societal potential, a broader overview was lacking. In order to address this gap in the literature, De Rycke and De Bosscher (2019) developed an overarching and comprehensive framework 'Mapping Elite Sport's potential Societal Impact' (MESSI) that summarizes and maps the potential positive and negative impacts of elite sport on society. An extensive literature review was conducted to map the societal impacts of elite sport, which were clustered into 10 categories: (1) social equality & inclusion; (2) collective identity & pride; (3) ethics & fair play; (4) feel good & passion; (5) fans & (media) attraction; (6) international prestige & image; (7) athletes' ability & quality of life; (8) sport participation & health; (9) sponsors & commercial activity; and (10) local consumption & living conditions. The 'demonstration effect' (i.e., people get inspired to exercise more) is the most frequently mentioned potential social impact of elite sport (Carmichael et al., 2013; Weed et al., 2015).

Contradictory to other authors, De Rycke and De Bosscher (2019) indicated that 'intrinsically, elite sport is neither beneficial nor harmful' (p. 486). As such, the potential impacts were clustered so that every theme includes both positive and negative outcomes. For example, the first category 'social equality & inclusion', includes both 'inclusion' and 'exclusion'. Elite sport has the potential to bridge different cultures and promote harmony between different cultural groups. For instance, when football teams from different countries participate, meet and bond together in a world cup tournament. In contrast, football can also entail racism, sexism, and exclusion. Four contexts were identified in which the potential positive and negative impacts of elite sport can occur: (1) organisation of elite sport events (e.g., organising the Olympic or Paralympic Games), (b) athletes and teams (e.g., when athletes act as role models), (c) sporting achievements (e.g., outstanding sport performances such as winning the world cup in football or winning a gold medal at the Olympics), and (d) involvement of elite sport stakeholders (e.g., sponsorships, relations with international organisations, businesses).

Despite increasing academic interest, the understanding of elite sport's impact on society remains scarce (McCartney et al., 2010; Thomson et al., 2019) due to the fact that the tangible and intangible social impacts are often difficult to measure (Lee et al., 2013). However, the understanding and measuring of perceptions is important (e.g. Hayday et al., 2016) for following reasons: (a) perceptions are a reality for stakeholders (Ohmann et al., 2006), (b) perceptions are a valuable way for policymakers to see whether relevant stakeholders maintain their support (De Rycke et al., 2019), and (c) it is important for policymakers to identify what people think, whether or not the perceptions hold truth (De Rycke et al., 2019). To map the perceptions of the population about the societal value of elite sport as well as providing accountability to the population (i.e., the tax-paying population is after all the main sponsor of elite sport), De Rycke et al. (2019) developed the MESSI-scale. The scale items were constructed based on the MESSI-framework (De Rycke & De Bosscher, 2019). Each item was measured on a five-point Likert scale with bipolar statements (e.g., "In general, I perceive that elite sport...; Positive: "... increases well-being"; Negative: "... decreases well-being").

Using the MESSI-scale, the study by De Rycke and De Bosscher (2021) examined the potential negative and positive societal impact of elite sport perceived by the Belgian population. Results showed that Belgians perceive that elite sport generates a significant number of positive social impact. Specifically, the most frequently perceived positive impact areas are: (a) 'elite sport provides athletes a life into the spotlights/fame', (b) 'elite sport awards sport organisations through ticketing and licensing a profitable source of income' and (c) 'elite sport increases sport industry commercial activities'. On the other hand, the most frequently observed negative impact areas are: (a) 'elite sport event hosting leads to an unjustifiable amount of local one-off costs', (b) 'elite sport delivers athletes severe health issues', and (c) 'elite sport puts immense pressure on elite athletes to perform'. As stated, previous sport literature shows that it is important to measure and understand the public's perceptions, although they sometimes lack accuracy or objectivity (De Rycke et al., 2019). For instance, perceptions can be influenced by socio-psychological and socio-demographic characteristics. In their study on perceived national pride and happiness following German sporting success, Hallmann and colleagues (2013) found that the perceived benefits and costs of elite sport, athletes as role models, trust into elite sport stakeholders and having a migration background have an impact on the public's perceptions. Additionally, the study of De Rycke and colleagues (2019) identified being a fan of an elite athlete or not, the frequency of watching the Olympic Games, the level of involvement with elite sport (measured with the Elite Sport Involvement Scale (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003)) and language as possible determinants of individuals' perceptions regarding elite sport.

ATHLETES AS ROLE MODELS

Elite athletes are a key resource that professional sport organisations use to create an impact on society and to build positive associations, since athletes represent the brand of their teams as well as their personal brand (Babiak et al., 2012). Hence, using athletes as role models can be a powerful way to increase societal impact (De Bosscher et al., 2021). A role model can be defined as "an individual that is considered commendable and worth of being imitated" (Breuer & Wicker, 2015, p. 31). Adler (1985) argues that the performances of the elite athlete, the athlete's personality and popularity play an important role to be considered as an athlete role model.

It is important to recognise that the social impact of elite sport needs to be actively managed, since the positive effects do not usually manifest themselves spontaneously (De Bosscher et al., 2021). Over the years, sport clubs, sport organisations and sport stakeholders have attached increasing importance to social responsibility (Ojagh et al., 2021 ; e.g., Hamil & Morrow, 2011; Smith & Westerbeek, 2007). Moreover, Ojagh and colleagues (2021) state that social responsibility is not limited to (sport) organisations, but even elite athletes are also responsible for giving back to their communities. Although elite athletes are increasingly committed to charity (Babiak & Sant, 2020; Dubuy et al., 2014) or have their personal foundation (Babiak et al., 2012), it remains difficult for sport organisations to actively manage their societal impact or set up a programme, often due to the lack of inspiration or capacity (Taks et al., 2015). To support role model programmes, MacCallum and Beltman (2002) examined the characteristics of role model programmes. They stated that role model programmes should have the following characteristics in order to be considered effective: (a) having a professional and people-oriented management, (b) flexibility to adapt to the needs of the beneficiaries, (c) having a broad social and supportive network, (d) include mechanisms for ongoing feedback from participants and evaluation tools for programme improvement, and (e) having sufficient resources in order to achieve the programme aims.

Furthermore, is it equally important to consider the personal motivation and characteristics of athlete role models. Several scales were developed for this purpose. For example, Kim and colleagues (2021) developed a multi-dimensional scale to measure individuals' perceptions about elite athletes as role models. This tool maps out what characteristics people love about their favourite elite athletes and comprehensively established eight dimensions of the sports role model construct: (1) professionalism, (2) personality, (3) fame & fortune, (4) athletic performance, (5) community service, (6) morality, (7) game outfit, and (8) physical strength.

It is a common statement that elite athletes are viewed as role models (Mutter & Pawlowski, 2014). In fact, it is widely assumed that they have a duty to be a role model (Lynch et al., 2014). Indeed, athletes are often motivated to be a role model and subsequently give back to the community (e.g., Babiak et al., 2012). However, the motivation of athletes to be a role model is often "complex, multifaceted, dynamic and may shift over time" (Jordalen et al., 2020, p.4). For example, Jonson and colleagues (2013) highlighted that not all athletes are motivated to be role models. Sometimes, athletes are assigned the status of 'role model', without fully understanding, appreciating, or willing to be a role model (Jonson et al., 2013). According to Jonson and colleagues (2013) there are three types of athlete role models: (1) athletes who intrinsically choose to be a role model, (2) athletes who are imposed to be a role model (e.g., by their club or federation), and (3) athletes who are famous and therefore automatically become a role model. In order to gain further insight in athletes' motivation to be a role model, researchers emphasized on the importance of measuring athletes' self-regulation (i.e., "subsumes goal-directed behaviour and allows a person to delay gratification in the short term to achieve desired outcomes in the future" (Carey et al., 2004, p. 253)). Self-

regulation influences the sport performances of elite athletes (e.g., Robazza et al., 2004) as well as changes and improves moral behaviour (Corrion et al., 2017). Self-regulation among elite athletes is usually measured by using the Self-Regulation Questionnaire (Brown et al., 1999).

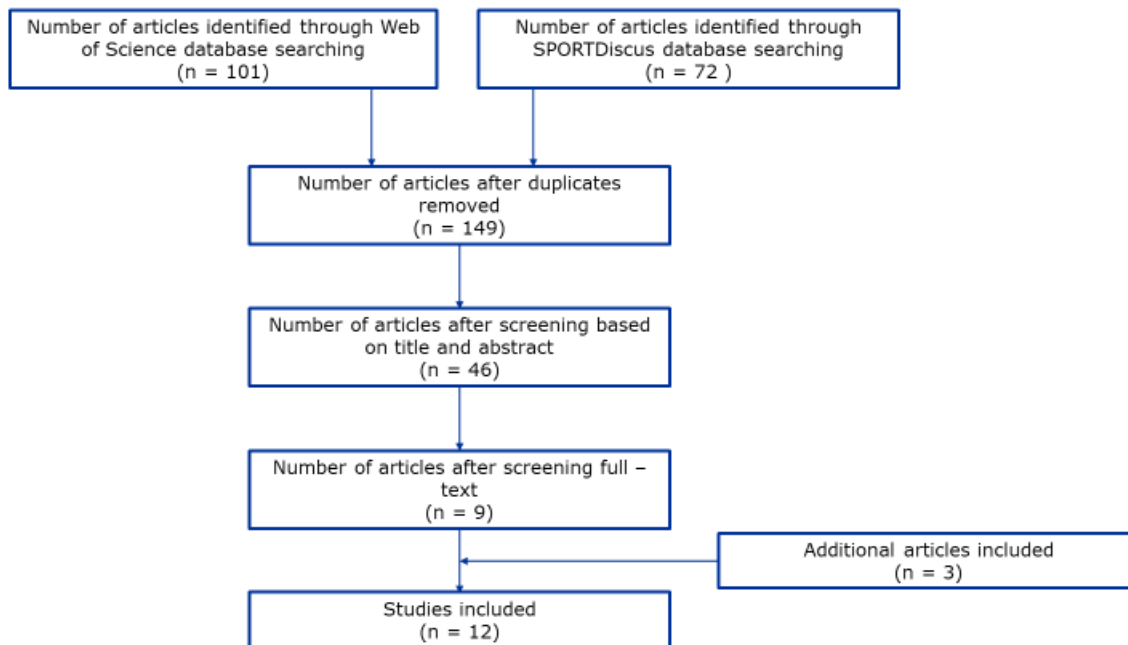
An often-related concept to using elite athletes as role models, is the concept of 'brand personality' (i.e., "the set of human characteristics associated with a brand" (Adler, 1985, p.347)). Many well-known brands deploy elite athletes as part of their marketing strategies (e.g. David Beckham for Adidas ; Mitsis & Leckie, 2016). Gaining understanding of the relation between brand personality and elite athletes is important as it helps individuals in their decision-making (Walsh et al., 2013) as well can the personality of the favourite athlete contribute to the image of the brand (Mitsis & Leckie, 2016). Building on Aaker's (1997) Brand Personality Scale, Tsiotsou (2012) developed the Sport Brand Personality scale to measure brand personality for the sport sector. In their validation study, Mitsis and Leckie (2016) found that the Sport Brand Personality scale can be used to identify the most desired personality attribute of the elite athlete according to the population. Moreover, their study identified that the sport team brand personality dimensions can be successfully applied to a favourite athlete (player) level. In other words, the favourite athlete brand personality dimensions can predict role model influence.

SCOPING REVIEW OF ACADEMIC LITERATURE

A quick scoping review of academic literature revealed 12 articles that investigate athletes as role models and the societal value of elite sport (see Table 1). This selection of articles is retrieved from 173 articles found via the data bases SPORTDiscus and Web Of Science, of which 9 articles were selected (see figure 1)¹. The included studies were required to meet the following inclusion criteria: (1) the study was published in English, (2) the full text of the study was available, (3) the study was published between 2010 and 2022, (4) the study was published in an academic peer-reviewed journal, and (5) the study reported data on the societal value of elite sport and/or athletes as role models. Additionally, 3 articles from other sources were also included. Each study is briefly described.

Figure 1

Flow chart of the scoping review of academic literature on the societal value of elite sport and athletes as role models.



¹ Search string: "societal value*" OR "social value*" OR "social impact" OR "societal impact" OR "public value" AND "sport* organi*ation*" OR "sport* federation*" OR "sport* polic*" OR "sport* management" OR "elite sport*" OR "elite athlete*" OR "athlete role model"

Table 1

Selection of articles in peer-reviewed journals published between 2010-2022 that investigate athletes as role models and the societal value of elite sport.

YEAR	AUTHORS	TITLE	SOURCE DOI
2022	Polcsik, B. & Perényi, S.	Residents' perceptions of sporting events: a review of the literature	https://doi.org/10.1080/17430437.2021.1982899
2021	De Rycke, J. & De Bosscher, V.	The cure or the cause? Public opinions of elite sports' societal benefits and harms	https://doi.org/10.1080/17430437.2020.1724962
2021	Van der Roest, J-W. & Dijk, B.	Developing an elite sports' public value proposition in Northern Netherlands	https://doi.org/10.1080/16184742.2021.1915354
2021	Mamo, Y., Agyemang, K.J.A., Andrew & D. P. S.	Types of CSR initiatives and fans' social outcomes: The case of professional sport organizations	http://doi.org/10.32731/SMQ.302.062021.06
2021	Bardocz-Bencsik, M., Begović, M., & Dóczy, T.	Star athlete ambassadors of sport for development and peace	https://doi.org/10.1080/19392397.2019.1639525
2019	De Rycke, J. & De Bosscher, V.	Mapping the potential societal impacts triggered by elite sport: A conceptual framework	https://doi.org/10.1080/19406940.2019.1581649
2019	Hills, S., Walker, M. & Barry, A.E.	Sport as a vehicle for health promotion: A shared value example of corporate social responsibility	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.smr.2018.10.001
2016	Mao, L.L. & Huang, H.	Social impact of Formula One Chinese Grand Prix: A comparison of local residents' perceptions based on the intrinsic dimension	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.smr.2015.08.007
2014	Kihl, L.A., Tainsky, S., Babiak, K., & Bang, H.	Evaluation of a cross-sector community initiative partnership: Delivering a local sport program	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.evalprogplan.2014.01.003
2014	Dubuy, V., De Cocker, K., De Bourdeaudhuij, I., Maes, L., Seghers, J., Lefevre, J., De Martelaer, K., Brooke, H. & Cardon, G.	Evaluation of a real world intervention using professional football players to promote a healthy diet and physical activity in children and adolescents from a lower socio-economic background: A controlled pretest-posttest design	https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-14-457
2012	Babiak, K., Mills, B., Tainsky, S., & Juravich, M.	An investigation into professional athlete philanthropy: Why charity is part of the game	https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.26.2.159
2011	Hamil, S. & Morrow, S.	Corporate Social Responsibility in the Scottish Premier League: Context and motivation	https://doi.org/10.1080/16184742.2011.559136

1. The study by Polcsik and Perényi (2022) contributed to a more complete understanding of the views of local residents about international sporting events. A literature review was conducted regarding the perceptions of host city residents in relation to the impacts of sporting events. Digital academic databases were employed to search for empirical studies published on the topic between 2000 and 2020. In total, 43 journal articles were collected that investigated events in different sports on five continents. Results indicated that residents perceive benefits (e.g., development of infrastructure and tourism; the strengthening of national pride and social cohesion) as well as detriments (e.g., price increases; traffic and parking problems; worries about re-use of sports facilities). Results also revealed that the views of residents change over time and that the perceived impact is affected by several factors (e.g., socio-demographic characteristics; familiarity with a particular event; type of the event; residents' confidence in the organising committee). The authors concluded that the understanding of the perceived potential social impacts of sporting events in a particular city is essential to the overall success of these events among local communities.
2. The study by De Rycke and De Bosscher (2021) examined the potential negative and positive societal impact of elite sport perceived by the Belgian population. In total, 1102 Belgian citizens participated in a population survey which used multiple validated scales to gain a general overview of the Belgian population's perceptions about the societal impact of elite sport. First, based on the MESSI framework (De Rycke & de Bosscher, 2019), the MESSI-scale with 73 items covering 10 dimensions (e.g., integration, fair play, well-being, doping, quality of life) was constructed. Participants were asked to rate each item on a five-point Likert scale with bipolar statements (e.g., 'In general, I perceive that elite sport...; Positive: "...blocks racism"; "...boosts racism"). Second, the 'Short Sport Involvement scale' (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003) was used to measure the degree to which elite sport as a domain is personally relevant to the participant. Third, the 'Role Model Influence scale' (Dix et al., 2010; Rich, 1997) was used to measure if participants view an elite athlete as a role model. Results revealed that the Belgian population perceives that the impact of elite sport to society is mostly beneficial. Specifically, it was found that the Belgian population generally perceives less negative than positive societal impact of elite sport (i.e., the positive item outscores the negative item). "Migration" was the only variable that significantly mediates the perceived societal impact of elite sport in the Belgian population. The perceived societal impact of elite sport was not significantly directed by the degree of involvement with elite sport and viewing an elite athlete as a role model.
3. The study of Van der Roest and Dijk (2021) explored how the public value management theory enhances the understanding of how to create and support societal impact in sport. A qualitative fieldwork approach and a study of policy documents was implemented. First, an exploratory study was carried out using four focus groups and 24 one-to-one meetings with representatives of provincial or local governments, provincial sport service organisations or knowledge institutes. Second, four focus group sessions were held with mostly the same stakeholders as in phase one (n = 22), but the focus was shifted towards an action-based design. Third, four focus groups were conducted with civil servants and decision makers. The authors have shown how the public value management theory can assist (public) sport managers in developing a public value proposition. This study emphasises that the process and institutional environment in which public value is created, is a significant feature of public value creation. Furthermore, it is important to move beyond public value management within a single organisation and move towards public value governance.
4. The study of Mamo and colleagues (2021) examined which dimensions of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) (i.e., philanthropic activities, community relations activities, environmental management and sustainability, diversity and equity activities, labor relation activities and sport governance activities) enhance the societal outcomes of sport fans. A total of 312 National Basketball Association (NBA) sport fans filled in a self-developed questionnaire containing 32 items on a 7-point Likert scale or semantic differential scale (e.g., 'The NBA social responsibility programs strengthened my connection with my community'; scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7)). Findings suggested that fans gain more excitement and happiness as well as increased their social cohesion if sport organisation CSR initiatives are concentrating on sport governance, environmental management and sustainability, and philanthropy issues. Sport governance was the strongest predictor of fans' perceived societal outcomes.

5. The study of Bardocz-Bencsik and colleagues (2021) explored high-profile athletes' involvement in Sport for Development and Peace (SDP) initiatives and identified which characteristics those athletes must possess to be impactful as ambassadors in SDP initiatives (i.e., "development celebrities"). Nine semi-structured interviews were conducted with SDP practitioners regarding their perception on the involvement of high-profile athletes in SDP as ambassadors. The conceptual approach guiding this study are the concepts of "development celebrity" and "star/poverty space" developed by Goodman and Barnes (2011). Results revealed that the SDP practitioners agreed that athlete ambassadors must possess credibility, authenticity, and expertise in order to succeed as "development celebrities". More specifically, athlete ambassadors must be popular at both global and local levels as well as they must have a clear understanding of SDP in order to be authentic contributors to the programmes. Besides, credibility was perceived important, but often fragile as the media attention can backfire in the case of any scandals.
6. The study of De Rycke and De Bosscher (2019) tried to unravel the variety of potential impacts that can flow from the elite sport context. An extensive mapping literature review was conducted regarding the potential positive and negative societal impacts of elite sport. In total, 391 studies were collected that provided empirical evidence for these social impacts. From these studies 79 distinct societal impact areas of elite sport emerged (47 positive social impacts; 32 negative social impacts). Based on the systematic review, the Mapping Elite Sports' potential Societal Impact (MESSI) model was developed. This comprehensive framework clusters the positive and negative societal impact that flow from elite sport into 10 categories: (1) social equality & inclusion; (2) collective identity & pride; (3) ethics & fair play; (4) feel good & passion; (5) fans & (media) attraction; (6) international prestige & image; (7) athletes' ability & quality of life; (8) sport participation & health; (9) sponsors & commercial activity; and (10) local consumption & living conditions. Moreover, the study identifies in which contexts (i.e., the 'activators') elite sport might affect the public: (a) when organising elite sport events, (b) when athletes are viewed as role models, (c) outstanding sport performances, and (d) practices of elite sport stakeholders.
7. The study of Hills and colleagues (2019) examined the potential of a sport-based social programme potential to achieve social value (e.g., physical health and mental wellness) and business value (e.g., team, league, and sport affinity, and patronage). Twelve primary school classes formed the experimental group, four classes were part of the comparison group. The experiment group took part in a 12-week sport programme which included one one-hour session each week. The weekly sessions included: 1) physical activity (e.g., running, balance, jumping, throwing, kicking, and catching), 2) mental wellness (e.g., character-based curriculum via traditional in-class experiences), and 3) league, team, and sport affinity (e.g., patronage intentions). The comparison group did not participate in the sport programme. A sequential mixed-methods and a pre- (i.e., 1-week before) and post- (i.e., 1-week after) programme design was utilised. Quantitative data were collected through physical activity tracking logs and questionnaires related to physical activity, mental wellness, sport-, team-, and league affinity, and patronage. Qualitative data were collected through 12 focus groups and administrator interviews. Although there was increased physical activity, enjoyment, and commitment to physical activity among children who participated in the programme, the results showed that the business-centric values had the largest practical effects. It was concluded that sport managers can effectively promote health when sport organisations are trying to deliver social and business value at the same time.
8. The study of Mao and Huang (2015) investigated residents' perceptions of the social impact of the Formula One Chinese Grand Prix. To do so, they examined the relationship between these perceptions and the intrinsic characteristics of the residents (i.e., involvement in sports industry, community attachment, identification with the event, and socio-economics characteristics). Six hundred Shanghai residents filled in a self-developed 5-point Likert scale 58-item questionnaire (e.g., 'I am an avid fan of Grand Prix and try never to miss a race'; scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5)). The results showed that Shanghai residents perceived positive social impact (i.e., 'city image community pride enhancement', 'community social development', 'leisure opportunities and new experiences') as well as negative social impact ('community social pressure', 'disorder and congestion', 'environmental and cultural problems'). Results also indicated that all dimensions of positive social impact and one dimension of negative social impact (i.e., 'environmental and cultural problems') were significantly associated with involvement in the sports industry, community attachment, identification with the event and socio-demographic profiles. Residential proximity was not significantly related to any perceived social impact.

9. The study of Kihl and colleagues (2014) examined the implementation and operational processes in the delivery of a professional sport organisation's Corporate Community Initiatives (CCI) using programme theory evaluation. The Reviving Baseball in Inner Cities (RBI) programme involved 13 to 18-year-old youth in baseball and softball leagues. The programme was designed to promote baseball and softball to underserved youth while also encouraging education, developing life skills, and increasing the number of individuals that are skilled to play in college and minor leagues. An exploratory sequential mixed methods design was implemented. Qualitative data were collected through interviews with RBI (n = 3) and Parks and Recreation executives (n = 2; associated organisation) as well as collecting organisational documents. Quantitative data were collected using 2 self-developed surveys: a 29-item questionnaire for the parents, coaches, and directors and a 39-item questionnaire for players. The results showed that there were contradictions between the associate organisation and the RBI executives regarding understanding and carrying out their responsibilities of the service delivery protocol. Although RBI stakeholders (i.e., players, coaches, parents) were generally satisfied with the programme delivery, they were less satisfied with the marketing and communication components of the programme (e.g., limited available programme information, timing, limited access to fields). To conclude, although the programme was successful, some points for improvement were made. For instance, the authors suggested that ongoing evaluations are necessary to pinpoint the catalyst of the discrepancies along with all partners valuing process evaluation in addition to outcome evaluation.
10. The study of Dubuy and colleagues (2014) examined the effectiveness of a school programme with the use of professional football players as role models for promoting a healthy diet and physical activity (PA) to socially disadvantaged children. The intervention was implemented in professional football clubs and schools. The intervention had 'healthy diet' and 'physical activity' as two main topics and consisted of a 'start clinic', followed by a four-month school programme and an 'end clinic'. Professional football players were involved in the activities and promoted health behaviours. In total, 605 children (intervention group: n = 165, control group: n = 440) between the age of 10 and 14 years old provided self-reported data on dietary habits and physical activity before and four months after the programme. The results showed that the intervention was mainly successful in the self-efficacy for having a daily breakfast, reaching the PA guidelines, consuming fewer soft drinks and eating more vegetables. The authors concluded that professional football players as role models are a credible source for health promotion among socially disadvantaged children.
11. The study of Babiak and colleagues (2012) examined the philanthropy of elite athletes and their charity foundations. More specifically, they attempted to gain a better understanding of the landscape and scope of philanthropy among elite athletes and their motives, beliefs and intentions underpinning their charitable behavior. After identification of elite athletes who had set up charity foundations and examining media coverage of elite athlete foundations and charities, 36 semi-structured interviews were conducted with professional athletes, team and league senior executives, foundation executive directors and a sport agent. The results revealed that elite athletes engaged in philanthropy because of self-serving and altruistic attitudes (i.e., the outcomes both to themselves and to target beneficiaries were perceived to be favorable). Social norms, expectations of important others and athletes' feelings of personal obligations to help others were other motivators for elite athletes to establish their own charity foundation. Lastly, having personal control over who and how they could help was a very important key determinant. The biggest asset reported was having a celebrity status. Costs, complex administration, time consuming nature, exposing an individual and managing the responsibilities were reported as challenges.
12. The study of Hamil and Morrow (2011) examined the engagement and motivation of Scottish Premier League (SPL) clubs regarding Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). Data were collected through analysing annual reports of the clubs and through 12 semi-structured interviews with club representatives. The results indicated that the majority of the clubs reflect little to nothing of their CSR activities in their annual reports. Furthermore, it was found that they endorsed different structures to deliver CSR activities (e.g., separate foundations, trusts or companies). Although the motivation to engage in CSR varies from club to club, the results revealed that CSR activities are mostly driven by normative expectations of the stakeholders, a response to wider social agendas, or potential economic benefit. The authors argued that due to their community embeddedness and strong stakeholder relationships, these clubs are well positioned to act as vehicles to deliver CSR.

CONCLUSION

Throughout the years there has been a shift in sport literature from solely focusing on sport performances and gaining success in elite sport to using elite sport as a leverage to create impact in society. Increasingly more elite athletes and sport organisations want to give back to their community. Overall, research has mainly focused on corporate social responsibility within sport organisations, athletes who act as role models for youth and the public perceptions regarding the societal impact of sport events and elite sport in general. However, sport policy literature concerning athlete role models and the societal value of sport remains scarce. As stated, it is important to emphasize that there is no societal impact of (elite) sport in itself (De Rycke & De Bosscher, 2019), rather the societal impact is the result of the ways that sport is managed, marketed, financed and used (Coalter, 2013). However, sport organisations and elite athletes still face the continued struggle to actively manage their societal impact due to the lack of inspiration or capacity (Taks et al., 2015). To address this, the objective of the Athletes4Society project is to inspire, support and stimulate sport organisations and elite athletes in building their capacity to manage and implement policies, programmes and/or campaigns that increase the public value of sport. Specifically, this project will approach this through capitalizing the potential of athletes as being inspiring societal role models.

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