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1 **Remapping the Sport Brandscape: A Structured Review and Future Direction for Sport Brand**  
2 **Research**

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25 **Remapping the Sport Brandscape: A Structured Review and Future Direction for Sport**  
26 **Brand Research**

27

28 **Abstract**

29 Despite consistent interest in sport brands and the multitude of brands in the sport ecosystem,  
30 extant knowledge remains fragmented and unstructured. The purpose of this study is to integrate  
31 and synthesize extant sport brand research, appraise the current state of knowledge, and suggest  
32 future research directions. Following structured literature review guidelines, we coded 179 peer-  
33 review articles published in four leading sport management journals between 2000-2020. Results  
34 reveal increased publications in the area of sport brand research within the four examined  
35 journals, as well as opportunities to increase theoretical and methodological rigor. Based on the  
36 mapping and critical review of extant literature, we introduce the Sport Brand Ecosystem &  
37 Environment and discuss two distinct and complementary areas related to *theory and research*  
38 *designs* and *topical domains* to address existent concerns and guide future research directions.

39

40 *Keywords:* Branding; Consumer behavior; Strategy; Management; Marketing; Sport organization

41

42     **Remapping the Sport Brandscape: A Structured Review and Future Direction for Sport**  
43                                     **Brand Research**

44             Branding, an essential part of marketing and management, is a source of brand equity,  
45 competitive advantage, and differentiation from competitors (Kapferer, 2012). The International  
46 Organization for Standardization (ISO, 2019) defines a brand as an “intangible asset [. . .]  
47 intended to identify goods, services or entities [. . .] creating distinctive images and associations  
48 in the minds of stakeholders, thereby generating economic benefit/values.” High brand equity is  
49 associated with a host of positive organizational and personal outcomes including increased  
50 sales, higher consumer loyalty, ability to charge price premiums, and enhanced marketing  
51 communication efficacy (Keller, 1993; Kotler & Keller, 2015). Brand equity also benefits  
52 consumers through increasing confidence in consumption decisions, facilitating brand-related  
53 information processing, and leading to higher use satisfaction (Aaker, 2009). As a result,  
54 practitioners and scholars alike have sought to understand brand management.

55             The quantity of sport brand research published in top sport management journals has seen  
56 a dramatic increase over the past decade as scholars seek to understand brand positioning  
57 strategies and how brands associated with leagues, teams, athletes, and sponsors influence  
58 consumer attitudes, intentions, and behaviors (Kunkel & Biscaia, 2020). Sport brand research has  
59 generated a multitude of results and findings; however, organizing these conclusions to generate  
60 meaningful insight is challenging due to the broad nature of the topic and lack of overarching  
61 structure. Much of this research can be piecemeal and disjointed, lacking in theoretical  
62 grounding or established connections between disparate research streams (Funk, 2017).

63             To capitalize on an opportunity to synthesize sport brand research in a manner which can  
64 help drive theoretical and managerial impact, we conducted a structured review of research

65 focused on sport brands. We position this review in the sport brand ecosystem framework  
66 (Kunkel & Biscaia, 2020), which was conceptualized to comprise federations, leagues, teams,  
67 individual athletes, events, and other sport-related non-profit and commercial/sponsor brands.  
68 This framework was established on the basis of brand architecture (Aaker & Joachimsthaler,  
69 2000), where athletes are defined as sub-brands while their teams are master brands (e.g., Na et  
70 al., 2020; Su et al., 2020; Williams et al., 2015) and teams are defined as sub-brands while their  
71 leagues are master brands (e.g., Kunkel et al., 2013, 2014, 2017), and provides a starting point  
72 from which we can organize the extant literature to identify connections, locate inconsistent  
73 conceptualizations and findings, and generate a roadmap for future research directions. Based on  
74 the review of existing sport brand research, we developed an overview of past, present, and  
75 future research directions and identified patterns within the published literature. These patterns  
76 build on the valuable extant work, illuminate the latent structure underlying existing sport brand  
77 research, identify (under)utilized theories, and allow us to identify areas that merit greater  
78 scholarly attention. We introduce the Sport Brand Ecosystem & Environment and provide  
79 theoretical, methodological, and focus-specific recommendations for future sport brand research.

### 80 **Literature Review Strategy**

81 Consistent with our goals to synthesize the existing sport brand research, appraise its  
82 state, and reflect on the future research directions, we conducted a structured literature review  
83 (Page et al., 2021). A structured literature review represents a “method for examining a corpus of  
84 scholarly literature, to develop insights, critical reflections, future research paths and research  
85 questions” (Massaro et al., 2016, p. 767), and provided a framework for our search, review, and  
86 assessment of relevant studies from the above-mentioned publications. Our approach featured  
87 structured identification and review of articles, coding, and quantitative analyses, which allowed

88 us to create a broad summary of the state of the field, while also documenting the path of our  
89 exploration through predetermined article inclusion and exclusion criteria and detailed decision-  
90 making process (Pickering & Byrne, 2014; Thomson et al., 2019, 2020).

91         The review focused on existing sport brand-related research published in four prominent  
92 sport management and sport marketing journals, namely: *Journal of Sport Management (JSM)*,  
93 *Sport Management Review (SMR)*, *European Sport Management Quarterly (ESMQ)*, and *Sport*  
94 *Marketing Quarterly (SMQ)*. Our journal selection criterion was based on the journals' impact  
95 within the discipline (Massaro et al., 2015). Each of the four chosen journals represents a major  
96 sport management or marketing publication, affiliated with an influential academic association  
97 within sport management, and indexed in Clarivate's Social Sciences Citation Index and Journal  
98 Citation Reports. We identified the years of 2000-2020 as the timeframe for eligibility of  
99 publications for the study because prior work has shown that most of the early major  
100 advancements in sport brand research occurred in the early- to mid-2000s (Kunkel & Biscaia,  
101 2020). Developments since 2000 provide the impetus to drive a research agenda over the next  
102 two decades and beyond.

103         Data were collected through a structured approach based on predetermined keywords  
104 (Pickering & Byrne, 2014). Specifically, to collect the data, we accessed the archives on the  
105 respective websites of all four journals and manually identified and coded all relevant articles.  
106 Article identification and analysis was comprised of three steps: 1) reading of titles, keywords,  
107 and abstracts to identify articles that contained the words "brand," "brands," or "branding" in the  
108 beforementioned attributes, 2) re-reading abstracts to shortlist the articles relevant to the study,  
109 and 3) text analysis thorough reading and coding the shortlisted articles (de Araújo et al., 2017;  
110 Shan & Robinson, 2006).

111           Between the years 2000-2020, the four journals collectively published 2,635 publications,  
112 which included 2,234 academic articles ( $N_{JSM} = 662$ ,  $N_{SMR} = 625$ ,  $N_{ESMQ} = 470$ ,  $N_{SMQ} = 477$ ), as  
113 well as editorial notes, book reviews, commentaries, digests, and practitioner interviews. Of  
114 those academic articles, 179 contained words “brand,” “brands,” or “branding” in at least one of  
115 the title, author keywords, or abstract, and were related to the topic of sport branding. These  
116 articles ( $N_{JSM} = 42$ ,  $N_{SMR} = 43$ ,  $N_{ESMQ} = 28$ ,  $N_{SMQ} = 66$ ) represented the sample for our review.  
117 While some relevant articles could have been inadvertently omitted, considering the number of  
118 papers selected, the sample offered a comprehensive representation of sport brand research  
119 conducted over the past two decades (Massaro et al., 2015). The overview of data collection flow  
120 is presented in Figure 1.

121   [INSERT FIGURE 1 APPROXIMATELY HERE]

## 122 **Descriptive Analyses**

123           As a part of our structured literature review, to provide an outlook on the state of sport  
124 brand research and how that literature has evolved, we employed a coding framework to conduct  
125 a series of quantitative descriptive analyses on the identified sample (Massaro et al., 2015). This  
126 approach allowed us to identify emerging trends, providing a more comprehensive perspective  
127 on the state of research compared to a descriptive-based narrative literature review (Pickering &  
128 Byrne, 2014). These analyses included examining how many sport brand-related articles were  
129 published in each of the four focal journals over time as well as reviewing the theoretical  
130 foundations in which studies were grounded, study context, and patterns in keywords that  
131 authors used in describing their research. In addition, we conducted a methodological assessment  
132 that determined the prevalence and limitations of the employed research methods.

133           A careful examination of the research context is necessary to interpret research findings  
134 (Funk, 2017). Therefore, we examined the sport-brand context along four dimensions. First, we  
135 report on the frequency with which each sport appears in our article corpus. Second, we  
136 categorized articles based on their primary focus (consumer, organizational strategy,  
137 employee/internal branding, or other). Third, we examined the level of the focal brand (e.g.,  
138 league, team, athlete, or sponsor). Finally, we evaluated how often studies focused on a single  
139 brand versus the interactions between multiple brands.

140           For theoretical foundations, we focused on theories or models explicitly listed by authors  
141 as guiding their research. Where authors described academic concepts (e.g., brand equity or  
142 brand image), we captured that information even when a reference to a specific named theory or  
143 theoretical model was absent. This approach helped to determine the extent to which previous  
144 work has been grounded in theory or emerged using logic-driven approaches. To analyze  
145 prevalent themes in the collected body of research, we conducted a textual network analysis on  
146 the co-occurrence of the author keywords (i.e., how often two keywords were listed in  
147 association with the same article) using VOSviewer software (van Eck & Waltman, 2010),  
148 version 1.6.12. A total of 135 articles (75.4%) we reviewed had keywords specified, yielding a  
149 total of 577 keywords and phrases (393 unique). Prior to analysis, we combined synonymous  
150 terms (e.g., collegiate sport and college athletics), plural and singular forms, and variant spellings  
151 (e.g., different English spelling conventions). After combining synonymous terms, plural and  
152 singular forms, and variant spellings, we obtained a reduced list of 326 unique words and  
153 phrases. We examined how often keywords appeared as well as the keyword co-occurrence  
154 network that reflects how often pairs of keywords appeared together.



155 In examining research methods, we first categorized published articles a macro level  
156 (quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods, or conceptual). Continuing to examine the statistical  
157 approaches to branding research, we further delved into papers that employed quantitative  
158 methods (quantitative or mixed methods) and examined their research procedure and robustness  
159 of results (e.g., number of studies, inclusion of power analysis, and effect size). To facilitate our  
160 assessment, we classified studies involving quantitative data into five categories: descriptive,  
161 cross-sectional, experimental design, mixed-method, and longitudinal, considering both the  
162 timeframe of the data collection and the purpose of the research design.

163 Since an important aspect of structured literature reviews is identifying the future  
164 research recommendations (Massaro et al., 2015), we conducted a content analysis of the future  
165 research directions of articles ( $n = 62$ ) published in the last three years of the publication  
166 timeframe within the dataset (i.e., 2018-2020). We selected three years given the fast-changing  
167 nature of the modern sports business landscape and the long time it takes for academic articles to  
168 go from the inception of the research idea to the initial journal submission, to final publication.  
169 We also delimited it to this timeframe as it is logical that articles published later in our defined  
170 timeframe (i.e., 2018-2020) would have been at least in part led by the future directions offered  
171 in earlier work (i.e., 2000-2017). Results of these analyses are presented in the next sections.

## 172 **Results**

173 In this section, we present the results of our structured literature review. We begin by  
174 reporting the prevalence of sport branding-related research in our four focal journals since 2000.  
175 Next, we present results of our analysis of keywords and keyword co-occurrence as a means of  
176 understanding which topics are most prominent and relationships between those topics in the  
177 sport branding literature. Third, we examine the research contexts in which sport branding

178 research takes place, including what sports, perspectives, brand level, and whether studies  
179 investigated interactions between multiple sport brands. We continue by highlighting the  
180 methodological choices made by sport branding scholars, first at a macro level and then looking  
181 at specific methods with a focus on quantitative research and analysis. In the next section, we  
182 report on the theoretical foundations that authors report using to support their research. Finally,  
183 we conclude with results of our analysis of future research directions suggested by authors in  
184 articles published in the past three years (i.e., 2018-2020) to understand where sport branding  
185 researchers recommend the field advance next.

### 186 **Publication Outlets**

187       Articles included in our review represent approximately 8.0% of those published by the  
188 four journals since 2000, ranging from 6.0% of articles in *ESMQ* to 13.8% of articles in *SMQ*.  
189 Despite publishing fewer articles overall, *SMQ* led the way with 66 brand-related articles (13.8%  
190 of all articles), reflecting the journal's narrower scope and focus on sport marketing topics.  
191 *ESMQ* published the fewest sport branding articles, with just under half (12 of 28; 42.9%)  
192 coming in 2020, presumably driven by a special issue on “Exploring new routes within brand  
193 research” (Ströbel, & Germelmann, 2020). As can be seen in Table 1 and Figure 2, there is an  
194 overall increasing trend in the number of sport brand-related articles published, rising to a high  
195 of 30 in 2020, the most recent year examined. Interestingly, 2019 was an aberration, with only  
196 eight sport branding articles published during this time. This may reflect the impact of two  
197 special issues in 2020 attracting submissions and leading to some authors directing their research  
198 to one of those issues in preference to regular submission that might lead to publication in 2019.  
199 Previous research has found that on average, articles published in special issues have shorter  
200 time from submission to publication (Olk & Griffith, 2004). By contrast, research from

201 marketing finds promotions are associated with dips both before and following promotional  
202 activity (Macé & Neslin 2004); a similar effect could occur around special issues.

203 [INSERT TABLE 1 AND FIGURE 2 APPROXIMATELY HERE]

#### 204 **Author Keywords**

205 The quantitative and textual network analyses of the author keywords revealed prevalent  
206 research topics and the relationships between them. Keyword count suggested that most common  
207 keywords were sponsorship ( $n=23$ ), brand ( $n=20$ ), brand management ( $n=16$ ), social media  
208 ( $n=14$ ), and marketing ( $n=10$ ). We provide a list of keywords that were associated with more  
209 than five articles in Table 2. Further, analysis of author keyword co-occurrence (van Eck &  
210 Waltman, 2010) elucidated nuances within focal areas. For example, the keyword athlete brand  
211 was closely associated with social media. Other similar terms such as athlete endorser were  
212 paired with concepts like advertising. These insights reveal the enhanced impact that social  
213 media has had on branding at the individual athlete level, and how this has been captured within  
214 scholarly research pursuits. Brand-related keywords like brand management, brand development,  
215 and brand perceptions were regularly used together, showcasing the importance of considering  
216 consumer perspectives (perceptions), in driving brands forward (development) and guiding  
217 overall business strategies (management). Interestingly, keywords related to professional sport  
218 (e.g., NFL) were commonly paired with terms like attendance and sponsorship, whereas  
219 keywords related to federations (e.g., IOC) were more likely to be used in conjunction with  
220 social representation, co-branding, and a focus on events. While the use of keywords may be  
221 subjective, and restrictions on not using keywords that appear in the title are imposed by some  
222 outlets, this analysis provides additional insights into the network of topics concurrently

223 examined within our sample and the state of sport branding research. The results of network  
224 analysis are pictured in Figure 3.

225 [INSERT TABLE 2 AND FIGURE 3 APPROXIMATELY HERE]

### 226 **Sport-Brand Context**

227 Findings revealed the prevalence of research in mainstream sports and a lack of  
228 perspectives on non-mainstream, niche, and emerging sports. The most common sport context  
229 was soccer ( $n=38$ ), followed by American football ( $n=18$ ), basketball ( $n=15$ ), and baseball  
230 ( $n=11$ ). Further, most articles focused on a consumer perspective ( $n=135$ ), followed by  
231 organizational strategy ( $n=25$ ). This highlighted the prevalence of consumer behavior research  
232 and shortage of strategic brand management perspectives (Kunkel & Biscaia, 2020). Brand level  
233 showed a relatively less concentrated pattern. Team-level brands ( $n=64$ ) were most often studied,  
234 followed by sponsors ( $n=46$ ), athletes ( $n=36$ ), and events ( $n=30$ ). Most of the articles ( $n=96$ )  
235 reported on studies that involved a single brand, while a sizable minority ( $n=81$ ) included  
236 multiple brands, confirming prior observations that scholars tend to study sport brands in  
237 isolation (Kunkel & Biscaia, 2020). There is some evidence that the proportion of brand-related  
238 articles that assess multiple brands has increased recently, as multi-brand studies have been a  
239 majority each year since 2018. Detailed results are provided in Tables 3-5 and Figure 4.

240 [INSERT TABLES 3-5 AND FIGURE 4 APPROXIMATELY HERE]

### 241 **Theoretical Foundations**

242 Analysis of patterns of usage of theoretical foundations showed the diversity of theories  
243 currently used in sport brand research, yet also a strong tendency to gravitate toward heavily  
244 drawing on few selected frameworks. Across the set of papers in the structured review, authors  
245 listed more than 40 theories or theoretical models as the theoretical foundation for their research.

246 Many of these theories were named only once or a few times. Those named relatively frequently  
247 included social identity theory (e.g., research on consumer identification with sport and sponsor  
248 brands), schema theory (e.g., research on brand relationships and brand personality, including  
249 sponsor and sport brands), congruence or congruity theory (e.g., research on implications of  
250 sponsor-sponsee brand fit), associative network theory or the associative network memory model  
251 (e.g., research on brand co-promotions), and network theory (e.g., research on fan and brand  
252 communities). Theories that are commonly referenced in mainstream branding research that were  
253 named relatively infrequently in our corpus include signaling theory and balance theory. Authors  
254 frequently referred to broad areas that are not specific theories as their theoretical foundation.  
255 Common examples include brand equity ( $n=30$ ), brand association ( $n=14$ ), brand personality  
256 ( $n=10$ ), brand image ( $n=10$ ), and human brands ( $n=10$ ).

### 257 **Methodological Approaches**

258 Findings highlighted dominance of quantitative methodologies in empirical sport brand  
259 research studies. Nearly all of the articles in our review (95.0%) reported the results of empirical  
260 studies, with approximately two-thirds of those articles using quantitative research methods.  
261 Overall, 114 (63.7%) of the papers we reviewed were quantitative and 49 (27.4%) were  
262 qualitative. Mixed method approaches that incorporated both quantitative and qualitative  
263 approaches in the same project were relatively infrequent, accounting for only seven articles  
264 (3.9%).

265 We conducted a methodological assessment of 121 papers that incorporated quantitative  
266 methods (quantitative or mixed methods). The most common analytic method was analysis of  
267 variance (ANOVA, including MANOVA), which was used in 43.8% of the quantitative articles  
268 we examined. Other common analysis methods included structural equation modeling (primarily

269 covariance-based or CB-SEM) and linear regression. Results reveal that most of the branding  
270 research relies on cross-sectional studies. Only two (1.6%) were longitudinal or had longitudinal  
271 components.

## 272 **Research recommendations**

273         Largely, future directions published in the sample of papers reflected either limitations of  
274 the studies reported in the article or general best practices advice for research design. That is, it  
275 was overwhelmingly common for authors to suggest replicating their studies and results in  
276 different countries, cultural environments, and sport settings. Many authors recommended  
277 employing longitudinal data collections, despite the fact that longitudinal designs were almost  
278 entirely absent from the sport branding literature. Suggesting additional sport contexts,  
279 particularly recommending replication in women's sport, was common, although authors rarely  
280 provided any indication of why or in what ways the specific sport context might advance theory.

281         While many of the suggested future research directions appeared largely formulaic, we  
282 want to recognize that some authors actively engaged with their results to suggest future research  
283 designed to build specifically on their conclusions. Such recommendations are necessarily  
284 idiosyncratic to a specific research project and thus are numerically dwarfed by generic, anodyne  
285 suggestions. Yet, these exceptional cases represent what scholars should do to promote continued  
286 theoretical advances and a literature that builds upon itself for incremental knowledge  
287 generation.

## 288 **Discussion**

289         In this section, we first discuss the most common theoretical perspectives and emerging  
290 trends in sport branding literature, then we critically examine the methodological approaches  
291 used by sport branding researchers. The state-of-the-art picture on sport branding research

292 reveals prevalent tendencies as well as important gaps in theory building and methodological  
293 rigor that require future attention.

#### 294 **Theory**

295         The field of sport brand research is broad, as indicated by the complex sport brand  
296 ecosystem, which explains why authors examining sport brands draw on a wide range of  
297 literature and theory as the foundation for their research. Sport management scholars have  
298 actively differentiated their field from mainstream business and developed their own theories  
299 (Chalip, 2006), which may explain why signaling theory or balance theory have not been utilized  
300 frequently to examine sport brands. One unique aspect of the sport industry is the connection of  
301 brands within the sport brand ecosystem. Therefore, research examining a brand in isolation  
302 without considering effects of associated brands provides limited value to sport brand  
303 knowledge, as sport brands interact – particularly from a consumer perspective (Kunkel et al.,  
304 2013).

305         There are linguistic differences on the definition of theory and theoretical frameworks,  
306 yet commonly a theory describes a general principle or body of principles offered to explain  
307 phenomena (Merriam-Webster, 2021) and theoretical frameworks refer to a systemic and  
308 detailed explanation of how and why phenomena occur and thus form the foundation to  
309 formulate theories (Henderson et al., 2004). Our review indicates authors strive to build their  
310 research on theoretical foundations, yet often mislabel broad, atheoretical areas as theory. For  
311 example, Keller's (1993) foundational article focused on customer-based brand equity that built  
312 the foundation for some of the most cited articles in the field of sport brand research (e.g.,  
313 Gladden & Funk, 2002) is more a classification than a theory. This shows that sport brand  
314 research can be relevant and impactful by examining a phenomenon without contributing to a

315 specific theory or can be used to establish programmatic research focused on knowledge-  
316 building as “one study is unlikely to fully explain a sport management phenomenon or address a  
317 research question” (Funk, 2019, p.9).

318         While Lewin (1945) famously held that “nothing is as practical as a good theory” (p.  
319 129), theory building has become a must-have checkbox in academia, such that authors routinely  
320 describe even merely descriptive results as a theoretical contribution. This uncovers either a  
321 confusion in relation to what theory is or an aspiration to *sell* as theory something that is not yet  
322 theory. Good theory captures causal relationships; that is, the *why* embedded in the relationships  
323 between phenomena or concepts (van Knippenberg, 2011). Theorizing, on the other hand, relates  
324 to the early, essential stages of theory development (Weick, 1995). Merely describing the  
325 relationships between constructs without revealing why these relationships exist is insufficient  
326 for adequate theoretical understanding (Doherty, 2013). However, interim struggles toward  
327 mature theories also should not be devalued (Weick, 1995). Chelladurai (2013) observed that  
328 theorizing represents a continuum, and although “a classificatory scheme does not have the same  
329 status as a full blown and established theory, it is also true that developing a classification of the  
330 observed phenomena is fundamental to any form of scientific inquiry” (p. 23). As such, pre-  
331 theoretical works are a necessity for developing sound theory (Weick, 1995). As a discipline,  
332 sport management serves a twin role as both an explanatory science, conducting descriptive and  
333 predictive research, and a prescriptive science, conducting diagnostic and prescriptive research to  
334 understand causal relationships and generate recommendations for how to bring about desired  
335 outcomes. **Therefore, sport branding researchers are in a unique position to build upon logical**  
336 **arguments grounded in observed phenomena, prior experience, and existing knowledge, resulting**



337 in meaningful pre-theoretical work that will prove useful in addressing the challenges of building  
338 our own theory in sport management (Fink, 2013)

339 Ideally, knowledge building and theory building happen at the same time, when findings  
340 are generalizable beyond the context and the research contributes to a higher degree of progress  
341 along the contribution continuum (Ladik & Steward, 2008). However, given the rapid  
342 development of sport brand practices mainly driven through technological innovation (Ratten,  
343 2020), sport brand researchers, reviewers, and editors should consider the relevance and potential  
344 impact of research findings (Levy & Grewal, 2007) – particularly in exploratory research settings  
345 as authors may contribute knowledge to the field without fully formulating the theoretical  
346 underpinning of the observed findings – to spark knowledge generation. Following a  
347 programmatic research approach, this can lead to a combined effort of the field to develop  
348 impactful research. Meanwhile, we encourage authors not to suggest that their research is based  
349 on theory when it is not, merely to satisfy a desire to satisfy academic norms. We further call for  
350 authors to carefully embed their research in theory rather than tangentially mention or allude to a  
351 theory or theories, so that theoretical contributions become more evidentiary and impactful.

### 352 **Methodological Approach**

353 Our review reveals several threats to the methodological rigor in sport branding research,  
354 especially when examining the dominant quantitative approach. First, the limitation of cross-  
355 sectional studies' predictive ability was discussed within some of the papers we reviewed;  
356 however, collectively, the prevalence of cross-sectional designs makes it difficult to generalize  
357 about dynamic relationships among sport brands and their stakeholders. Specifically, cross-  
358 sectional analyses based on linear models cannot provide accurate results as variables are  
359 assumed to remain constant over time, thus failing to address chronological variability (Spector,

2019). Moreover, as exogenous variables and outcomes are simultaneously assessed, there is generally little evidence of temporal causality. It is likely that the relationships measured in sport branding research vary over time, especially since fans' relationships with sport brands are likely to deepen when brands maintain relationships or dwindle over time when facing intense competition. This is particularly relevant when examining sport brands within a network of associations as those relationships are highly subject to change (Daniels et al., 2019), for example, the transitory nature of a team roster as individual athletes join and depart. As a result, longitudinal data is particularly valuable since it can be used to establish a causal relationship between the different factors that determine consumers' desired branding outcomes. To date, longitudinal investigations of sport branding have been centered on the development and change of brand associations and team identity of new teams (e.g., Kunkel et al., 2016; Wear & Heere, 2020). However, other important variables like brand personality, brand loyalty, and brand fit should also be investigated longitudinally. Experimental design has become increasingly popular in recent years, but most of these studies relied solely on a single study design. In 39 experimental studies, only three incorporated three studies, while eight used two studies. Out of these 11 multi-study articles, only four used different stimuli between experiments.

Second, experimental designs were commonly used to test the effectiveness of a sponsoring brand on consumers in sport branding research. Research studies typically examined a specific event and a set of brands as the research context, then tested the hypothesized relationship between the attributes of sponsorship messages and branding outcomes (e.g., brand attitude, purchase intention). The robustness and generalizability of results from a single study seem questionable. It is advantageous to employ experimental designs to minimize the effects of variables other than the independent variable, thus improving the internal validity to determine

383 potential causal effects; however, the external validity of the study must also be considered  
384 (Morales et al., 2017). The randomization elements embedded in online surveys or in laboratory  
385 settings limit the generalizability of consumer responses to specific stimuli. It should be noted  
386 that the goal of researchers should not be to increase external validity rather than to assess  
387 external validity to understand where findings may apply and where they might not (Lynch,  
388 1999). Given that mediated sport consumption occurs in a complex, crowded marketplace, the  
389 ecological validity of the experiment design should be seriously considered.

390         In summary, this assessment points to the need for sport branding research that moves  
391 beyond cross-sectional study designs and a more transparent manner of reporting the results.  
392 Power calculations appeared in less than 20% of the papers, yet only one paper reported the  
393 effect size. Sport branding studies that use quantitative methods should also pay more attention  
394 to statistical issues that arise when assumptions in the standard linear regression model are  
395 violated. Heteroscedasticity is of particular concern given that online user generated data (e.g.,  
396 number of likes and comments) is an emerging source of data as well as user generated data. In  
397 addition, given the limited number of mixed-method studies, future researchers should also  
398 consider more mixed-methods studies for improved data triangulation.

399         One more limitation that ought to catch researchers' attention is selection bias. Both  
400 qualitative and quantitative research can suffer from distortions in sample selection, which may  
401 be the result of researcher decisions or self-selection decisions made by agents in the study  
402 (Zaefarian et al., 2017). Moreover, any information that pertains to the design or method of the  
403 study, such as the point in time, the setting, and eligibility criteria was normally implicit but not  
404 explicitly available. It was not always possible to know from the published article when or how  
405 participants were recruited and how this may have affected the results of samples or surveys.

406 Sport branding research is largely concerned with fans' reactions, so selection bias is more  
407 apparent since researchers are likely to have predetermined preferences for finding fans as well  
408 as those who are willing to participate in sport branding research. On top of that, most of the data  
409 gathered by sport brands' social media or online forums come from highly engaged fans, which  
410 is not always representative of the total target audience. Overcoming selection bias is of vital  
411 importance as sport branding research bolsters effects in areas of inclusion and diversity (Melton  
412 & MacCharles, 2021) and seeks to better understand how sport can engage with new individuals  
413 and sectors of society.

#### 414 **Contribution and Recommendations for Future Research Directions**

415 By remapping the sport brandscape, the current research synthesizes extant knowledge to  
416 offer directions to advance the literature. Specifically, we advance two distinct and  
417 complementary areas which require attention and should be integrated into future research  
418 examining the sport brand ecosystem. First, we advocate for improved research designs to  
419 examine under-represented aspects identified that have been limiting the generalizability of  
420 findings and likely contributing to ad-hoc management decisions. Second, we reconceptualize  
421 the sport brand ecosystem framework and encourage the investigation of new topical domains  
422 for scholars to derive insights benefitting both those brands within the sport ecosystem and to  
423 wider society.

#### 424 **Theory and Research Design**

425 To start with, the ever-growing importance of social media in the sport ecosystem (Filo et  
426 al., 2015) has led to a growing number of studies examining how sport brands can leverage  
427 social platforms (e.g., Doyle et al., 2020; Su et al., 2020). Although researchers acknowledge that  
428 the brand-consumer dynamic varies depending on the platform and its embedded uses and  
429 functions (e.g., Weimar et al., 2020), further studies which consider multi-platforms are

430 warranted. Similarly, the new ways digital technologies allow brands to interact with consumers  
431 (e.g., virtual reality; Kunz & Santomier, 2019) and the integration of esports into team branding  
432 strategies (Bertschy et al., 2020) are progressively entering the research agenda and offer new  
433 branding research routes which should be explored (Kunkel & Biscaia, 2020). Given that the  
434 credibility of scientific claims is established with evidence of replicability using new data (Nosek  
435 & Errington, 2020), the development of replication studies and the provision of open data and  
436 pre-registered studies (Standen, 2019) are encouraged to deepen the understanding of how social  
437 media and new technology is shaping the sport branding landscape.

438         Despite the common acknowledgement that longitudinal approaches are critical to  
439 advance sport branding theory (e.g., Biscaia et al., 2016; Hayes et al., 2020), cross-sectional  
440 studies continue to saturate the literature. Similarly, there is a lack of experimental designs and  
441 most brand-related research is either purely qualitative or quantitative. Also, as opposed to most  
442 branding studies in leading marketing journals, multi-study approaches are scarce. While we do  
443 not dispute the value offered by studies utilizing cross-sectional and wholly quantitative or  
444 qualitative approaches, longitudinal and mixed-methods work is pivotal to advance the field and  
445 contribute to wider academic and professional conversations with neighboring fields (Ko & Lee,  
446 2018). Thus, we echo Funk et al.'s (2016) call for more rigorous methodological work to  
447 advance knowledge on the relationships between consumers and brands involved in the sport  
448 ecosystem. Specifically, we encourage sport management scholars to move beyond cross-  
449 sectional research designs and single-source (particularly self-report) data, or merely  
450 acknowledging the weaknesses in research designs in article limitations sections and suggesting  
451 that future scholars do better. Wide-spread adoption of this recommendation will enhance the  
452 quality of sport brand research, increase the theoretical and practical impact, and improve the

453 credibility and status of sport management research. Similarly, as the field matures, we argue  
454 that it is important to shift from scholarly metrics based on the number of articles published to an  
455 approach that considers actual impact of the research on the sport ecosystem and beyond.

456         Lastly, as our review indicates, most branding studies published in the sport management  
457 and marketing literature use convenience samples, with data collection typically occurring in a  
458 single cultural environment (e.g., USA or Australia), sport (e.g., basketball or soccer), or setting  
459 (e.g., professional or amateur sports). While the examination of the idiosyncrasies of each  
460 context often provides useful insights for practitioners, we encourage researchers to adopt more  
461 diverse data collection methods to further drive theory and enhance the generalizability of their  
462 findings. Thus, moving forward, researchers should gather representative samples and collect  
463 data from different sports, brands, and countries to develop multi-studies exploring the  
464 similarities and differences of brand management in different contexts and provide a better  
465 understanding of the global impact of sport brands in contemporary societies. Studies assessing  
466 perceptions of men's and women's sport brands concurrently and acknowledging that these co-  
467 exist within the same sport ecosystem, rather than seeing these as two separate research streams  
468 are also strongly encouraged.

### 469 **Sport Ecosystem and Beyond**

470         We introduce the Sport Brand Ecosystem & Environment (see Figure 5) as a basis for  
471 organizing future sport brand research. The framework consists of the inner brand ecosystem that  
472 accounts for the vertical brand architecture of sport brands and the event brand ecosystem that is  
473 connected horizontally as event brands interact with the inner brand ecosystem, as indicated by  
474 the double-headed arrow. The gray boxes surrounding these individual, yet connected,  
475 ecosystems indicate the enclosed brands are also structurally connected – not just based on

476 consumer perceptions. The updated framework accounts for the outer brand ecosystem, where  
477 external brands can temporarily enter the brand ecosystem of sport brands horizontally. While  
478 athletes are nested within teams and teams within leagues, solely conceptualizing sport brands  
479 according to this hierarchy risks mischaracterizing a collaborative partnership (athletes playing  
480 on behalf of a team) with an ownership relationship (traditional brands within a brand  
481 architecture) and may not reflect the reality of consumer perceptions of brand relationships. In  
482 the modern sport brand ecosystem, some of the most powerful brands represent individual  
483 athletes, who have been empowered by mainstream and social media to take control of and build  
484 their personal brands independent of their respective team, league, or federation affiliations  
485 (Kunkel et al., 2021).

486 [INSERT FIGURE 5 APPROXIMATELY HERE]

487 The Sport Brand Ecosystem & Environment provides researchers with guidance on their  
488 future research. For example, leagues, teams, athletes, and sponsors co-exist within the same  
489 ecosystem and spill-over effects impact these brands due to a transfer of meaning in consumers'  
490 minds (McCracken, 1986). However, despite some recent attempts to examine brand-to-brand  
491 relationships (e.g., Su et al., 2020), most previous studies are focused on single-brand studies.  
492 The brand architecture governing sport brands differentiates the field due to the numerous  
493 vertical and horizontal hierarchies present in the sport ecosystem. Future research should examine  
494 the implications of brand interactions within the sport ecosystem and changes in brand portfolio  
495 on consumers.

496 The impact of social media empowering athletes to govern their own branding strategies  
497 independent of (yet still impacting on) their team, league, event or association affiliations  
498 provides a particularly interesting aspect to examine as technology continues to provide further

499 opportunities in this regard. Similarly, changes to legislation allowing student-athletes to benefit  
500 from their name, image and likeness (NIL) necessitates further work on how individual athletes  
501 can build their brands alongside how these changes impact related brands (Kunkel et al., 2021).  
502 In addition, the increasing demand for brands to create shared value (Menghwar & Daood, 2021;  
503 Su et al., 2021) calls for additional research to explore how brands can work together to create  
504 value not only from fans, but also to fans and the wider society (Cook et al., 2021). Studies  
505 advancing a transformative sport service research (Inoue et al., 2020) approach, which continue  
506 to explore how sport intersects with individual and collective well-being, are particularly  
507 encouraged.

508         Second, social media is a dynamic environment that allows two-way communications  
509 between fans and brands in the sport ecosystem (e.g., Filo et al., 2015). The development of web-  
510 based technologies has provided numerous opportunities to monitor and manage how fans  
511 engage with sport brands on social media. Our review indicates that there is still much to be  
512 discovered about sport brands and social media, with impacts on actual consumption one such  
513 important area for scholars to examine. Future studies should extend the existent body of  
514 knowledge by examining how both transactional (e.g., purchase of game tickets, branded  
515 merchandise) and non-transactional fan behaviors (e.g., frequency of web visits, eWOM, content  
516 liking, posts and comments; Yoshida et al., 2014) impact brand management practices and vice-  
517 versa. The use of predictive analytics to explore fan reactions to brand messages may also  
518 represent a fruitful research line to advance research and practice for brands in the sport brand  
519 ecosystem. Research tracking new social media platforms, technologies, and modes of  
520 consumption as they emerge and considering how these platforms can be collectively used  
521 within a broader communications strategy, will also be important.



522 Third, our review identifies that little is known about how brand management is impacted  
523 by the various stages of the brand lifecycle, nor how such effects impact other brands within a  
524 portfolio. For instance, the growth in women’s professional sport in recent years has provided  
525 increased opportunities for organizations and sportswomen to build their brands. However,  
526 men’s sport has long profited from numerous social, historical, and economic conditions which  
527 have not been equitably extended to women’s sport (Delia, 2020). Similarly, women’s sport  
528 brands which are parallel to the same men’s brand within a portfolio in some cases are 100 years  
529 younger (e.g., Doyle et al., 2021). Research is needed to determine how sport brands can grow  
530 across various stages of their lifecycle to produce impacts at the brand and portfolio level, as  
531 well as how introductions, changes, or removals of brands from within a portfolio impact  
532 consumers (Hasaan et al., 2021). This lifecycle perspective may also be applied to contexts  
533 examining how sport brands adopt new technologies (e.g., non-fungible tokens or  
534 cryptocurrencies) into their brand strategies.

535 Fourth, despite the wide variety of theories directly or indirectly used in previous studies  
536 in the branding literature, our review indicates research is mainly conducted with a practical  
537 perspective, and sound theoretical underpinnings are not evident in many studies. This may lead  
538 to a limited application of work in which sport brand researchers speak only to themselves and  
539 results are not deemed relevant to other fields (Funk et al., 2016). As sport brands can capitalize  
540 on the emotional connection shared with fans (Couvelaere & Richelieu, 2005), additional  
541 research is encouraged to draw from various theories and to build new theories to highlight the  
542 interdisciplinary nature and show the potential of the sport ecosystem to act as a platform for  
543 other service brand environments (Underwood et al., 2001).

544

### **Limitations**

545           The present study provides an overview of the sport brandscape and outlines important  
546 directions to advance knowledge. Yet, we acknowledge that it is not without its limitations. We  
547 delimited the scope of our literature review to four prominent English-language sport  
548 management journals to capture the discourse on sport brand research occurring in these  
549 influential outlets. Research on sport brands and sport branding is published in venues beyond  
550 these four journals, notably including mainstream business, management, and marketing journals  
551 that may reach a broader audience than discipline-specific publications. Incorporating a review  
552 of sport brand research in other journals could provide a more comprehensive perspective on the  
553 current state of the literature and serve to differentiate work published within such outlets with  
554 that published within the traditional outlets targeted by sport scholars. Similarly, we focused on a  
555 twenty-one-year period from 2000-2020, restricted to the most prominent sport management and  
556 marketing journals, and a set of defined keywords to help with our inclusion criteria. Although  
557 these decision criteria were justified for the purposes of conducting a structured review of the  
558 literature, it is likely that changes to these criteria may have added to or excluded some of the  
559 179 research articles that we systematically analyzed. To the extent that sport brand research  
560 published in our four focal journals differs from that published in other outlets, our choice of  
561 publication outlet as an inclusion criterion may have excluded important perspectives. Overall,  
562 we encourage further research, discourse, and perspectives to forward knowledge governing the  
563 sport brand ecosystem.

564           Interpretation of our results is, naturally, influenced by our perspectives as researchers  
565 active within sport branding. While we remain sensitive to our individual and collective  
566 relationships with our research topic, it is impossible to discount the near certainty that our  
567 conclusions are impacted by our personal and professional backgrounds and training. Our

568 research team has an international background, representing six nationalities, currently working  
569 on three different continents. While this provides diversity in cultural and personal perspectives,  
570 our professional experience is relatively more homogeneous. Similarly, our assessment of the  
571 methodological approaches in the extant sport brand literature and related concerns regarding  
572 statistical inferences and conclusions that could be supported by typical research designs was  
573 focused almost exclusively on quantitative research. While this represents the majority of sport  
574 brand research, it necessarily presents a partial picture of the state of the field. Additional  
575 investigation of the methodological strengths, weaknesses, and areas for improvement in  
576 qualitative research of sport brands is warranted, as is future work examining how the field is  
577 shaped by research published after this review, in 2021 and beyond.

### 578 **Conclusion**

579 In our article, we focus on a crucially important and emerging topical area. Sport brands  
580 are a contemporary issue as the emergence of social media has enabled all individuals within the  
581 sport industry to brand themselves, and numerous examples exist where individuals within the  
582 sport ecosystem have used their status to achieve personal, societal, or economic gain. Brand  
583 development and management are practically relevant to many stakeholders and provide an  
584 opportunity to theoretically contribute to the sport management literature. The focus of the  
585 present review was to challenge sport brand scholars, including the authors of this paper, to  
586 elevate the field by taking bold steps forward both theoretically and methodologically. We hope  
587 this work encourages the academy to tackle the limitations often spoken about in research, but  
588 rarely addressed due to various constraints. We expect our article to produce valuable and much-  
589 needed theoretical knowledge pertaining to how sport brands can be effectively managed,  
590 alongside practical implications for numerous stakeholders in the sport industry. To guide future

591 research, we introduce the Sport Brand Ecosystem & Environment and provide theoretical,  
592 methodological, and focus-specific recommendations for future research. Our article establishes  
593 a strong foundation for future sport brand research.

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829 **Table 1.** *Count of Sport Brand Research Articles by Journal and Year of Publication.*

| <b>Journal</b> | <b>ESMQ</b> | <b>JSM</b> | <b>SMR</b> | <b>SMQ</b> | <b>Total</b> |
|----------------|-------------|------------|------------|------------|--------------|
| <b>Year</b>    |             |            |            |            |              |
| 2000           | 0           | 0          | 1          | 0          | <b>1</b>     |
| 2001           | 0           | 1          | 0          | 0          | <b>1</b>     |
| 2002           | 0           | 1          | 0          | 2          | <b>3</b>     |
| 2003           | 0           | 0          | 0          | 1          | <b>1</b>     |
| 2005           | 0           | 0          | 1          | 0          | <b>1</b>     |
| 2006           | 0           | 2          | 1          | 0          | <b>3</b>     |
| 2007           | 1           | 1          | 2          | 5          | <b>9</b>     |
| 2008           | 0           | 5          | 0          | 4          | <b>9</b>     |
| 2009           | 1           | 3          | 1          | 3          | <b>8</b>     |
| 2010           | 1           | 0          | 0          | 6          | <b>7</b>     |
| 2011           | 0           | 0          | 3          | 3          | <b>6</b>     |
| 2012           | 1           | 1          | 3          | 5          | <b>10</b>    |
| 2013           | 3           | 3          | 2          | 6          | <b>14</b>    |
| 2014           | 1           | 3          | 5          | 2          | <b>11</b>    |
| 2015           | 0           | 2          | 4          | 1          | <b>7</b>     |
| 2016           | 2           | 1          | 8          | 4          | <b>15</b>    |
| 2017           | 2           | 5          | 3          | 4          | <b>14</b>    |
| 2018           | 2           | 7          | 4          | 8          | <b>21</b>    |
| 2019           | 2           | 2          | 1          | 3          | <b>8</b>     |
| 2020           | 12          | 5          | 4          | 9          | <b>30</b>    |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>28</b>   | <b>42</b>  | <b>43</b>  | <b>66</b>  | <b>179</b>   |

830 *Note.* *ESMQ = European Sport Management; JSM = Journal of Sport Management; SMR = Sport*  
 831 *Management Review; SMQ = Sport Marketing Quarterly.*

832

833 **Table 2.** *Most Common Author Keywords.*

| <b>Keyword</b>   | <b>Count</b> | <b>Keyword</b>      | <b>Count</b> | <b>Keyword</b>    | <b>Count</b> |
|------------------|--------------|---------------------|--------------|-------------------|--------------|
| Sponsorship      | 23           | Event               | 9            | Consumer behavior | 7            |
| Brand            | 20           | Branding            | 8            | Brand association | 6            |
| Brand management | 16           | Team identification | 8            | Brand image       | 6            |
| Social media     | 14           | Brand equity        | 7            | Co-branding       | 6            |
| Marketing        | 10           | Brand personality   | 7            | Fans              | 6            |

834 *Note.* All author keywords that appeared more than five times



**Table 3.** *Count of Sport Context.*

| Sport             | Count | Sport         | Count | Sport               | Count |
|-------------------|-------|---------------|-------|---------------------|-------|
| Soccer            | 38    | Motorsport    | 8     | Esports             | 4     |
| American football | 18    | Rugby         | 7     | Golf                | 4     |
| Basketball        | 15    | Ice hockey    | 5     | Australian football | 4     |
| Baseball          | 11    | Olympic sport | 5     | Action sports       | 3     |

*Note.* Count of sports listed at least three times. Articles that included multiple sport contexts are counted for each.

**Table 4.** *Count of Study Perspective.*

| Perspective             | Count | Definition   | Examples of Research  |
|-------------------------|-------|--|---|
| Consumer                | 139   | Consumer viewpoint on sport brands, including consumer brand attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors. Consumer knowledge and values in relation to sport brands. | Effects of brand alliances on sports apparel expected price and user image (Wu & Chalip, 2013).<br>Impacts of athletic performance on consumer perceptions of celebrity athlete credibility (Koo et al., 2012).   |
| Organizational Strategy | 29    | Sport organizations’ brand decision-making, strategies and tactics.  | Strategies and actions employed by French soccer teams to build their brand (Couvelaire & Richelieu, 2005).<br>Case study of brand building by a university (Lee et al., 2008)  |
| Employee                | 11    | Employee perspectives on brand-related issues.   | Athlete perceptions of distractions inherent in social media and the need to build a brand during competition (Hayes et al., 2020).<br>Employee perceptions of the organization’s authenticity while pursuing expansion to mainstream markets (Giannoulakis, 2016). |
| General                 | 2     | Literature reviews and conceptual articles of general focus.   | Review of extant brand research and future research directions (Kunkel & Biscaia, 2020; Ströbel, & Germelmann, 2020)  |

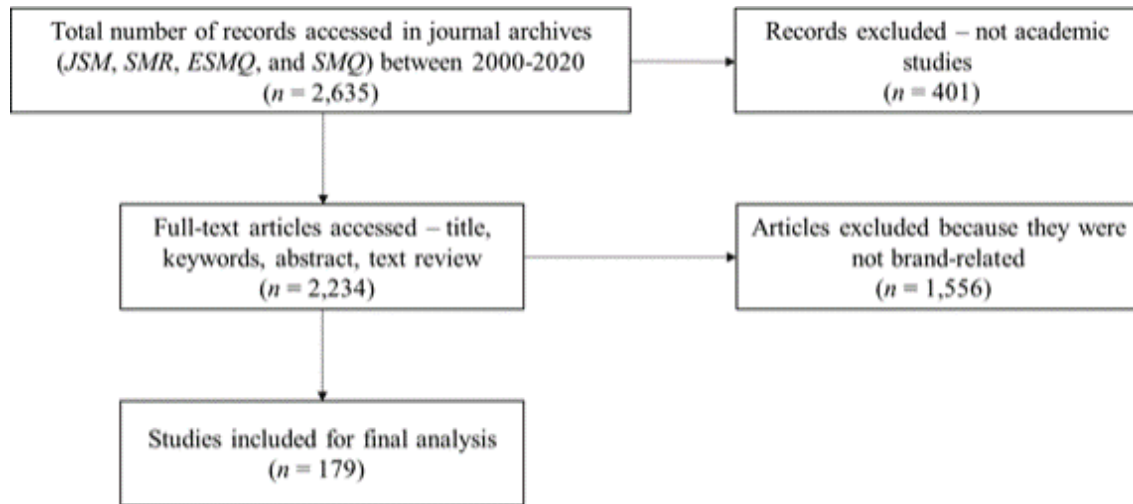
*Note.* One article was classified as falling in both consumer and employee perspectives.

**Table 5.** *Count of Brand Level.*

| Brand Level                         | Count | Definition   | Examples of Research   |
|-------------------------------------|-------|--|--|
| Team                                | 64    | “Group of individuals who compete in a given sport representing an organization or brand at the national and/ or international level and that often possess a management structure. It is different from a club because it only focuses on one sport” <sup>a</sup> | Development of sport consumer team brand associations (Kunkel et al., 2013).<br>Empirical assessment of professional team brand image (Bauer et al., 2008).  |
| Sponsor                             | 46    | “Organizations that pay cash or in-kind fees to get the right to explore the commercial potential of being associated with a sport brand.” <sup>a</sup>  | Reactions to local and rival brands (Biscaia & Rocha, 2018).<br>Impact of sponsorship alliance on sport and sponsor image (Kelly et al., 2016).  |
| Athlete                             | 36    | “An individual who competes in a given sport and is often integrated in a club or team. Some athletes are popular figures in contemporary societies due to their on- and off-field attributes, becoming national and/or international stars” <sup>a</sup>          | Conceptualization of the model of athlete brand image (MABI; Arai et al., 2014).<br>Analysis of athletes’ self-presentation on social media (Geurin-Eagleman & Burch, 2016).   |
| Event                               | 30    | “Sport competitive activities organized by (inter)national leagues or federations. It includes a fixed period of time and can be linked to a given sport or multi-sports.” <sup>a</sup>  | Development of host country brand image (Rocha & Wyse, 2020).<br>Event ambush marketing (Ellis et al., 2011).  |
| Merchandise, products, and services | 21    | Brands operating within sports, including sports apparel brands, sportsbooks etc.  | Consumer responses to promotions of gambling during televised sport (Lamont et al., 2016).<br>Activewear consumption (Zhou et al., 2018).  |
| University                          | 15    | University that manages teams competing in intercollegiate varsity conferences and leagues.  | Stakeholder attitudes toward intercollegiate athletic brands (Hutchinson & Bennett, 2012).<br>Assessing brand associations toward an intercollegiate sport (Ross et al., 2007).  |
| League                              | 10    | “Organizing body composed by a group of professional or amateur teams that compete against each other in a given sport (e.g., handball). It is often organized at national level but can also have an international scope.” <sup>a</sup>                           | Application of fan segmentation to leagues (Bouzdine-Chameeva et al., 2015)<br>Impacts of fantasy league participations on non-fans of Autosport (Goldsmith & Walker, 2015).   |
| Federation                          | 5     | “Non-governmental bodies that administer a given sport at the national and/or international level, which are responsible for setting rules and regulations of that sport, promoting the sport among stakeholders, and organizing championships.” <sup>a</sup>      | Acceptance and usage of social media for marketing communications among employees of sport national governing bodies (Eagleman, 2013).<br>Brand management practices in Canadian national sport organizations (Taks et al., 2020). |

*Note.* <sup>a</sup>Definition adopted from Kunkel and Biscaia (2020, p. 8).

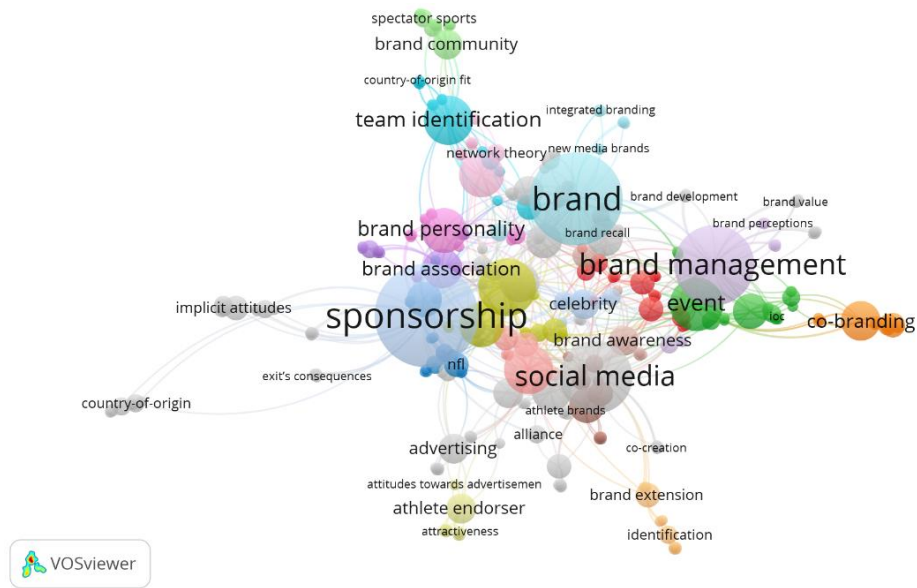
**Figure 1.** *Data Collection Strategy.*



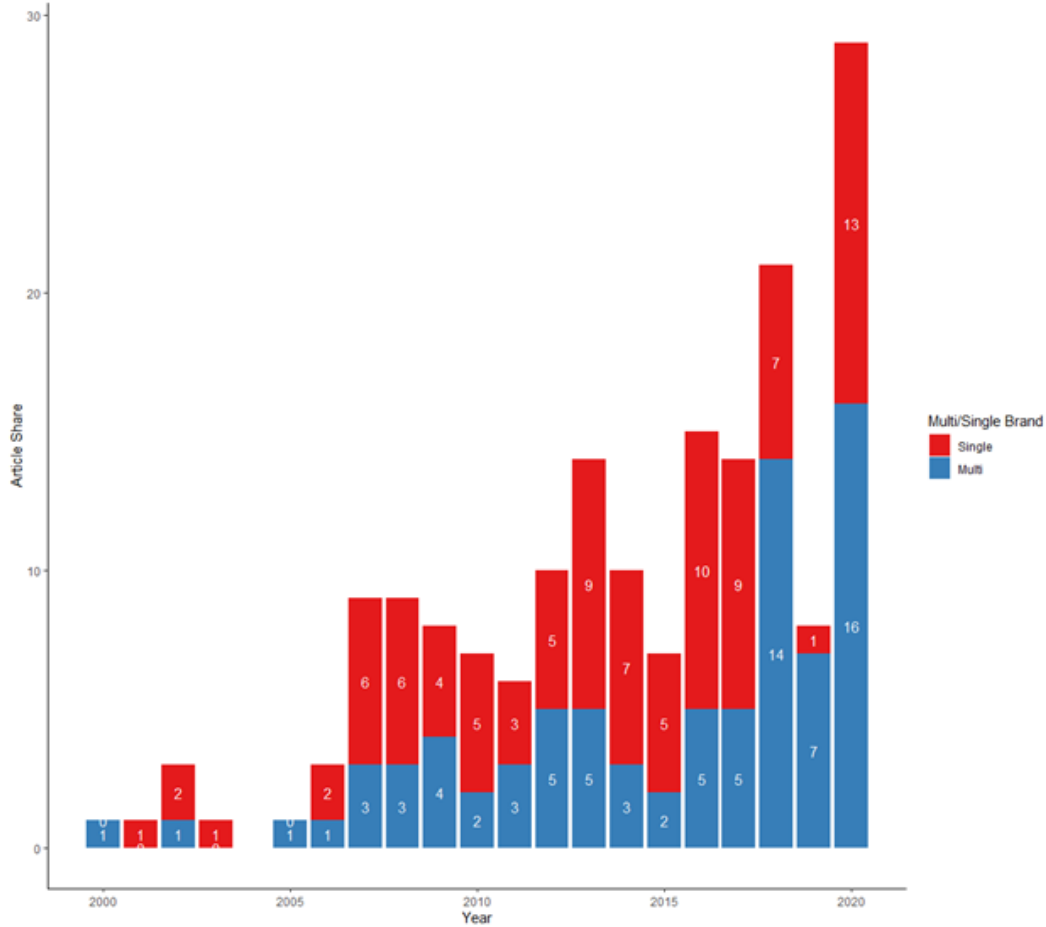
**Figure 2.** *Count of Sport Brand Research Articles by Journal and Year of Publication.*



**Figure 3.** Visualization of the Network of Author Keyword Co-occurrence



**Figure 4.** Count of Articles by Number of Brands Considered.



*Note.* Article counts for single and multi-brand articles for each year provided within bars.

Figure 5. *Sport Brand Ecosystem & Environment*.

