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Organizing Sports Events: The Promoters' Perspective

Abstract

Purpose: This study sought to develop a battery of items that assess the factors affecting sports events' success from the promoters' perspective, as well as a measurement tool that identifies these stakeholders' main priorities based on the importance-performance analysis (IPA) framework.

Design: The research was conducted using mixed methods. In the first qualitative step, sports event management's main dimensions were identified based on the existing literature, and a comprehensive battery of corresponding items were developed via content analysis of interviews with experts. The second quantitative step focused on Lisbon, the 2021 European City of Sport. Promoters of 21 different medium or large sports events (number = 41 respondents) were asked to fill out a survey ranking each dimension's items by performance and room for improvement. The IPA's results are presented both for the overall sample and by promoter type (i.e., events with or without sports facilities).

Results: The 46 items identified fall into three categories: sports infrastructure, city image and hospitality, and event management (i.e., pre-event, event, and post-event). Pre-event includes stakeholder management, organigram and responsibilities, business plan, marketing mix, risk

assessment, and sponsorship management. Sponsorship management stands out among the areas considered a priority by event promoters.

Originality/value: This study adds to the literature by offering a comprehensive approach to assessing empirically all stages of the event management process.

Keywords: sports management, sports promoter, European City of Sport, Lisbon

1. Introduction

Sports events' success is an important outcome for both organizing entities and the municipalities that host the events (Kaplanidou, Kerwin, & Karadakis, 2013). These events enhance destination image, generate considerable short-term economic benefits, increase tourism for host communities (O'Brien & Chalip, 2008), and produce sustainable long-term legacies (e.g., infrastructure and environment) (Preuss, 2007; Smith, 2014). The most recent literature on this subject highlights that both sports event providers and consumers consider effective event management an important component of sports events' success (Kaplanidior et al., 2013). Thus, understanding the critical success factors of sports event management is of utmost importance in terms of implications for practitioners and advancement of academic theory (Emery, 2010).

Scholars have conducted significant research on sports events' success that has focused specifically on the key factors of bidding processes associated with major sports events (Ingerson & Westerbeek, 2000; Weterbeek, Turner, & Ingerson, 2002). These factors have been grouped into two categories: primary (i.e., political, economic, media, infrastructure, and technical) and secondary (i.e., sociocultural impact, competitiveness, and business support). Weterbeek et al. (2002) further identified eight success criteria: accountability, political support, relationship marketing, ability to organize events, infrastructure, bid team composition, communication and exposure, and existing facilities.

Related studies have, in turn, organized critical success factors in sports event management into four groups: controlled environmental management, funders, the media, and external change factors (Emery, 2010). Sports event organizers thus need to design strategic plans that support their mission and organizational effectiveness (Kaplanidou et al., 2013), including ways to address varied stakeholders' needs, thereby greatly enhancing the chances that

organizations and events will succeed. The latter cited authors argue that small sports event promoters must consider access to quality facilities and ensure a balanced budget, effective training, and successful relationship management. Other event stakeholders are also key elements of the event management process.

According to Kaplanidou et al. (2013), future research in sports event management needs to focus on creating measurement tools to assess critical success factors. Therefore, a central aim of the present study was to create an appropriate evaluation instrument in order to address this research gap. To accomplish this goal, a better understanding was needed of key success factors and issues in stakeholder management during medium or large sports events.

The research context selected was Lisbon, Portugal, given that it is the designated 2021 European Capital of Sport. This award was given in 2017 by the European Capitals and Cities of Sport Federation (ACES Europe), a non-profit association based in Brussels that, each year, assigns the status of European Capital, City, Community, or Town of Sport to cities with more than 500,000 inhabitants. These cities must bid against other European metropolises, which are especially interested in Capital of Sport as this is the most prestigious European title given by ACES Europe.

The award is intended to help the selected city establish good sports policies and practices and host large-scale sports events. This title helps the city attract media coverage and spectators, so this sought-after designation plays an important role in engaging different stakeholders and persuading more individuals to practice sports. European cities often compete fiercely for this award. Notably, Lisbon has recently also received various tourism awards, such as the World Travel Awards' World's Leading City Break Destination 2017 and World's Leading City Destination in 2019.

Three primary research aims were defined for this study:

- To develop a battery of items that can be used to measure the factors impacting sports events' success
- To identify the main priority areas based on the proposed framework and importance-performance analysis (IPA)
- To check whether priority areas vary according to promoter type

2. Literature Review

This section offers a review of the literature related to stakeholders' roles and critical success factors in sports event promotion. More specifically, the review focused on promoters' perspective on what enhances these events' success.

2.1 Sports Events Stakeholders

According to stakeholder theory (Freeman, 2010), companies' best chance of real success lies in satisfying all their stakeholders, including employees, vendors, and government agencies, among others. When this theory is applied to events, it highlights that sports event management, similar to other types of events, needs to serve multiple agendas, and events can no longer just meet the spectators' needs (Bowdin, Allen, O'Toole, Harris, & McDonnell, 2011). According to Varmus et al. (2018), managing relationships with stakeholders is one of the key elements of organizational management.

Emery (2011) identifies the main stakeholders in sports event contexts as sponsors, the media, government entities, service companies, volunteers, spectators, and participating athletes. The cited author asserts that event spectators and participants are the most important stakeholders. Parent and Chappelet (2015) also refer to viewers and athletes as a potential source of income. These individuals are the main reason for sports events, so they deserve special attention regarding how they are treated

and taken into consideration whether through objectives' definition, the measures implemented to achieve the proposed objectives, or the evaluation of the final results and degree of satisfaction achieved.

Government entities are stakeholders because they can play a role at the national, regional, or municipal level as event funders. Government agencies facilitate the issuance of licenses and provide organizational support, infrastructure for event realization, and human resources to help with event organization (Walters, 2011; Westerbeek et al., 2002). In addition, governing bodies, such as sports federations, are decisive in terms of not only enabling and approving specific events but also ensuring their smooth execution by establishing rules and defining regulations in accordance with international laws covering sports practices (Parent & Chappelet, 2015).

Davies (2011) reports that a potentially new trend within sports is a shift from investment for the sake of sports to investment in sports for the better good since sports events can confer a wide range of economic and social benefits to individuals and communities. From a business perspective, Bauman and Matheson (2013) argue that these events' legacy depends on infrastructure that not only facilitates future games but also has broader implications for sustainable business activities in host cities.

Volunteer recruitment is an additional critical component of successful sports events (Hoye, Cuskelly, Auld, Kappelides, & Misener, 2020). Strengthening the role of national voluntary sports organizations is, therefore, of strategic importance as they are considered custodians of their respective sports (Girginov, Peshin, & Belousov, 2017; Swierzy, Wicker, & Breuer, 2018). To attract more volunteers, event managers must align their organizational

objectives with their strategic visions of events, use structured programs, and team up with key development partners (Hallman & Zehrer, 2019; Lee, Kim, & Koo, 2016).

Media coverage is widely thought to increase the public's awareness of host cities (Green, Costa, & Fitzgerald, 2003). Since sports events are produced, marketed, and consumed similarly to other consumer goods, live broadcasts of sports events generate enormous viewing figures and achieve impressive market shares (Horky, 2010; Nylund, 2009). The media's investment has to be significant enough to mobilize audiences to go to sports venues and generate viewers' interest. Moon, Yang, Kim, and Seo (2019) suggest events will become more attractive to corporations and sponsors with objectives related to a range of branding strategies. These entities can use sports events as a platform for building, strengthening, and maintaining their brand image (Woisetschläger & Michaelis, 2012).

Sports events have been perhaps the most heavily studied events in the literature on sponsorship (Rifon, Sejung, Carrie, & Hairong, 2004). Throughout sports, commercial sponsorship is increasing, and this trend shows no signs of slowing down according to Jensen and Butler (2007). Researchers have proposed that corporate sponsorship's effectiveness is a function of the link between sponsors and events, ideally resulting in the transfer of consumers' positive perceptions of events to the sponsoring brands (Brochado, Dionísio, & Leal, 2018; Koo, Quarterman, & Flynn, 2006; Lee & Cho, 2009). Jhnston and Paulsen (2014) note that managers attempt to maximize their sponsors' utility when selecting sponsorships, carefully evaluating the various payoffs provided by the alternatives available.

The advantages companies gain from sponsorships are many and varied in nature. Jensen (2020) reports that, in the context of English football, every point gained per game decreases by 54% the probability that sponsors will cancel their agreement with a team. Nickell, Cornwell, and Johnson (2011) also argue that extreme congruity or extreme incongruity between sponsors

and sports events drives brand awareness more dramatically than the expected level of sponsor-property congruity. In contrast, some authors, such as Cornwell and Johnston (2011), claim that sponsorship-linked marketing most dramatically influences those sponsors with a moderate amount of established brand attitude, suggesting a U-shaped relationship between awareness and congruency. Others, including Kang and Matsuoka (2020), assert that commercially oriented purpose articulation does not improve sponsor-sponsee fit as much as noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation. The former results in less favorable attitudes toward sponsors.

According to Tsotsou (2011), successful sponsorships involve the exchange of valued resources based on each partner's contribution, leading to balanced relationships and satisfied partners. The cited author could not, however, find any significant effects of sponsorship announcements on sponsoring firms' stock prices, suggesting that shareholders' reactions to sports sponsorship-related business activities are limited. Kwon and Cornwell, (2020) also found a statistically non-significant positive effect of partnership deal announcements on shareholder wealth. Nonetheless, Boronczyk and Breuer (2021) found evidence of a direct transfer of both brand attitudes and brand personality traits between concurrent events and sponsors.

Sponsorships can be related to a range of brand and strategic objectives, but exploiting event-brand associations is often the main objective of sports organizations' sponsors (Henseler, Wilson, & Westberg, 2011). Large international companies, in particular, use sports events as a platform for building, strengthening, and maintaining their brand image (Woisetschläger & Michaelis, 2012). However, these firms must implement a variety of evolving sponsorship program protection strategies because the publicity and consumer audiences generated by sports events provide attractive marketing opportunities for companies other than the events' official sponsors (Mckelvey & Grady, 2008). Finally, sports promoters must manage participants' duties

and activities and co-ordinate these contributors' work to ensure events satisfy the needs of international sports associations, sponsors, and other stakeholders (Cserháti & Polák-Weldon, 2013).

2.2 Key Factors in Sports Event Organization

Previous studies, such as Bauman and Matheson's (2013) work, have revealed that sports event management's success is related to exogenous factors. These include host cities' existing sports infrastructure, image, and hospitality.

2.2.1 Sports Infrastructure

Sports facilities' characteristics are of the utmost importance to the organization of sports events and a strategic element that can be used to promote and enhance sports experiences successfully (Kaplanidou et al., 2013; Kruger & Saayman, 2012; Tzetzis, Alexandris, & Kapsampeli, 2013; Westerbeek et al., 2002). Heetae, Hyun-Woo, and Pyun (2019) also found that stadium environments influence individuals' desire to stay and their revisit intentions.

2.2.2 City Image and Hospitality

One major social impact of sports events is improvements in host cities' image such as increased recognition and a more positive external image, but city image also impacts peoples' attitudes including, among others, their word of mouth and revisit intentions (Kolotouchkina, 2018; Tavakkoli, 2016). Karadakis, Kaplanidou, and Karlis (2010) further underline the existing infrastructure's importance and connection with host cities' image, asserting that a positive, well-known image can be considered a vital condition for successful events. Perceptions of events' legacy can vary widely and cover competition-, sports-, and non-sports-related experiences (e.g., tourism) (Malchrowicz-Mosko, Margaritis, & Rozmiarek, 2017).

Sports events can become mediators of social change (Ong & Goh, 2018), and the local community's support can have an important role in developing a positive reputation for hospitality (Kaplanidou et al., 2013; Preuss & Solberg, 2006). Oshimi and Harada (2016) identified the major factors in how well host cities' image stimulates affection or a feeling of appreciation for events. These factors include the cities' atmosphere, suitability for the event, and business, entertainment, leisure, and sports environments, as well as the presence of green spaces.

According to Moon et al. (2019), residents' perceived quality of life influences their support for mega sports events. Scholtz, Slabbert, and Saayman (2019) further found that residents have four main motivations to support events: city development, avoidance of negative impacts, community upliftment, and increased tourism activity. Tourism is a multi-dimensional socioeconomic phenomenon that has always been related to leisure time and activities (Mylonopoulos, Moira, Papagrigoriou, & Karagianni, 2007). Sports tourism has experienced considerable growth (Weed & Bull, 2009), and it is currently considered an important sector capable of attracting large groups of visitors. These tourists contribute to host destinations' economy, enhance awareness of host cities, and promote the preservation of local culture (Wang & Jin, 2019).

2.2.3 Sports Event Management

Event success is the result of organizational effectiveness in which various stakeholders cooperate to contribute to the event experience (Chalip, Green, Taks, & Misener, 2017; Kaplanidou et al., 2013). Event management encompasses three main phases: (1) pre-event, (2) event, and (3) post-event (Kruger & Saayman, 2012).

2.2.3.1 Pre-event Phase

The planning stage of hosting a mega event plays a crucial role in obtaining positive event legacies, which is why managers should place much more emphasis on leverage strategies leading up to events (Chalip, 2018; Chalip & Heere, 2013; Gao, 2018). Karadakis et al.'s (2010) research suggests that the most important tactics used to organize sports events are to have in place specific infrastructure, volunteers, a strong economy, and the organizers' good political standing. In contrast, weaknesses in sports event organization stem from a lack of infrastructure, the host country's size, and political and economic instability.

Events need to include entertainment programs, which can help develop the host city's image (Oshimi & Harada, 2016). Kaplanidou et al. (2013) suggest that a feeling of celebration can be achieved through creating moments of social interaction, producing parallel events, and developing visual communication that reinforces feelings of the local community's wellbeing and self-expression. Sports promoters have to compete in the broader entertainment market (Funk, Filo, Beaton, & Pritchard, 2009). Masterman (2004) thus suggests that, when events are planned, each stakeholder must be offered a value proposition. The value component is often manifested when consumers have to make a choice between various leisure activities and then choose a specific sports event in line with their personal value system (Pons, Mourali, & Nieck, 2006).

Therefore, sports managers and researchers need to investigate the motivations that drive decisions to attend events. If promoters want to follow a customer-orientation strategy, a marketing management process should also be included in sports event management (Constantinescu, Caescu, & Ploesteanu, 2012). Schwarz, Hunter, and Lafleur (2013) assert that sports marketing professionals must take into account their different target markets, while Doyle,

Kunkel, and Funk (2013) confirmed that these groups significantly differ from one another on attitudinal and behavioral measures.

Sports events' marketing mix needs to be developed based on the following four main policies: (1) product, (2) price, (3) communication, and (4) distribution (Mihai, 2013). Product policy is the definition of the value proposition to be delivered to each stakeholder involved, which is especially important for participating athletes and spectators. Fullerton and Merz (2008) also recommend avoiding an overly narrow view of sports event marketing, which has the primary task of selling tickets and putting fans in seats at organized sports events.

Any marketing mix's centerpiece is the product (Mihai, 2013), namely, anything that satisfies a need or wish and that is acquired to do this. In sports, marketers have no control over the core product—the game. However, products can also be services, ideas, and the benefits that sports organizations offer consumers. Many such organizations offer services such as physical activities, entertainment, or experiences (Funk, 2017).

Creating a pricing strategy is integral to sports organizations' success because it has a significant impact on the positive outcomes of the overall sports event marketing plan (Mihai, 2013). The demand for sports can be affected by other factors besides the event ticket price, such as travel costs and travel time costs. Ticket prices for sports events, fees for personal seats, and cable television fees paid for sports channels determine the costs of participating in recreational sports events, all of which are examples of the key role of pricing in sports marketing. In addition, Løyland and Ringstad (2009) report that, in sports, no direct correlation exists between individuals' income and the price level at which they participate in sports events.

Various elements of strategic communication and management have been found to have a possible impact on sports events. These factors range from interpersonal public relations and

organizational stakeholder interactions to media rights negotiations and social media promotional initiatives (Pederson, 2012). Sports event promotion can be done by adopting a multimedia communication strategy in television, radio, and outdoor and press advertising, in alignment with strategies using the media and social media networks. Westerbeek et al. (2002) point out that communication takes on a highly significant role as a way to highlight the host city or event location's image, which is fundamental to events' dissemination and the organizing entities' success, as well as that of other stakeholders' satisfaction.

According to Rowe (2012), communication and sports have been shown to be of indissoluble, intrinsic importance as a focus of sociocultural organizations, activities, identities, affect, and capital accumulation. In particular, social media is becoming the ideal tool for sustaining two-way dialogues (Abeza, O'Reilly, & Reid, 2013; Özsoy, 2011). Westerbeek and Shilbury (1999), among other researchers, also refer to facilities' importance as an outlet for social interactions and a way to maximize spectators' enjoyment. Factors related to sports events' physical location can have a favorable or unfavorable effect on the marketing plan's outcomes.

To ensure a favorable effect, sports facilities must be easily accessible (i.e., highway systems, parking areas, walkways, and ramps), and these facilities should have an attractive physical appearance (i.e., well maintained and painted). They also need to offer a pleasant, convenient, and functional environment (i.e., quick, easy access to concessions; clean restrooms; and smoke- and odor-free spaces). Furthermore, the facilities should have safe, pleasant surroundings (i.e., adequate public safety and security personnel and an attractive neighborhood) (Mihai, 2013).

Event organizers usually invest extremely large quantities of resources in planning, implementing, and managing events, and these investments often raise concerns among organizers, who regularly worry about their return on investment (ROI) due to costs (Gao, 2018). In this context, Wang and Yang (2010) conceptualize risk as sudden unforeseen crises that require immediate action. Security management for sports and special events deals specifically with natural disasters, terrorism, crowd control, and other large-scale threats (Hall, Cooper, Marciani, & McGee, 2012). According to Mosadeghi, Barr, and Moller (2019), host cities can thus derive significant benefits by ensuring the integration of a geographic information system as part of events' management.

Urban spaces are packed with visitors on event days, which affects accessibility to pedestrian spaces. Pratiwi, Zhao, and Mi (2015) observe that perceived pedestrian satisfaction with accessibility during events is related to these individuals' perception of the ease with which they can access events. For example, perceptions of traffic safety can be reinforced not only by sidewalks within walking distance of sports facilities but also by comfortable facilities that give pedestrians the feeling of being fully mobile and safe and secure from crime (Pratiwi et al., 2015).

2.2.3.2 Event Phase: Implementation of Defined Short-, Medium-, and Long-term

Strategies

First-time events are more likely to use a technical plan than subsequent events are (Emery, 2010). According to Masterman (2004), two phases need to be considered regarding events' implementation: implementation planning and event implementation. The planning phase is often when only short-term requirements are considered. At this point, organizers need to determine which operational strategies, human resources, partnerships, suppliers, services, sales,

and marketing are necessary to execute the intended event successfully. The implementation phase involves executing all the necessary plans during events, which will allow organizers to achieve short-term objectives for key stakeholders.

In this phase, evaluations are needed (Masterman, 2004) to provide the basis for improved future performance with regard to managing games, opening and closing ceremonies, games-related events and cultural activities, visitor spending, media coverage and exposure, and volunteer activities. In particular, logistics management is a crucial part of local and global sports events (Herold, Breitbarth, Schulenkorf, & Kummer, 2019). The latter cited authors propose four sports logistics management pillars: venues, sports equipment, athletes, and fans and spectators. In addition, counter-ambush measures must be taken to protect sponsors (Burton & Chadwick, 2009; Yun, Kim & Cheong, 2020) since sports events' official sponsors must increasingly confront companies that try to create an association with events without paying sponsorship fees (Wolfsteiner, Grohs & Reisinger, 2021).

2.2.3.3 Post-event Phase: Legacy

Major sports events often leave behind new or upgraded facilities. The equipment and facilities generated are naturally expected to enhance sports development efforts in local communities (Taks, Misener, Chalip, & Green, 2013), but these high-end facilities often involve excessive maintenance costs and seldom meet residents' sports participation needs (e.g., Horne, 2007). Thus, post-event evaluation should consist of numerous reports, and events should not be finished until evaluations' findings and other feedback have been disseminated (Masterman, 2004).

Bell and Daniels (2019) assert that sports events' effects may be quite positive for participants, but studies have found limited evidence of longer-term impacts. However,

Ramchandani, Coleman, and Christy (2017) report that attending major sports events contributes to subsequent changes in spectators' sports participation behavior and other significant aspects. Notably, Byers, Hayday, and Pappous (2020) argue that the conceptualization of legacy delivery has largely relied on a positive, utopian idea of legacy. Thomson, Kennelly, and Toohey (2020) add that no universally accepted definitions for the terms legacy and social legacy exist, observing that social legacies have been conceptualized as soft legacies and thus as apparently nonquantifiable.

Thus, Chappelet (2012) suggests that legacies need to be talked about in the plural rather than as a single legacy because sports events' effects can be perceived in various ways. These impacts range from tangible or intangible to territorial or personal and intentional or unintentional and reflect various event stakeholders' perspectives. The outcomes include potential economic, tourism, social, physical, and/or environmental aspects that should be examined in the post-event phase (Thomson, Schlenker, & Schulenkorf, 2013). Weed & Bull (2009) split these consequences into demonstration effects, whereby events can contribute to increasing the frequency with which actual participants engage in sports, and festival effects, whereby events may stimulate non-participants to contemplate doing physical activities.

Assessments of impacts should be conducted after events based on previously defined short-, medium-, and long-term objectives (Masterman, 2004). Short-term evaluations are related to events' costs, benefits, and impacts, so these assessments are performed immediately after events. Event sponsors often emphasize the importance of legacies' environmental and socioeconomic components, but events' environmental impacts are difficult to assess quantitatively as they are complex and they often occur over extended periods (Collins, Jones, & Munday, 2009). Meenaghan and O'Sullivan (2013) also highlight a measurement deficit due to

the practice of evaluating sponsorship effectiveness using the two main metrics currently employed by the industry: media exposure and sponsorship awareness. In terms of media coverage, Masterman (2004) identifies three main issues that evaluations should answer: sponsor visibility, sightings, and media coverage objectivity.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research Design

The present study used a sequential exploratory mixed-methods research design, namely, a qualitative phase followed by a quantitative phase (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2020). The qualitative analysis sought to address the first research objective: to generate a pool of items with an impact on sports events' success. The quantitative analysis concentrated on the second and third objectives: to identify priority areas based on the IPA framework and to test whether priorities vary according to promoter type.

3.2. Qualitative Phase

The qualitative analysis was designed to develop the item pool associated with sports events' success. This phase included secondary data collection through desk research (i.e., a literature review) and primary data collection based on interviews with experts (see DeVellis [2017]). The 8 expert interviews targeted 8 sports event promoters—5 from federations and clubs and 3 from private companies.

The interview guide encouraged each participant to comment on the initial pool of items regarding sports infrastructure, host city image and hospitality, and event management, which were extracted from the literature. The interviewees were asked to assess the items' relevance, accuracy, and completeness and to suggest new items related to pre-, during and post-event

management. Each interview lasted from 1 to 2 hours. The interviews were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed by two researchers independently to ensure the results' reliability.

Given the concentration of items in the pre-event phase, the two researchers further classified those items into six subcategories: stakeholder management, organigram and responsibilities, business plan, marketing mix, risk assessment, and sponsorship management. The researchers' classifications were congruent for almost all items. The three exceptions were further classified by a third researcher. The final list of items in each category identified in the qualitative phase is shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Main Dimensions of Event Organization and Management

Dimensions		No. of Items	Items	Main Authors
Sports Infrastructure		6	External infrastructure's quality and pleasantness, lavatories' cleanliness, indoor and outdoor sports facilities that meet professional sports' regulatory requirements, quality of transportation services provided by events, sports facilities' accessibility, and availability of parking near sports facilities	Cho, Lee, and Pyun (2019); Karadakis et al. (2010); Kruger and Saayman (2012); Ong and Goh (2018); and Westerbeek et al. (2002)
City Image and Hospitality		8	City ambiance, business environment, sightseeing tours and leisure activities, sports-related atmosphere, overall level of security, hospitality services, transportation systems, and residents' hospitality	Karadakis et al. (2010), Kolotouchkina (2018), Moon et al. (2019), Oshim and Harada (2016), Scholtz et al. (2019), and Tavakkoli (2016)
Event Management				
Pre-event	Stakeholder Management	9	Identification of main audiences that event organizers should include in planning and implementation phases; definition of objectives for local authorities, for sports federations, organizations, and regulatory agencies, for athletes, for spectators, for the media, for sponsors, and for volunteers; and definition of which main client segments to target	Bowdin et al. (2011), Emery (2011), and Jihnston and Paulsen (2014)
	Organigram and Responsibilities	6	Definition of organogram: identification of departments, subdepartments, and their respective overall responsibilities;	Cserháti and Polák-Weldon (2013) and Walters (2011)

Dimensions	No. of Items	Items	Main Authors	
Event		identification of tasks: detailed discrimination of general tasks to be fulfilled by each department and subdepartment; definition and scheduling of critical path; allocation of responsibilities to employees: identification of each employee's objectives, tasks, and responsibilities; and task analysis	Westerbeek et al. (2002)	
	Business Plan	3	Identification and solicitation of events' funding sources, cost evaluation, and financial control: treasury control and periodic review of costs and revenues	Chalip (2018), Gao (2018), Hallman and Zehrer (2019), and Lee et al. (2016)
	Marketing Mix	4	Product strategy and resulting value propositions for spectators and participants, communication strategy, pricing strategy, and distribution strategy	Horky (2010), Jensen and Butler (2007), Mckelvey and Grady (2008), Mihai (2013), Nylund (2009), Schwarz et al. (2013), and Woisetschläger and Michaelis (2012)
	Risk Assessment	3	Analysis of possible sources of risks and/or threats that can create problems for event organizers, risk assessment of probability of any risk occurring and its impact's potential size, and adoption of measures that can avoid, reduce, share, or assume the risks identified	Mosadeghi et al. (2019) and Pratiwi et al. (2015)
	Sponsorship Plan	3	Sponsorship framework, brand activation, and assessment of event sponsors' ROI	Brochado et al. (2018), Henseler et al. (2011), Masterman (2004), and Woisetschläger and Michaelis (2012)
	Project Implementation	3	Event implementation according to strategies developed to achieve short- and medium-term objectives, as well as long-term strategies that ensure events' potential legacies, and event implementation that includes gathering feedback to maintain a continuous, progressive assessment process throughout the entire implementation phase	Masterman (2004)
Post-Event	Satisfaction Survey	1	Satisfaction survey administered to event spectators, athletes, and other relevant audiences	Chappelet (2012), Taks et al. (2013), and Thomson et al. (2013)

3.3 Quantitative Phase

The target population for the present study's quantitative phase comprised the directors of the most representative clubs and national federations located in Lisbon, which had organized sports events in the last three years, according the City Hall's information (number = 136 names). The directors usually play the main role in event organization. However, in some less-structured sports events, the coaches also have a significant role.

The questionnaire was pre-tested in 10 personal interviews conducted by the researchers with the directors and coaches of clubs and federations that have organized sports events in the last three years. The pre-test fulfilled two purposes. The first was to assess the content validity of the battery of items related to sports event organization derived from the literature. Content validity can be determined by conducting a "subjective but systematic evaluation of the representativeness of the content of a scale for the measurement task at hand" (Brochado, 2009, p. 181). As the event organization dimensions were developed based on an extensive literature review and the battery of items was then subjected to experts' feedback and evaluation in personal interviews, the scale items were expected to cover adequately the entire domain of the constructs under analysis. The pre-test's second purpose was to improve the statements' wording.

Subsequently, the survey's online version was sent by email to the list provided by the Lisbon City Hall, which was followed up by a personalized phone call to each member of the target population. The final sample included 41 promoters of clubs and federations from 21 different sports, which had had experience organizing a medium or large sports event in the city in the last 3 years. In addition, the sample comprised organizers of both indoor and outdoor sports.

The final survey included four main sections. The first contained questions about the respondents' role and the sports events they had organized in the previous three years. In the second section, the respondents were asked to use a Likert five-point rating scale to evaluate the importance (1 = "Not important"; 5 = "Extremely important") of sports infrastructure and city image and hospitality, as well as Lisbon's performance (1 = "Low"; 5 = "High") in these areas. This section's approach was based on the most frequently used IPA framework in previous research (Mohsin, Rodrigues, & Brochado, 2019).

The third section comprised the battery of items assessing event management in the pre-event, event, and post-event phases. This section employed a modified IPA. Each item was measured in terms of importance (1 = "Not important"; 5 = "Extremely important") and room for improvement (Easingwood & Arnott, 1991) with regard to performance. The survey data were interpreted based on an IPA framework with four main steps:

- Step 1—descriptive analysis of the respondents' importance and performance ratings
- Step 2—measurement of the gaps between importance and performance with paired-samples tests for each item (i.e., Wilcoxon test)
- Step 3—interpretation of the results using IPA 2-dimensional maps
- Step 4—reliability analysis (i.e., Cronbach's alpha) and dimensionality (i.e., factor analysis)

In the third step, the statistically significant importance-performance pairs were interpreted based on importance-performance (i.e., two-dimensional) maps that visualized the pairs' importance and performance ratings (Martilla & James, 1977). The values were based on a scale running from low to high scores. Martilla and James (1977, p. 79) observe that IPA's value "lies in identifying relative, rather than absolute levels of importance and performance."

Crosshair placement was used to divide the maps into four quadrants in order to prioritize sports event attributes. IPA maps use crosshairs centered on importance and performance average values (Mohsin et al., 2019). Based on their location within cells, attributes are classified as major or minor strengths and weaknesses. Figure 1 below presents the managerial decisions linked with each quadrant. IPA is a simple, effective technique that can be used to prioritize attributes in terms of how significant they are to improving sports events' service quality (Martilla & James, 1977).

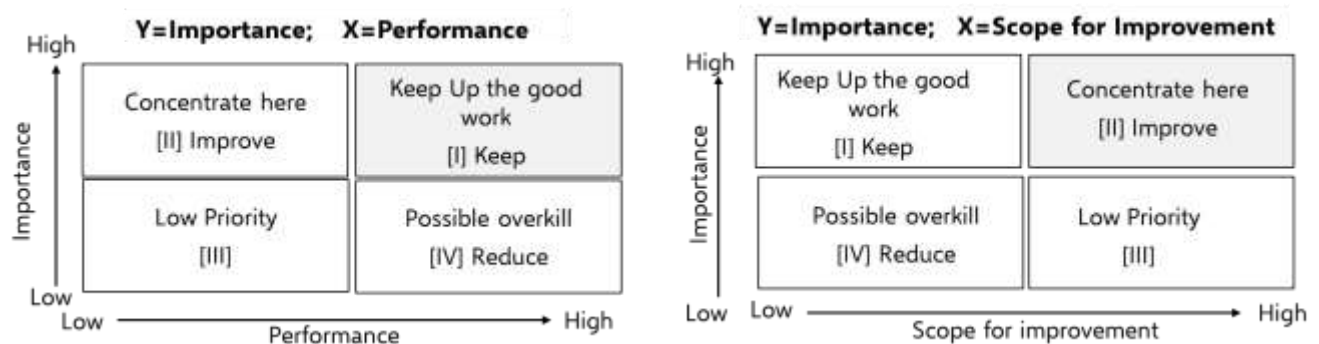


Figure 1. IPA maps: on the left side, Y = importance and X = performance; on the right side, Y = importance and X = room for improvement

The items that need improvement appear in Quadrant II in IPA maps (see the far left and right sides of Figure 1), that is, items with lower-than-average performance and higher than average importance. These maps are developed based on scores assigned to reflect the items' scope for improvement and their importance. The items that also require managers' attention are those located in Quadrant I (e.g., higher than average room for improvement and higher than average importance) (see the quadrants in the center of Figure 1). Companies should thus not only keep up the good work for items located in Quadrant I that exhibit higher performance and importance than average but also focus more on items placed in Quadrant II that register high importance and room for improvement.

The attributes placed either in Quadrant III (see the far left and right sides of Figure 1) or Quadrant IV (see the quadrants in the center of Figure 1) have low priority as they are low in importance and performance or low in importance and high in room for improvement, respectively. The attributes falling into either Quadrant IV or III are at risk for possible overkill because of their low importance. To address this study's third objective, the IPA maps were designed to organize the pairs (i.e., room for improvement in performance and importance) according to promoter type.

4. Analysis and Discussion of Results

4.1 Sports Infrastructure and City Image and Hospitality

The descriptive statistics included the mean values and rankings by importance and performance (see Table 2). Regarding sports infrastructure, the most important attributes are cleanliness, external infrastructure, and accessibility. Regarding city image and hospitality, the respondents ranked security first, followed by transportation systems and hospitality services. The paired samples Wilcoxon test's results reveal that a gap exists between importance and performance for all six sports infrastructure items and for three of the eight city image and hospitality items.

Table 2

IPA of Sports Infrastructure and City Image and Hospitality

Item		Importance		Performance		Wilcoxon Test		Quadrant (Fig. 2)*
<i>Sports Infrastructure</i>		Mean	Rank		Rank	Z	P-value	
SI1	The external infrastructure's quality and pleasantness	4.47	4	4.00	8	-3.27	*	I
SI2	The lavatories' cleanliness	4.61	1	3.89	9	-3.50	*	II

SI3	Indoor and outdoor sports facilities that meet professional sports' regulatory requirements	4.34	7	4.00	7	-2.28	*	I
SI4	Quality of transportation services provided by the events	4.13	13	3.68	12	-3.15	*	III
SI5	Sports facilities' accessibility	4.47	3	4.00	6	-3.14	*	I
SI6	Availability of parking near sports facilities	4.39	5	3.58	14	-3.65	*	II
<i>City Image and Hospitality</i>								
CI1	The city's ambiance	4.30	9	4.27	1	-0.18		I
CI2	The business environment	3.51	14	3.84	10	-1.65		III
CI3	The sightseeing tours and leisure activities	4.14	12	4.24	3	-0.59		IV
CI4	The sports-related atmosphere	4.30	9	3.84	10	-2.69	*	II
CI5	Overall level of security	4.54	2	4.27	2	-2.50	*	I
CI6	Hospitality services (e.g., hotels, restaurants, and bars)	4.32	8	4.11	5	-1.21		I
CI7	Transportation systems (i.e., public and private)	4.38	6	3.59	13	-3.41	*	II
CI8	Residents' hospitality	4.19	11	4.22	4	-0.35		IV

* Statistically significant at the 5% level

* Quadrant I = Keep up the good work; II = Concentrate here; III = Low priority; IV = Possible overkill (see Figure 1 above).

The IPA's results indicate that all attributes in Quadrant I (i.e., "Keep up the good work") show Lisbon's major strengths in multiple areas. These include the quality of the external infrastructure, indoor and outdoor sports facilities, and sports facilities' accessibility. The overall level of security is also included in this quadrant.

Quadrant II (i.e., "Concentrate here") comprises quite important attributes associated with low performance levels from the consumers' perspective. These attributes are related mainly to cleanliness, the availability of parking near sports facilities, public transportation systems, and the city's sports-related atmosphere.

Quadrant III (i.e., “Low priority”) includes the attributes that respondents see as both unimportant and low performance areas, which are mainly connected to the quality of transportation services provided by events. Quadrant IV (i.e., “Possible overkill”) does not include any statistically significant importance-performance pairs (see Table 2 above and Figure 2).

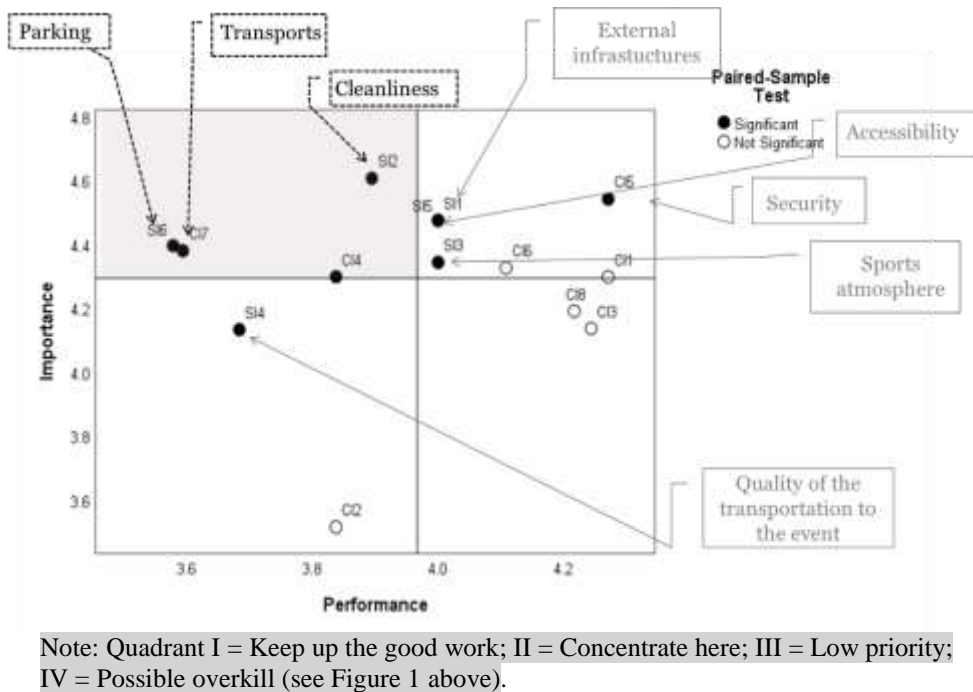
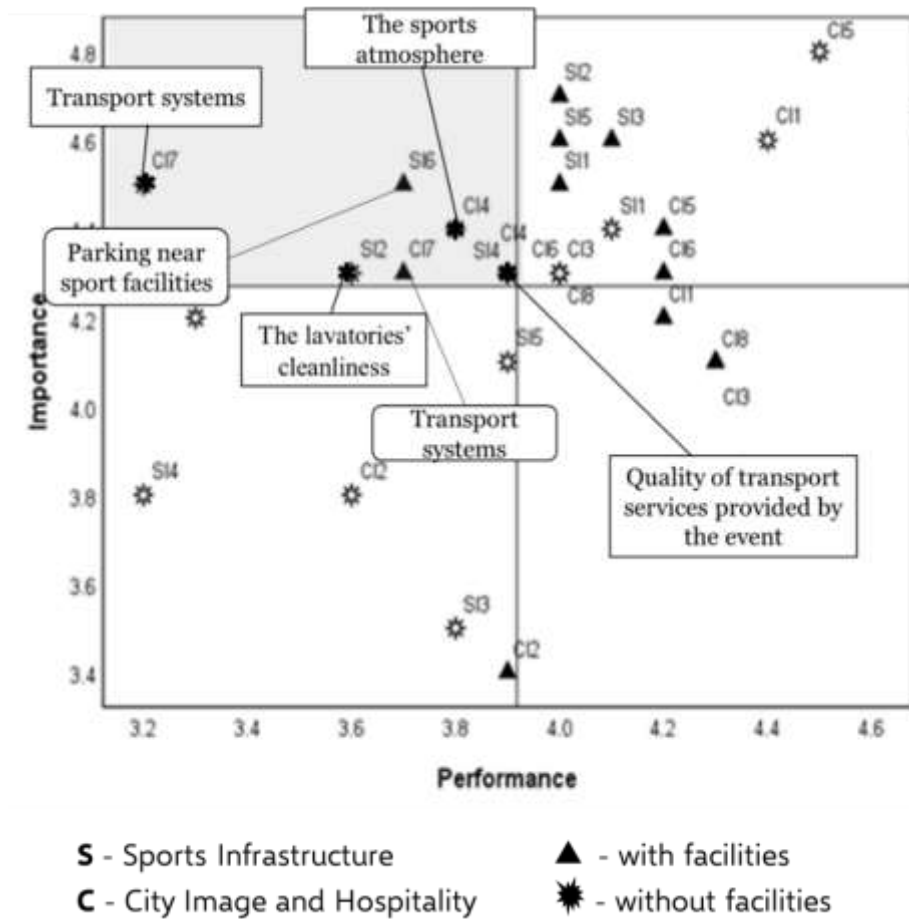


Figure 2. IPA map (scale-centered approach)

The present study’s sample included event promoters with distinct characteristics, namely, those who organize sports events that need facilities such as pavilions and other physical structures and others that take place in public spaces without much need for physical infrastructure. The concerns of these two groups were analyzed, this time by promoter type (see Table 2 above and Figure 3).



Note: Quadrant I = Keep up the good work; II = Concentrate here; III = Low priority; IV = Possible overkill (see Figure 1 above).

Figure 3. IPA map (scale-centered approach) by type of promoter

Sports event promoters with no need of infrastructure such as pavilions and other facilities are primarily concerned about venues' accessibility and the quantity and quality of transportation systems used by event participants and spectators. In addition, as seen in the overall sample's results, the cleanliness of public toilets is both a concern and an aspect that needs improvement. Indoor event planners, in turn, are particularly interested in improving parking areas and transportation to facilities.

4.2 Event Management

The descriptive statistics for event management attributes include the mean values and rankings according to importance and room for improvement (see Table 3). The three sponsorship plan attributes (i.e., sponsorship framework, brand activation, and assessment of event sponsors' ROI) are ranked among the top five in terms of importance and funding. The identification of events' sources of funding (i.e., business plan) is ranked the third most important item overall.

Table 3

Importance and Performance Analysis of Event Management

Item		Importance		Room for Improvement		Wilcoxon Test		Quadrant (Fig. 4) *
		Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Z/P-value		
<i>Stakeholder Management</i>								
SM1	Identification of the main audiences that the events' organizers should include in the planning and implementation phases	4.24	21	3.62	11	-3.58	*	IV
SM2	Definition of objectives for local authorities	4.00	29	3.49	16	-2.37	*	III
SM3	Definition of objectives for sports federations, organizations, and regulatory agencies	4.27	20	3.49	15	-3.19	*	III
SM4	Definition of objectives for athletes	4.32	17	3.27	28	-2.60	*	III
SM5	Definition of objectives for spectators	4.19	24	3.62	10	-2.87	*	IV
SM6	Definition of objectives for the media	4.32	18	3.78	8	-3.23	*	IV
SM7	Definition of objectives for sponsors	4.51	10	3.89	4	-3.73	*	I
SM8	Definition of objectives for volunteers	4.08	27	3.27	28	-3.39	*	III
SM9	Definition of which main client segments to target	4.03	28	3.35	24	-4.45	*	III
<i>Organogram and Responsibilities</i>								
OR1	Definition of the organogram: identification of departments, subdepartments, and their respective general responsibilities	4.56	8	3.28	27	-4.32	*	II
OR2	Identification of tasks: detailed discrimination of general tasks to be	4.64	4	3.31	26	-4.44	*	II

Item		Importance		Room for Improvement		Wilcoxon Test		Quadrant (Fig. 4) *
		Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Z/P-value		
	fulfilled by each department and subdepartment							
OR3	Definition and scheduling of the critical path	4.42	13	3.36	22	-3.92 *		II
OR4	Allocation of responsibilities to employees: identification of each employee's objectives, tasks, and responsibilities	4.53	9	3.36	21	-4.18 *		II
OR5	Task analysis	4.58	6	3.42	19	-4.36 *		II
Business Plan								
BP1	Identification and solicitation of the events' funding sources	4.64	3	3.92	3	-3.84 *		I
BP2	Cost evaluation	4.36	14	3.64	9	-3.55 *		I
BP3	Financial control: treasury control and periodic review of costs and revenues	4.58	6	3.50	14	-3.92 *		II
Marketing Mix								
MM1	Product strategy and the resulting value propositions for spectators and participants	4.11	26	3.36	22	-3.50 *		III
MM2	Communication strategy	4.50	11	3.89	5	-3.11 *		I
MM3	Pricing strategy	3.89	30	3.06	31	-3.02 *		III
MM4	Distribution strategy	3.81	31	3.17	30	-2.69 *		III
Risk Assessment								
RA1	Analysis of possible sources of risks and/or threats that can create problems for the events' organizers	4.36	14	3.47	17	-3.58 *		II
RA2	Risk assessment to evaluate the probability of any risk occurring and its impact's potential size	4.22	22	3.58	12	-2.84 *		IV
RA3	Adoption of measures that can avoid, reduce, share, or assume the risks identified	4.42	12	3.58	13	-3.82 *		I
Sponsorship Plan								
SP1	Sponsorship framework: definition of the correct sponsorship framework showing the benefits associated with each type of sponsorship commensurate with its level of investment	4.64	4	3.86	6	-3.44 *		I

Item		Importance		Room for Improvement		Wilcoxon Test		Quadrant (Fig. 4) *
		Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Z/P-value		
SP2	Brand activation	4.67	2	3.83	7	-4.02 *		I
SP3	Assessment of event sponsors' ROI via an analysis of returns in terms of the event image's exposure in the media and among spectators who attend events	4.75	1	3.94	2	-3.82 *		I
Project Implementation								
PI1	Event implementation according to the strategies developed to achieve short- and medium-term objectives	4.36	14	3.33	25	-3.75 *		II
PI2	Event implementation according to long-term strategies that ensure the events' potential legacies	4.19	23	3.39	20	-3.22 *		III
PI3	Event implementation that includes gathering feedback to maintain a continuous, progressive assessment process throughout the entire implementation phase	4.28	19	3.44	18	-3.24 *		III
Satisfaction Survey								
SS1	Satisfaction survey administered to event spectators, athletes, and other relevant audiences regarding the quality of the competition, installations, and accesses; the enhancement of visitors' experiences; process of buying and selling tickets; customer service; and quality of merchandising and sales outlets, as well as other products and services associated with events	4.14	25	4.00	1	-0.53		IV

* Statistically significant at the 5% level.

* Quadrant I = Concentrate here; II = Keep up the good work; III = Low priority; IV = Possible overkill (see Figure 1 above).

The second most important event management dimension is, according to the respondents, the organogram, and responsibilities, which encompasses four out of the five items in this category in the top 10 items in terms of importance. The identification of tasks and task

analysis are especially relevant. Almost all the importance and room for improvement items are statistically significant, with the single exception of the satisfaction survey.

The results shown in Table 3 above highlight items mostly included in the pre-event phase, except for project implementation and the satisfaction survey. As previously mentioned, these items stemmed from the research's exploratory phase due to the absence of a complete existing scale that could evaluate all the components of business and marketing plans for sports events.

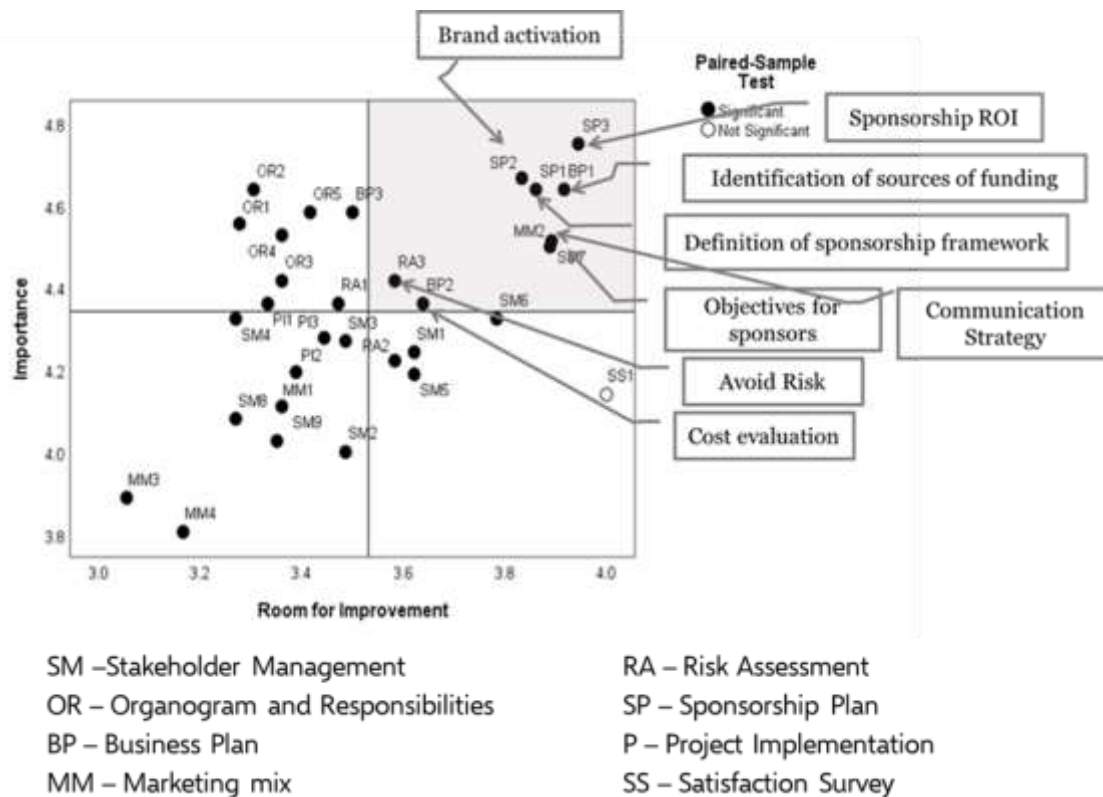
As performance was measured in terms of room for improvement, the attributes located in the IPA map's Quadrant I are associated with the suggestion to "concentrate here." The items rated highly important but with extensive room for improvement from the event managers' perspective included the three items related to the sponsorship plan: the sponsorship framework, brand activation, and assessment of event sponsors' ROI. This quadrant also includes two business plan items, namely, cost evaluation and the identification and solicitation of the events' funding sources. Other priority areas for intervention include the adoption of measures that can avoid, reduce, share, or assume the risks identified (i.e., risk assessment) and definition of objectives for sponsors (i.e., sponsorship management) and a marketing strategy (i.e., marketing mix).

The IPA's results indicate that all attributes in the "Keep up the good work" quadrant show Lisbon has major strengths in multiple areas (i.e., highly important and little room for improvement). This quadrant includes the five items related to organogram and responsibilities: definition of the organogram, identification of tasks, definition and scheduling of the critical path, allocation of responsibilities to employees, and task analysis. Other items in this quadrant

are financial control (i.e., business plan) and analysis of possible sources of risks and/or threats that can create problems for the events' organizers (i.e., risk assessment).

The "Low priority" quadrant includes the attributes that respondents see as unimportant with much room for improvement, which are mainly connected to stakeholder management. These items are the identification of the main audiences that the events' organizers should include, three items related to the planning and implementation phases, and the definition of objectives for spectators and the media. This quadrant also includes one risk management item, namely, a risk assessment to evaluate the probability of any risk occurring and its impact's potential size.

Quadrant IV (i.e., "Possible overkill") includes three marketing mix items: product strategy and the resulting value propositions for spectators and participants, pricing strategy, and distribution strategy. This quadrant also encompasses five items from sponsorship management. These are the definition of objectives for local authorities; definition of objectives for sports federations, organizations, and regulatory agencies; definition of objectives for athletes; definition of objectives for volunteers; and definition of main client segments to target. Quadrant IV further includes two project implementation items. These are event implementation according to long-term strategies that ensure the events' potential legacy and event implementation that includes gathering feedback to maintain a continuous and progressive assessment process throughout the entire implementation process (see Figure 4).

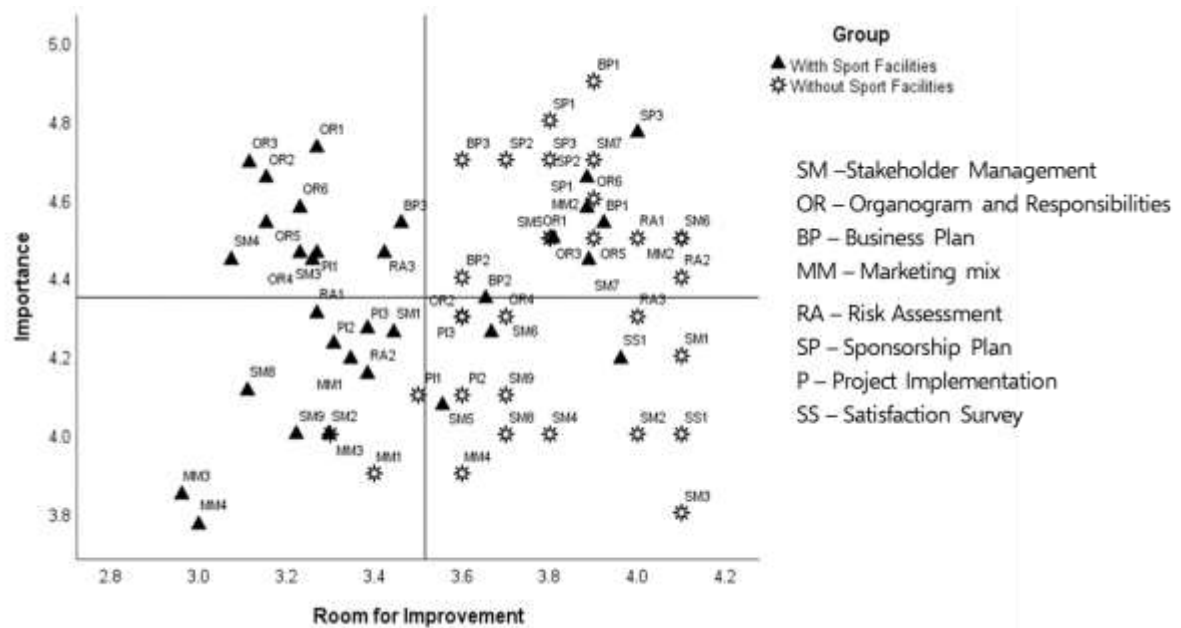


Note: Quadrant I = Concentrate here; II = Keep up the good work; III = Low priority; IV = Possible overkill (see Figure 1 above).

Figure 4. IPA map (scale-centered approach).

4.3 Analysis by Promoter Type

The next round of analysis focused on the interviewees' answers regarding the various types of promoters, which were divided into either event promoters requiring physical facilities or those working without such facilities since the needs are different in each case. The results for promoter type (see Figures 5 and 6) reveal that sports event organizers' perspectives on physical infrastructure include diverse and detailed concerns about aspects that need to be improved (i.e., 15 items). However, some event promoters are more objective about their priorities, as shown by the seven items in Quadrant I.



Note: Quadrant I = Concentrate here; II = Keep up the good work; III = Low priority; IV = Possible overkill (see Figure 1 above).

Figure 5. Importance-performance map (scale-centered approach) by type of promoter (Quadrant I).

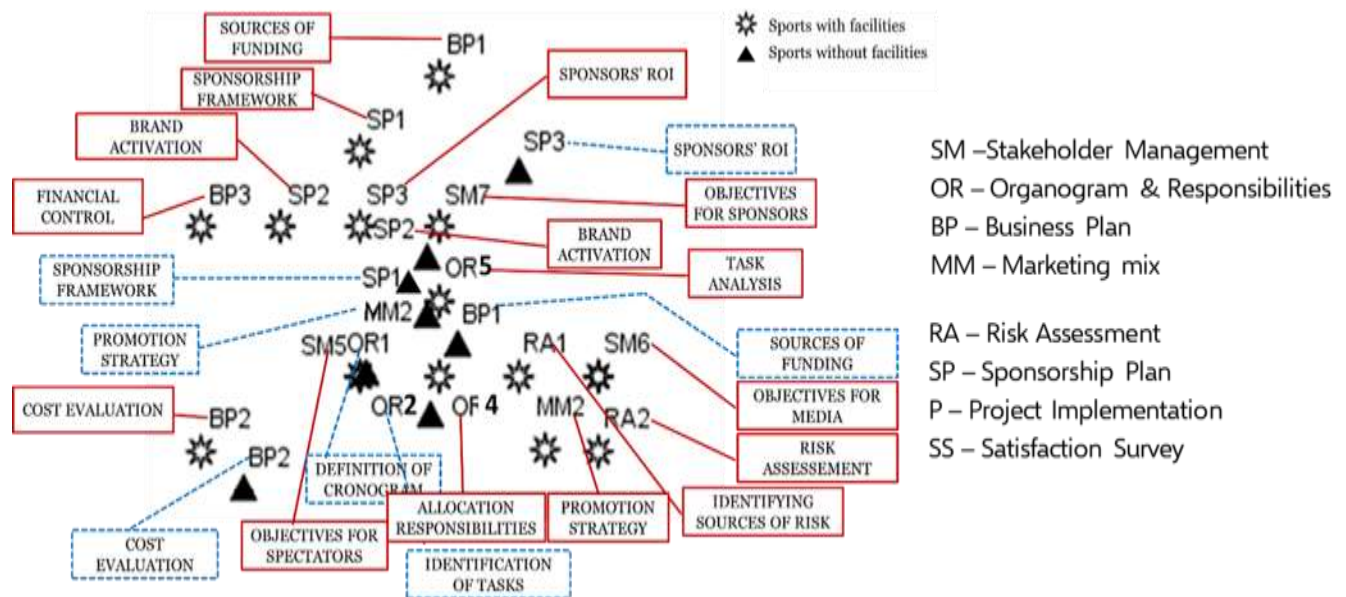


Figure 6. Detail of Quadrant I in Figure 5.

4.4 Reliability Analysis

The reliability of a summated scale, in which various items are averaged to produce an overall score, can be evaluated by applying the internal consistency reliability concept. More specifically, reliability is measured with Cronbach's alpha coefficients (Cronbach, 1951). This coefficient ranges from 0 to 1, and a value of 0.7 or less shows unsatisfactory internal consistency reliability (Malhotra, 2019). As shown in Table 4, the Cronbach's alpha for importance varies between 0.86 for marketing mix and 0.96 for project implementation and sponsorship plan. The coefficient for room for improvement varies from 0.77 for business plan to 0.96 for project implementation. The percentage of variance explained is higher than 70% for all sets of items.

Table 4

Reliability Analysis and Scale Means

Item	Importance 1 (Scale Items)				Room for Improvement			
	Average	Cronbach's Alpha	% Variance explained	Ranking	Average	Cronbach's Alpha	% Variance explained	Ranking
SM	4.22	0.90	74.70	6	3.53	0.93	73.11	4
OR	4.56	0.90	80.31	2	3.36	0.95	81.21	7
MM	4.08	0.86	71.32	7	3.37	0.87	73.38	6
BP	4.53	0.80	76.33	3	3.69	0.77	74.98	2
RA	4.33	0.88	81.20	4	3.55	0.88	83.01	3
PI	4.28	0.96	89.21	5	3.39	0.96	91.96	5
SP	4.69	0.96	84.71	1	3.88	0.91	70.61	1

5. Discussion and Conclusions

This study applied a sequential exploratory mixed-methods research design to achieve three objectives: to develop a battery of items that can be used to measure the factors affecting sports events' success, identify the main priority areas, and check whether priority areas vary

according to promoter type. In the following paragraphs, the objectives are linked with the data collected in the discussion and conclusions.

Regarding the first objective, the proposed research model was developed based on previous studies. The model compared three main dimensions of sports event organization and management: sports infrastructure, city image and hospitality, and event management (i.e., pre-event, event, and post-event). Pre-event includes stakeholder management, organigram and responsibilities, business plan, marketing mix, risk assessment, and sponsorship management. The content analysis of data collected in interviews with experienced sports managers produced a battery of 46 items that can be used to evaluate sports event management. The heavy concentration of items in the pre-event phase shows that promoters consider planning the primary factor in successful event management (Emery, 2010).

The present study's second and third objectives were to identify the main priority areas of Lisbon sports event management using the selected IPA framework and check whether priority areas vary according to promoter type. The two categories are those who organize events using facilities and those who do not need facilities. The results show that particular importance is attributed to those aspects that, from the event promoters' perspective, correspond to consumers' greatest sources of anxiety—in this case, the existence of transportation and parking capacity and the cleanliness of the places where events take place. These findings reinforce the work of authors such as Herold et al. (2019), who underscore the importance of well-planned logistics. By promoter type (i.e., with or without facilities), transportation to venues was referred to by promoters without facilities, but parking was more often mentioned by sports event promoters that require facilities.

The events' overall atmosphere was also highlighted by promoters as necessary to attract consumers. The existence of good infrastructure, safety, and the ability to provide a good environment at events were also mentioned as linked to a good performance in the specific research setting. These aspects reinforce the need for proper planning already in the pre-event phase and confirm infrastructure's importance, which was previously confirmed by Kruger and Saayman (2012), Masterman (2004), and Westerbeek et al. (2002).

Regarding management during events, the existing literature emphasizes the importance of predefined management objectives designed for each stakeholder and accurate applications of marketing strategies, among other factors. The present study's results are also clear. The various sports events promoters interviewed expressed major concerns about sponsors' satisfaction and monitoring of sponsors. Among the aspects considered indispensable, namely, those on which attention should be focused, the findings include items such as the need for a specific framework for sponsorship and the identification of funding sources and ways to promote brand activation. Additional significant items were evaluations of sponsors' ROI and good communication campaigns for events, which were also highlighted by Rowe (2012).

As can be seen in Figure 6 above, these concerns are more prominent among promoters of events without facilities **because these professionals do not have ticket revenues**. However, these items are also mentioned by other promoters. In general, the interviewees expressed great interest in identifying objectives and evaluating results, which is in line with Masterman (2004), Meenaghan and O'Sullivan (2013), and Wolfsteiner et al.'s (2021) results.

Notably, event legacy's importance in terms of social impacts, infrastructure, or spectators' sports participation behavior (Preuss, 2007) does not appear to be a major concern among promoters. This finding could be explained by Portugal's already quite good

infrastructure resulting from the organization of Euro 2004 and the Portuguese people's strong appetite for sport. Another explanation might be a somewhat egocentric perspective that makes promoters more concerned, after an initial analysis, about raising funds and finding and maintaining sponsors rather than about other legacies.

This research makes two clear theoretical contributions. First, the results contribute to a better understanding of the critical success factors of sports event based on an integrated framework. The literature shows that previous studies in this field have either focused primarily on the key success factors linked with the bidding process (Westerbeek et al., 2002) or merely called for a measurement tool to assess critical success factors (Kaplanidou et al., 2013). Second, the IPA results contribute to a fuller understanding of priority areas in the management of medium or large sports events in Lisbon, which is the 2021 European Capital of Sport.

Although the research was conducted in a medium-sized European city, the results can most likely be generalized to other host cities. The findings also have potential managerial implications regarding stakeholder management. The first is that city authorities need to develop better event support through special public transportation and public facilities for non-stadium and arena events in order to generate a more positive city image. The second implication is that promoters of non-stadium and arena events that have no ticket revenues must develop better value propositions to attract sponsors. This strategy, in turn, develops more hospitality and event management opportunities, attracting more spectators and increasing media coverage.

The last implication is that the findings help sponsors understand promoters' concerns more fully. Sponsors should seek to develop more proactive sponsorship activation strategies that will lead to more fan engagement, thereby generating better ROI due to increased numbers of live or media spectators. In addition, the pandemic crisis is a global factor of increasing

importance for promoters who pay attention to key success factors, especially in terms of sport infrastructure and event management.

Regardless of the above significant contributions, this study was subject to some limitations. The battery of items identified demonstrated the expected content validity, but the items were derived from the literature and tested on sports managers operating in a specific research context. Another limitation was related to the sports promoter interviewees' links with large and medium-sized sports competitions that had occurred in Lisbon, Portugal, in a specific three-year period. Future studies could apply the proposed model and battery of items in different research contexts. This research focused on sports event promoters' point of view, so another area that merits further study is additional important stakeholders' perspectives on successful events, such as athletes, spectators, sponsors, the media, or city governments.

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