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THE FEEL-GOOD EFFECT AT MEGA SPORTS
EVENTS. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE ADMINISTRATION
INFORMED BY THE EXPERIENCE OF
THE FIFA WORLD CUP 2006

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The Feel-good Effect at Mega Sports Events. Recommendations for Public and Private Administration Informed by the Experience of the FIFA World Cup 2006

Abstract: One of the most important social effects of the 2006 football World Cup was the feel-good effect. The present contribution is one of the first to deal with the development of a general theory for the management of feel-good effects and systematically analyses the influencing factors taking the 2006 World Cup as an example. Of importance are suitable basic organizational and infrastructure conditions in the realms of security, transport, and ecology. The media activities of public and private sponsors should break away from the traditional narrow focus and classic brand sponsoring in favor of a more socially responsible sponsoring. Sporting success of the home team is important, which may be due in equal measures to the style of play of the team and its demeanor. The creation of generally accessible participation opportunities through free TV in the host country and the setting up of fan festivals can counteract any frustration that might arise from the allocation of admission tickets. Any targeted manipulation of the weather may be considered with due regard to possible ecological implications.

Keywords: Feel-good Effect, Sports Economics, World Cup, Mega-Events; Image Effects, Public Viewing
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1 Introduction

“Anyone who spent any time in Germany during the last World Cup could not have failed to notice the feel-good factor around the nation” (STURGESS & BRADY, 2006, p. 157). For this feel-good effect, which, as the net result of beneficial effects of personal experience and leisure, leads to enhanced social cohesion and increased civic pride (HEYNE, 2006, p. 153). HEYNE, MAENNIG, & SÜBMUTH (2007) estimated, on the basis of consultations and an ex post contingent valua-

tion method,¹ a value of around €830 million on the occasion of the 2006 World Cup. “Greater willingness to pay for a sporting event or for other events in Germany has [...] not hitherto been recorded. In this respect [...] the 2006 soccer World Cup was one of the greatest and economically most important events in Germany.” (MAENNIG, 2007) Since the hopes for significant positive effects on tourism, income, and employment that were prominent before the World Cup were – as in the case of most other such events – not realized,² the feel-good effect has proved to be the greatest measurable effect of the 2006 World Cup.

A large number of nations regularly apply to host mega sports events. With rational behavior of the decision-makers, in the face of zero (or even negative) effects of the mega event on income and employment, decisions can only be accounted for in terms of positive political, social, feel-good, and/or image effects (BAADE & MATHESON, 2002). Such effects of mega events, which in economic analyses have long been either ignored or viewed as “intangible” effects at best merely observed as a footnote, have in recent times shifted towards the centre of attention.³

This paper analyses the determinants of the feel-good effect through the example of the 2006 World Cup in Germany, and asks whether the feel-good effect associated with mega sports events is amenable to systematic management. The contribution represents – to the best knowledge of the authors – the first contribution towards a theory of the management of feel-good effects.

¹ Attempts to monetarize formerly “intangible” effects on the occasion of sporting events are still rare; cf., however, MAENNIG & FEDDERSEN (2002) regarding the HEW Cycloclassics in Hamburg. JOHNSON & WHITEHEAD (2000) were among the first by evaluating the willingness to pay for two stadia projects in Lexington, Kentucky.

² Cf. BRENKE & WAGNER (2007) as well as HAGN & MAENNIG (2008) concerning the 2006 World Cup. For exceptions to the rule of insignificant effects of major sporting events on typical macro-economic variables such as income and employment, cf. HOTCHKISS, MOORE, & ZOBAY (2003) regarding the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games as well as JASMAND & MAENNIG (2008) regarding the 1972 Munich Olympic Games.

³ Cf., among others, MAENNIG & DU PLESSIS (2007, p. 23), STURGESS & BRADY (2006, p. 163), as well as SZYMANSKI (2002, p. 177).

The present contribution starts with the basic organizational and infrastructure conditions, by which typical sources of friction at large sporting events could be avoided in the case of the 2006 World Cup (Section 2). In Section 3, the effects of the communication and marketing activities of both public stake-holders and private sponsors on the feel-good effect are analyzed. Thereafter, in Section 4, the significance of the good weather during the 2006 World Cup is analyzed, whereby – in anticipation of relevant objections at this point – it is demonstrated that weather management is in widespread use around the world and is also in current use in relation to sports events. In Section 5, we consider the significance of an attractive style of play of the local national team for the identification of the population, whereby, in relation to the pertinent management aspect, it is emphasized that the type and style of play and the demeanor of the local team is of comparable significance to pure sporting success, and can possibly even partly compensate for a lack of sporting success. In Section 6, the importance of the creation of participation opportunities for the population is emphasized. In the closing summary, we consider to what extent knowledge gleaned from the 2006 World Cup in Germany may be passed on to future comparable events.

2 Basic Organizational and Infrastructure Considerations: Avoidance of Sources of Friction

Mega sports events suffer in part from the criticism that they raise problems in the areas of security, transport, and ecology and/or that they require (too much) public funds. Such criticisms, when echoed in the media, can have a negative influence on public perception. Even at an early stage, besides the central task of smoothly organizing the sporting competition itself, the Organizing Committee and the Federal Government placed importance on avoiding problems of this nature.

- In the framework of the national security strategy for the 2006 World Cup, around 250,000 German police officers, 1,700 members of the Federal armed forces, and 16,000 security personnel were deployed, whereby value was placed on a deliberately restrained image of the operations

(HANNING, 2007). To accompany small groups of potentially aggressive foreign fans, more than 570 operatives from 13 European countries as well as 36 operatives from other countries were deployed. The background to this was the hope that for these groups of fans a confrontation with security forces of their own nationality would be less “attractive” than a confrontation with the German forces. The stadium security was ensured through an electronic ticket and access control system (BMI, 2006b, p. 36 et seqq.). As a result, there were no large-scale threats to security, neither in the stadia nor at the public viewing events, which made an important contribution to the perception of a peaceful and friendly World Cup.⁴

- For the avoidance of traffic and ecological problems, the ecology project “Green Goal” was operated and extensive transport infrastructure investments were realized. “Green Goal” set up measurable environmental protection goals as an integral part of the organization of the World Cup and, for example, through ecological mobility measures, reduced the greenhouse gas emissions of the World Cup by almost a fifth (OK WM 2006, 2006, p. 9 et seqq.). On the basis of the combined tickets⁵ on offer, up to 70% of the stadium visitors travelled by bus and train to the games in the stadia (BMI, 2006b, p. 42 et seqq.).⁶ To be able to meet the additional demand for local public transport, considerable investments were made in the relevant infrastructure. Together with the investments made in the in-

⁴ Cf. SCHNEIDER (2006). Rioting of hooligans at the Germany–Poland game in Dortmund constituted the only exception.

⁵ The admission tickets for the 2006 World Cup were also valid as tickets on local public transport services and permitted the stadium visitors free journeys to and from the venues by public transport.

⁶ The initiative additionally attained savings in energy consumption of 13% and a reduction in the amount of litter through recycling measures of around 17%. The climate-neutrality of the event was achieved by the offsetting of 92,000 tons of CO₂ equivalents (OK WM 2006, 2006, p. 9 et seqq.).

frastructure for private transport, the German Federal Ministry of the Interior [BMI] invested a total of some €3.4 billion (BMI, 2004, p. 3).⁷

- In addition to these public burdens for the infrastructure, the participation of the Federal Government, its constituent *Länder*, and local authorities led to an investment in stadia of around €540 million, which corresponded to about 39% of the total such investment (MAENNIG & BÜTTNER, 2006). As far as the authors are aware, the consequent considerable overall burden on public households was not criticized. This might have been due to the communications that these investments had been undertaken for superordinated reasons,⁸ had only been brought forward at the most and/or would bring about long-term use and would therefore be sustainable (BMI, 2006a, p. 5). The impression of a social efficiency was enhanced by the predominant financing of the stadia by private investors.

3 Communication, marketing, and sponsoring activities

The Federal Government, together with the Organizing Committee and specifically founded subsidiary companies, drew up a host plan, whereby Germany was to be promoted as an economic and scientific centre and as a cultural nation, that is also attractive as a tourist destination. In the effort to present Germany as a prosperous and future-ready economic location and to improve the branding of the German nation, the location campaign “Deutschland – Land der Ideen” (“Germany – land of ideas”) of “FC Deutschland GmbH” is regarded as one of the

⁷ MAENNIG & BÜTTNER (2006) demonstrate that this sum included a number of measures that had been planned and financed long before the award of the World Cup to Germany became known in the year 2000, and therefore cannot be regarded as dependent on the World Cup. They result in a World Cup-related investment level of around €1.6 billion.

⁸ The full financing was justified, for example, to ensure that World Cup games would also be played in the new *Bundesländer*. The extensive financing of the renovation/modernization of the Berlin Olympic Stadium was based on previously neglected investments for the monument protected building in the time of Federal possession.

most successful image campaigns in the history of the Federal Republic.⁹ The art and culture program that was integrated into the framework program of the football World Cup encompassed a total of 194 events in 45 cities and enhanced the leisure and recreational activities of around 3.5 million domestic and foreign visitors. Worldwide, around 4.2 billion media contacts underlined the acceptance of the events on offer (BMI, 2006a, p. 36 et seqq.; ROLLMANN, 2006). The aim of presenting Germany as a worthwhile tourist destination was promoted by the German Central Tourist Board (DZT) – in line with the official World Cup slogan “Die Welt zu Gast bei Freunden” (“the world as a guest with friends”) – with the aid of the “national service and friendliness campaign” and their central project “the service ambassador – cosmopolitan and tolerant”. In the frame of the latter project, more than 6,000 employees in the hotel and catering trade were trained to present Germany as warm and welcoming (BMI, 2006b, p. 78; ROLLMANN, 2006). Numerous projects were added to motivate the population (especially the young) to get involved in sporting activities and voluntary work, as well as charity campaigns and initiatives for tolerance and integration. Also of significance was the volunteer program of the World Cup, in which 15,000 voluntary co-workers helped to take care of the fans and guests of the event (BMI, 2006b, p. 56 et seqq.).

All in all, the organizers succeeded in taking the football World Cup beyond a first and foremost sporting concern and to stage an event at which a country and its people, through their abilities, culture, and temperament, strove to give the guests, the TV viewers abroad, and themselves a good time. In particular, it was possible to avoid the impression that Germany's interest in the World Cup was primarily linked to business motives such as hopes for economic, infrastructure, and growth effects.

⁹ “Deutschland – Land der Ideen”, through 16,000 editorial contributions and more than six hours of TV airtime, generated 1.3 billion contacts nationwide and over 3.5 billion contacts worldwide.

The successes of these efforts abroad were measurable: as a result of holding the World Cup, Germany improved its international standing and in the autumn of 2006 occupied second position in the ANHOLT NATION BRANDS INDEX (2006). Germany, whose erstwhile image abroad was “hard and cold [...] not a nation much associated with warmth, hospitality, beauty, culture or fun”,¹⁰ improved its image through the World Cup in all 17 criteria that constitute the “Anholt Nation Brands Index”. In particular, the international image of Germany was considerably improved in the areas of tourism and culture (DZT, 2006). The overseas guests of the World Cup experienced a host nation that clearly surpassed their expectations with regard to the qualities of “tolerance” and “friendliness towards foreigners” (BMI, 2006b; DZT, 2006, p. 79 et seqq.). This relatively rapidly perceived improvement in the international image explains a part of the feel-good effect.

Beyond this publically striven for effect, the communication and marketing activities of private businesses – albeit perhaps initially unintentionally – contributed to the feel-good effect. Besides the activities of the official FIFA sponsors and World Cup partners,¹¹ 43% of the advertising-driven business in Germany operated Ambush Marketing relating to the World Cup, in spite of the restrictive actions of FIFA in connection with legal rights concerning the use of names of the event.¹² The total investment for sports sponsoring in the host country increased by 55% in comparison with the value for the previous year to an unprecedented €2.7 billion (PILOT, 2007). The 2006 World Cup was one of the “greatest communicative competitions” of all time (BENTLAGE, BERENZ, & THIEMANN, 2006, p. 106).

More important than the sheer volume of investment, however, was the integrated implementation of the sponsorship, with which diverse recipient effects

¹⁰ See ANHOLT NATION BRANDS INDEX (2006).

¹¹ Besides sponsoring contributions of around €40 million at a time to FIFA, the official World Cup partners invested three to five times this sum in marketing measures accompanying the event (HORIZONT SPORT BUSINESS, 2004).

¹² Even a year before the World Cup, FIFA raised objections in over 330 legal disputes concerning the use of the brand right protected terms “WM 2006” and “Fußball WM 2006” (NÖCKER, 2005).

could be targeted. Multi-dimensional catalogues of measures, which covered the essential strategic areas of the marketing mix and as regards content were in tune with the profile of the World Cup, promoted the mutual identification of sponsors, recipients, and the event (ADJOURI & STASTNY, 2006, p. 113; WEIGL, 2006, p. 100). The benefits to the population through three elements of the sponsoring activities were especially clear:

- The integration of the World Cup sponsoring in the product policies of the sponsors promoted – frequently through the offering of event-specific customized products – the emotionalization of purchasing (GRUNDMANN, 2005, p. 306). Consumers thereby profited from added values, caused by aesthetic, individual psychological, or sociological components, which broadened the fundamental functional benefits of products. An example of this was the official World Cup football, the newly developed “+Teamgeist” from Adidas, of which over 15 million were sold worldwide.¹³
- Prize-draws for World Cup admission tickets in the context of sales promotions and direct marketing measures were of considerable quantitative and qualitative significance. Up to 80% of the 490,000 World Cup tickets acquired by the sponsors, among others, were distributed through such draws (M. BELL, 2005; LENTZE, 2006, p. 90). Through these measures, the sponsors replied to negative perceptions that arose in connection with the allocation of scarce tickets¹⁴ and produced immediate benefits in the population.

¹³ To improve the outer skin, an innovative arrangement of panels was used for the “+Teamgeist”; cf. STIFTUNG WARENTEST (2006). The increased sales amounted to ca. 100% with respect to the 2002 World Cup (ADIDAS, 2006).

¹⁴ Opinion polls clearly showed the specific dissatisfaction of the German people with the allocation guidelines for World Cup admission tickets. The data regulations of the Organizing Committee, restrictive exchange procedures, and particularly the extensive allocations of admission tickets for sponsors and VIP customers were the main points of criticism (VOETH, HERBST, & SANDULESCU, 2005, p. 23 et seqq.).

- The communication activities of the World Cup sponsors activated emotional potentials through a targeted orientation of experiences (PFAFF, 2002, p. 46 et seqq.). Examples are the “Adidas world of football experience” in Berlin and “the greatest national team of all time” of Deutsche Telekom. The increased sales of the sponsors show the acceptance of the recipients. Thus, Adidas were able to dispose of around 1.5 million replica shirts of the German national team, six times as many as for the 2002 tournament (ADIDAS, 2006). DEUTSCHE TELEKOM (2006) enlisted 1.5 million fans in their “greatest national team of all time”. In comparison to the response and popularity ratings of the sponsors of the 1998 World Cup, the 2006 sponsor engagements were clearly characterized as more effectively directed with regard to the perception of the recipients (NUFER, 2006).

In these elements, there was a clear tendency of turning away from “brand sponsoring” towards a “socially responsible sponsoring” (TAUBKEN, 2008), which together with the early deployment, brought about an increased acceptance of the event as well as a sensitization of the population for their role as World Cup hosts.¹⁵ The partners participated through organizational contributions towards a successful staging of the World Cup event,¹⁶ and, with the goal of an attractive perception of the event, exerted their influence by subsidizing the admission tickets through sponsoring fees so as to attain a consumer-friendly price structure.¹⁷ The financial and organizational contributions of the partners were judged positively by the majority of commentators after the World Cup (FIFA, 2007). The gradual elimination of discrepancies regarding critical perception of the sponsors

¹⁵ The World Cup campaign run by COCA-COLA (2006) with the title “It’s your home game” was explicitly aimed at this component of the feel-good effect.

¹⁶ In this context, one may cite, for example, the infrastructure achievements of DEUTSCHE TELEKOM (2005) or the equipping of FIFA fan festivals with video walls by the official World Cup partner Philips.

¹⁷ Cf. EICHHORN & SAHM (2005, p. 257). The price of World Cup admission tickets amounted to between €35 for a game in the preliminary round in stand category 4 and €600 for the final in stand category 1.

before the tournament validates the positive effect of the marketing measures employed and reflects the realization of noticeable beneficial effects to the recipients (SOHNS, 2005).

4 The Weather – An Unmanageable Factor?

To counter any possible objections against the inclusion of the weather in a theory of the management of feel-good effects, it may be pointed out that the weather can be manipulated at relatively low cost; the fundamental techniques have been known for decades and have been regularly applied in countries that rank among the most experienced organizers of mega sports events. In the year 2000, the record of weather manipulations kept by the WORLD METEOROLOGICAL ORGANIZATION (2000) amounted to 74 projects in 23 countries.

The realm of weather manipulation most commonly involves the “raining out” of clouds in order to obtain precipitation for agriculture or to avoid the formation of hail. The deliberate “raining out” of rainclouds with the goal of keeping particular events free from rain is likewise not new. The always sunny Moscow military parades celebrating the victory of the Soviet army in World War 2 have long been known. “Threatening” clouds have also been “rained out” ahead of open-air concerts by Paul McCartney and Madonna (N.N., 2004, 2006c).

Although on the basis of the cold and rainy weather in Germany shortly before the start of the 2006 World Cup (June 9th – July 9th, 2006) there were calls to manipulate the weather (SEILER, 2008), there are no reports that this actually happened. The mean temperature in Germany in June 2006 was (nevertheless?) about 1.2° C above the normal value of 15.4° C. Rainfall amounts over 50% of the area of Germany were merely half of the average values; in parts of the west and northwest, as well as in Berlin, less than a quarter of the mean precipitation was recorded. The sun shone for 264 hours in June, about 33% longer than the long-term average. July 2006 was the warmest and sunniest month in Germany since the start of regular weather recording. The average temperature recorded of 21.8° C was about 4.9° C above the average climate value. With 50 liters of preci-

precipitation per square meter, the territory of the Federal Republic recorded merely 65% of the normal rainfall amount. With 335 hours of sunshine – 60% more than the normal level – July 2006 was the sunniest summer month since weather records began (DEUTSCHER WETTERDIENST, 2006a, 2006b).

This weather was significant for the feel-good effect as it favored the high numbers of visitors at the numerous open-air events, in particular the FIFA fan festivals.¹⁸ The described weather characteristics were also fundamental in the position that, through the varied effects of neurobiological processes on human feelings and behavior, the conditions tended to induce cheerful human moods (HELLBRÜCK & FISCHER, 1999, p. 204 et seqq.; LACOSTE & WIRZ-JUSTICE, 1989).¹⁹ Sunlight also exerts positive influences on individual human moods and behavior through cognitive and motivational effects.²⁰

The central role of the weather in events management has become at least partly established: The 2008 Olympic Games in Beijing can be expected to remain rain-free through appropriate manipulations (KOLONKO, 2007). Nevertheless, before weather manipulations become the rule for open-air sports and other large events, the ecological consequences need to be examined more closely.

5 Successful Play of the Local National Team and Patriotism

For the success of a mega event, an appropriate level of success of the home players plays a fundamental role in maintaining the interest of the national viewers. While in March 2006, at the height of a poor preparation phase, the German national team was described as “the worst German team of all time” (N.N., 2006b), by achieving third place in the World Cup they surpassed the general expectations. Through the sporting success, decisions of the national manager Jürgen

¹⁸ Cf. WANN *et al.* (2001), PERRY (2004), and SCHULKE (2007).

¹⁹ The statement is only valid within certain temperature ranges. In extreme temperature ranges, there are unwanted effects, for example on crime rates, cf. BELL *et al.* (1996). The wider debate on the economic costs of global warming cannot be entered into here.

²⁰ Cf. CUNNINGHAM (1979), CUNNINGHAM, STEINBERG, & GREV (1980), and JORGENSON (1981).

Klinsmann that were initially controversially discussed by the public became seen as measures of a carefully considered plan, and Jürgen Klinsmann²¹ was seen as a “reformer” of the German Football Association (DFB).²² The German general public, who were otherwise accustomed to a tight, defensive game from the national team, based, above all, on “German” virtues such as will and tenacity (in short: with a degree of stubbornness), showed their enthusiasm for the apparently offensive, dynamic, and team-oriented selection of the DFB (BECKER, 2006; BRINKBÄUMER & KRAMER, 2006, p. 142; SELLDORF, 2006). In putting these reforms into practice, Klinsmann ensured the fitness of his team and modernized the German game in terms of tactics and style of play (BARTH & VOLLAND, 2006, pp. 42-44). Moreover, he provided a rejuvenation of the national team.²³

The successful performance of a national team leads, on the basis of individual objectives, to a heightening of the estimation of self-worth through the affiliation to positively valued groups and the association with their symbols of success (“basking in reflected glory”) (SCHLICHT & STRAUß, 2003), fundamentally to increased identification. Besides the surprising great success of third place, in particular the modern and team-oriented style of play, as well as the offensive and attractive game strategy, gave rise to identification effects within the population (ASHELM, 2006; KURBJUWEIT *et al.*, 2006, pp. 71-72; SCHULZE, 2006). Through such effects, the 2006 World Cup was able to counteract a general tendency towards social individualization.²⁴ With regard to derived stereotyping, sporting

²¹ This entailed in particular discussion of the goalkeeper before the World Cup, innovative training methods, as well as the integration of working teams of fitness instructors and sports psychologists into the support staff.

²² In this context, EISENBERG & SCHULTE (2006) explain the strategic sporting advances in the running of the national team with the example of the “balanced scorecard” and cover the targeted implementation of the strategy of manager Jürgen Klinsmann.

²³ The average age of the German team was 26.3 years and was thus below the World Cup average of 26.9 years, and clearly below the values of the finalists France (28.4) and Italy (28.2). Germany scored the most World Cup goals; Miroslav Klose was the top goal-scorer of the competition, winning the striker rating ahead of Bastian Schweinsteiger. Lukas Podolski was named as the best junior player of the World Cup.

²⁴ In this context, Peter Sloterdijk speaks of a “chronic below capacity employment of feelings of participation.” (KURBJUWEIT & GORRIS, 2006, p. 72)

values can take on special meaning (BROMBERGER, HAYOT, & MARIOTTINI, 1993, p. 119 et seqq.), since sport will often be used in simplified ways to convey qualities of the stereotype of the population such as “imagined charisma” (HOBBSAWM, 2005, pp. 168-169; MAGUIRE, 1999, p. 182). The national team player Christoph Metzelder summed up how the new style of play of the national team established a connection between a feeling of nation and that of life in general for his generation: “We can live uninhibited and carefree, and we can also play football in this way.”²⁵ After the World Cup, almost 60% of Germans identified themselves with the team (before the World Cup: 31%) (PSYCHONOMICS, 2006); 95% of Germans were proud of the performances of their national team (MEDIEN BW, 2006).

The successful performance and the demeanor of the German national football team led to an increased identification of Germans with their country and team. Accordingly, the World Cup brought to Germany a sense of patriotism that had not been known for a long time.²⁶ While the country is usually – in comparison with other countries – relatively poor in the use of national devotional objects, in the stadia, on the streets, and on people's cars, around five million German flags were flying during the World Cup, which characterized the images of the 2006 tournament (DEGGERICH & LINDEN, 2006).

Immediately after the World Cup, almost 70% of the German population declared a positive change in their national awareness (KÖCHER, 2006); almost 90% of those asked welcomed the distinctive black-red-gold symbolism of the summer of 2006. A year after the tournament, 62% of Germans expressed a lasting increased national pride, which they associate directly with the 2006 World Cup (EHRlich, 2007; LUTTMER, 2006). The reasons for these changes in awareness lay in particular in the cosmopolitan way in which the country had presented itself during the World Cup (KÖCHER, 2006).

²⁵ Cited after KURBJUWEIT *et al.* (2006, p. 81).

²⁶ Cf. in this regard WESTERHOFF (2007), SEITZ (2004), KURBJUWEIT (2006), and EHRlich (2006).

The manifestation of patriotism or the use of national symbols in Germany has in the meantime reverted to the level before the World Cup. In this respect, the willingness to express identity induced by the World Cup may be interpreted in terms of a possibly already existing social development that moved the public awareness in the context of a supposedly apolitical sporting event (KÖCHER, 2006; KURBJUWEIT *et al.*, 2006, pp. 80-81). The World Cup attained the character of a platform for “public confession” (WESTERHOFF, 2007, p. 69 et seqq.).

The international perception of the image of Germany also changed. While at the start of 2006, in anticipation of a well-organized but soulless World Cup, the international press emphasized the characterizing qualities of the German stereotype, such as reliability and success, the reporting during the tournament was characterized by terms such as party, pride, positivity, peaceful, atmospheric, and friendly (IFA, 2007; TIEDE, 2006). Even the media from countries with a traditionally distanced attitude towards Germany were clearly surprised by the joyful, relaxed, sporting Germany and its capacity for enthusiasm (HARDING, 2006, p. 10 et seqq.; HAY & JOEL, 2007). All in all, Germany succeeded in supplementing its image, which had hitherto been dominated by economic and “hard” attributes, with “soft” factors such as hospitality, the warmth of the people, and cultural values, and thereby achieved a higher international reputation (ANHOLT NATION BRANDS INDEX, 2006; KRÖGER, 2007).

The interrelations between the strengthened national sense of identity, the change in the international image of Germany, and the feel-good effect of the people were characterized through multidirectional cause-and-effect chains. While the positive national self-appraisal brought to the German people by the World Cup could be interpreted first of all as an indicator of a distinct quality of life – therefore as a manifestation of the feel-good effect – it could also be regarded as an initiator of a change of the German stereotype. The positive resonance of the international reporting in the course of the World Cup, characterized by the change of atmosphere experienced in Germany, was picked up by the German people through the national press and organs of the media, and through gains of political benefits, image promotion, civic pride, as well as joy stemming

from the importance of the country, initiated a further strengthening of the feel-good effect.

From the point of view of the management of the feel-good effect at future sports events, the clear advice is to present an as strong as possible home team, even though this may be difficult to achieve. The experience of the German team shows, however, that success is not exclusively the decisive factor. Future hosts with potentially weak home teams should try to influence the type and style of play and the demeanor of their team accordingly.

6 Creating Participation Opportunities

The approximately 3.3 million spectators in the stadia benefitted not only from the sporting spectacle itself, but also from the “unique” atmosphere (SCHNIBBEN, 2006, p. 82). “Atmosphere” can be viewed as the sum total of emotional and interactive expressions of the varied moods of the crowd, conditioned through the individual regulation of state of mind as well as the extrovert expression of behavior (SCHLICHT & STRAUß, 2003, p. 147).

In the case of the 2006 World Cup, the originally passive spectators succeeded in becoming an active and constructive part of the event, who “created their own experiences” (BRINKBÄUMER & KRAMER, 2006, p. 141). “Atmosphere” is therefore a phenomenon that needs to be analyzed in an interdisciplinary manner, where psychological and sociological aspects play an essential role. In any case, the goal-oriented management strategies that were put into operation at the 2006 World Cup should not be neglected.

The fact that the stadia were practically always occupied to an average of 99.5% capacity contributed to the creation of the special atmosphere (FIFA, 2006a). The full-to-capacity stadia were ensured through several key elements of the ticket allocation process. Firstly, the bulk of the tickets had to be ordered and paid for at a certain time as the teams who were due to meet were not known in advance. In this way, it was ensured that stadia were sold out not only, for instance, for the games of the German team. Secondly, the price levels were chosen – in part

through the above described subsidies of the sponsors – such that a clear surplus demand was to be expected. For the approximately 1 million admission tickets that were ready for free sale in Germany before the World Cup, around 14.7 million orders were received. This clearly showed the organizers that many people had realized the low likelihood of a future chance of attending World Cup matches and that the uniqueness of the event functioned as an essential driving force for the ticket demand (WANN *et al.*, 2001, pp. 56-57).

The lot-drawing nature of the solution to the allocation problem in the case of surplus demand played a role in that it ensured a heterogeneous composition of the public. An allocation based on market forces could have been problematic, because the willingness to display emotions tends to decrease with increasing income (EICHHORN & SAHM, 2005, p. 257). Moreover, had pure market forces been applied, feelings of discrimination could have quickly spread in the population (FEDDERSEN, SIEVERS, & VÖPEL, 2005).

Incidentally, as a technical point, for the creation of the special atmosphere, it was significant that the majority of the venues were purely football arenas, in which the spectators were not separated from the pitch by an athletics track. The resulting “intimacy” can increase the esteem of the spectators (FEDDERSEN & MAENNIG, 2008).

The disappointment that resulted from the described surplus demand for tickets barely played a role during the World Cup (SCHULKE, 2007, pp. 19-20), because attractive participation alternatives were available. The comprehensive acquisition of broadcast rights through the public service television companies as well as RTL and the transmission of 56 of the 64 games by free TV²⁷ gave the German people the chance of following the World Cup almost in its entirety (GERHARD, 2006, p. 468). 83% of Germans saw at least one World Cup game live on television and formed an audience of over 61 million. Eight matches were at any one time

²⁷ 24 games each were broadcast by the two public-service broadcasters ARD and ZDF; eight matches were shown by the private channel RTL (GERHARD, 2006, p. 468).

followed by more than 20 million TV viewers, among them all of the games of the German national team. With 29.66 million domestic TV viewers, the semi-final between Germany and Italy attained the highest ever viewing figures in Germany. A further 16.4 million people followed the match outside of their own households (GERHARD, 2006, p. 465 et seqq.). The football World Cup became the biggest TV event in Germany to date (GEESE, ZEUGHARDT, & GERHARD, 2006, p. 454).²⁸ Of comparable significance were the approximately 2,000 public viewing events and the FIFA fan festivals in the twelve venue cities. The official “Fanmeilen” (“fan miles”) alone attracted over 21 million visitors (DZT, 2006; ROLLMANN, 2006). Pictures of celebrating fans and seas of flags in public places illustrated the atmosphere in the host country and epitomized the “Germany party” (N.N., 2006a). “Fanmeile” became the German word of the year in 2006.

Public viewing, which first came to prominence at the 2002 World Cup in South Korea and Japan, constituted a new “culture of viewing”, a combination of the two established types of experience of visiting a stadium and watching TV (SCHULKE, 2006, p. 20, 2007, p. 17). Accordingly, by attending a public viewing one could obtain the combined benefits of both alternatives. The out-of-home media reception served to intensify the emotional aspects of the entertainment and the escape from everyday life, and also enhanced feelings of companionship, group affiliation, and release (RANEY, 2004, p. 52 et seqq.). Within anonymous large groups, intense feelings were experienced; individual identification with the event and membership of the group were enhanced through sensory stimulation, emotional activation, as well as the intense focus on what was happening (“de-individualization”) (HERKNER, 2004, p. 486 et seqq.). Public viewing offered a production platform with appeal to the public and favored a multitude of possibilities for affecting the collective mood of the crowd as well as extrovert self-expression. Ways in which the behavior of the spectators was conditioned that

²⁸ From the viewing figures, which clearly surpassed the ranges for previous tournaments, it could be concluded that the TV demand was positively influenced by the needs of the population to identify with their national team, but also on the basis of the need for information generated by the greater social relevance of football during the World Cup (SCHRAMM & KLIMMT, 2003, p. 75 et seqq.).

had hitherto only been observed in the stadia were transmitted to places distant from the sporting event. These transfers established a tremendous manifestation of the atmosphere of the World Cup in public places in 2006 (SCHULKE, 2007, p. 14 et seqq.).

The positive perception and broad acceptance of the FIFA fan festivals may be traced back to a multitude of organizational concepts and production features. The starting point for the popularity with visitors was the central and in many places prominent locations of the public viewing areas,²⁹ which, not least through the establishment of official “fan embassies”, functioned as inner-city orientation and meeting points (SCHULKE, 2007, p. 24 et seqq.). Throughout the duration of the World Cup, the fan festivals symbolized social centers and a kind of modern market places, at which communication, interaction, and human coexistence came to the fore and feelings of community were strengthened (DIEHL, 2006).³⁰

The imposition of far-reaching security precautions ensured an as far as possible non-violent and peaceful atmosphere right around the “Fanmeilen”. Broad cultural and interactive supporting programs extended the range of experiences at the fan festivals. The conceptual structuring was oriented towards stadium-specific conditions and promoted, particularly through the extensive layout of the areas, the integration of grandstands, as well as the visual connection to the official look and feel of the 2006 World Cup, the transfer of the characteristic stadium atmosphere (FIFA, 2006b). The strategic dramaturgy of the stadium production was imitated at the “Fanmeilen” through theatrical presentation and interactive public participation (SCHULKE, 2007, p. 20 et seqq.).

²⁹ For example, the “Fanmeilen” in the Munich Olympiapark or on the “Straße des 17 Juni” in Berlin favored regional ambitions of the host cities to make an impression and generated national as well as international image and advertising effects.

³⁰ DIEHL (2006) describes the inner-city organization of the fan festivals as a revival of public spaces and city culture; SCHULKE (2007, p. 26) emphasizes the “downtown feeling” of the public viewings.

7 Summary and Outlook

The feel-good effect was among the greatest detectable effects of the 2006 football World Cup. The effect was so great, that the 2006 World Cup turned into one of the most significant events in Germany. With reference to future comparable events, it must first be pointed out that the findings from one such event cannot be applied on a one-to-one basis to other events such as the Olympic Games, not even to future football World Cups in other countries, and probably not even to possible such future events in Germany. The technical/organizational requirements, as well as the mentalities of the “typical” spectator, differ from sport to sport. Moreover, major sporting events are subject to a strong (perceived) change in meaning.

Having pointed this out in advance, the present contribution towards an “eclectic theory of the management of feel-good effects” has first set out the appropriate basic organizational and infrastructure conditions in the areas of security, transport, and ecology as essential prerequisites by which typical sources of friction can be avoided in the media coverage of the preparation and running of sporting competitions. In a country such as Germany, which has among the highest per capita CO₂ emission rates in the world, an emphasis on ecology, both internally and externally, was especially meaningful. In other countries, in which, for example, criminality is of considerable significance, special attention to security aspects may prove important.

As far as the communication and marketing activities of the public stake-holders were concerned, the 2006 World Cup was stage-managed less as a sports event than as a superordinate event, at which a country and its people realized their role as host nation. This shift away from a focus on pure sport found parallels in the shift of the activities of the private sponsors away from pure brand sponsoring towards a “socially responsible sponsoring”. Through their further activities, such as fan festivals, expanded participation opportunities could limit feelings of exclusion of the disadvantaged, those who did not receive tickets, and/or those who could not afford them. A development of this reorientation of the communi-

cation activities would lend itself in particular to countries with more strongly pronounced disparities in incomes.

The weather – unbeknownst to wide sections of the general public – has been subject to deliberate manipulations for decades, although these are mostly carried out in the interests of the agricultural industry. No such activities whatsoever are known of in connection with the 2006 World Cup. The 2008 Olympic Games in Beijing represent the first major sports event for which such manipulations have been officially announced. Possible ecological implications need to be examined and to be counter-balanced against the feel-good effect.

The (unexpected) success of the home team was an important part of the feel-good effect among the domestic population at the 2006 World Cup. Of comparable significance, however, were the type and style of play and the demeanor of the home team, which future organizers with potentially weak home teams should take into consideration. With regard to the pertinent management aspect of the feel-good effect, the manner of performance of the home team can even partly compensate for a lack of sporting success.

Finally, the central role of the creation of general participation opportunities was considered. The participations opportunities should not be limited to an experience-oriented arrangement of the games in the stadia and to the creation of a heterogeneous spectator structure through socially acceptable pricing as well as the allocation of admission tickets by prize-draws. Transmission of the event through free TV in the host country and the creation of fan festivals as free and experience-oriented reception alternatives in the venue cities can counteract the scarcely completely avoidable frustration regarding the allocation of World Cup admission tickets. Here also there are country-specific peculiarities to consider. In countries in which it gets dark earlier than in the northern European/German summer during the period of the sports event, the concept would have to be further developed accordingly. This paper, in addition to propose a development of a theory for the management of the feel-good effect, interprets itself as an advice that such country-specific demands must be given full consideration.

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