

The Worldwide Diffusion of Football: Temporal and Spatial Perspectives

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to evaluate how football evolved from a village activity in rural England to become the world's premier sport played in 208 countries. First, its diffusion in England is evaluated over time as well as how it spread spatially across the nation. Second, soccer's diffusion worldwide is analyzed both temporally and geographically to assess the rate at which the sport spread and how its adoption moved from nation to nation across the major regions of the world. Principal findings were that 40 years was the time taken for soccer to take root nationally and regionally; and that spatially, east-west diffusion occurred first across regions before its spread northwards and southwards. The principal reasons for its adoption worldwide were the game's simplicity, flexibility, and its appeal to common global values of teamwork, fair play, and equality. Globalization synergies are key factors accounting for the sport's worldwide popularity.

Introduction

Globalization became dominant in the 20th century as world nations began to interact economically with greater frequency, exchanging commodities, goods, and technologies. But while commercial transactions were its driving force, there were also cultural exchanges as Western influences infiltrated to foreign countries to affect country cultures (Hill, 2009).

One of these influences was sport, and of all Western cultural exports, sport has perhaps become the most significant for three reasons. First, in a world characterized by increasing industrialization and competition, sport has emerged as a key safety valve for relieving the social and economic stress induced by increasingly competitive societies (Madeiro, 2007). Second, in a 20th century characterized by two world wars and innumerable national conflicts, sport has become the institutionalized means of competing globally (Hough, 2008). Drawing on an Orwellian notion, industrial mogul Ted Turner once remarked: 'Sport is war without the killing' (Turner, n.d.). Third, sport has become a primary means of bringing the world's countries together (Lopes, 2007; Wood, 2007). Sport's effectiveness in these roles has raised it to preeminent popular status in many countries.

For these reasons, the globalization of sports has attracted much attention (e.g., Maguire, 1999; Robertson, 1992). But as Poli (2010) noted, "Among all sports, football is the one that saw the largest diffusion during the 20th century" (p. 491). As such, its globalization process has attracted much attention (e.g., Giulianotti, 1999; Goldblatt, 2006) both as an inter-cultural influence process (e.g., Guttman, 1993) and as a form of European neocolonialism (e.g., Bale, 1994; Eichberg, 1984).

But while the political, sociological, and cultural aspects of the globalization process are undoubtedly important, there are two aspects of the sports globalization process that received little attention. The first is its geographic diffusion. Bale (1978) called it "neglected" (p. 196).

Geographic diffusion, as Hagerstrand (1967, 1973) noted, occurs across spatial and temporal dimensions. The *spatial process* demonstrates how innovations diffuse geographically within and between societies. All innovations start somewhere. If accepted, they spread, but how? Mapping geographic and spatial diffusion helps our understanding of how innovations spread and, as importantly, what factors appear to be important in their diffusion. The *temporal dimension* of diffusion attaches timelines to the spread of innovations (Bale, 2003). New sports, like any innovation, diffuse over time, but how long, and what look to be the key factors influencing their diffusion pattern?

Once industries have internationalized and spread across countries, there are then opportunities for them to attain global synergies. These, as Aaker (1996) pointed out in the global branding field, occur as interactions among country markets build, maintain, and augment worldwide interest. These interactions, as Dicken (2007) and Hill (2009) noted are the essence of the globalization process. International sports also have opportunities to attain global synergies through their international activities. How this occurs is our second line of inquiry. Together, internationalization and globalization provide insights as to how and why some sports spread worldwide, and others do not, a topic identified by Elias (1986) as a question of interest in the literature. Our case study for this investigation is football, the world's most popular sport (FIFA.com).

Review of the Literature

National diffusion of football: England

The modern game of football originated in England, but its beginnings are global. In different forms, the game has been around for over 2000 years. Starting with Cuju in China during the Han Dynasty (206 BC-221 AD), it progressed through Japan (kemari), Greece (episkyros), and Rome (harpastrum) before becoming a regular feature of societal life in Britain in medieval times (Hill & Vincent, 2006).

The modern game started a century and one-half ago as football made the metamorphosis from a medieval village pastime to organized club sport over the period from the 1840s to the 1870s. As Goldblatt (2006) noted, this process was largely initiated by English public schools as they formed old-boys' teams (e.g., the Old Etonians, the Old Harrovians, and the Corinthians) to play each other and tour abroad. In those times, football was played by 'Christian gentlemen' as only England's upper classes had the leisure time to form clubs and participate (Miller, 2007). This changed in the 1870s as social reforms in Britain mandated Saturday half-day working, giving England's working classes time to participate. These reforms coincided with developments in economic infrastructure as buses, trains, and even bicycles allowed sports participants to travel more easily (Goldblatt, 2006).

Social and economic conditions played additional roles as football provided an athletic and social outlet for industrial workers to escape the uncertainty, drudgery, and misery of industrial life (Murray, 1996). Football amply fulfilled this function, and its growth over the quarter century to 1900 was extraordinary as it overtook cricket as the national sport (Goldblatt, 2006).

Nationwide interest was enhanced in 1871 with the start of a national competition, the FA Cup. This injected excitement into the sport and over 1873-1882, the number of club teams rose from 15 to 73 (Lissi, 2007). Further interest was aroused from the 1880s as telegraphy allowed game results to be communicated country-wide, extending the sport's appeal from local to regional

and national levels. As information flows improved, a national sports press emerged to further popularize the sport. In the 1890s, individual player recognition began as cigarette cards with player images made their appearance. As media coverage gained momentum after 1900, commercial sponsorships and endorsements became popular. The sport's allure was further enhanced in the early 20th century as professionalism took hold to allow Britain's working classes to capitalize financially on their sporting prowess (Bale, 1978; Goldblatt, 2006; Murray, 1996).

After the Great War of 1914-18, national interest was further stimulated as media participation picked up and radio began to carry games live in the 1920s. As a result, the game continued to prosper even as the Great Depression hit in the 1930s and as another World War devastated national and international economies between 1939 and 1945. In the post-war period, as Britain recovered its economic momentum in the 1950s and 1960s, consumer affluence levels rose and with them, television ownership. TV game broadcasts began, further elevating the sport's profile (Goldblatt, 2006; Murray, 1996). During the 1990s, there was a further boom as global media evolved and high profile clubs embarked on brand embellishment campaigns with some (e.g., Manchester United) beginning their own TV stations (Hill & Vincent, 2006).

The internet age added further media outlets for football and allowed increased fan involvement as clubs developed websites. Sophisticated in design, club websites in the English Premier League (EPL) offered club histories, news, ticket and merchandise purchasing opportunities, chat rooms, and statistics (Beech, Chadwick, & Tapp, 2000; Kriemadis, Kotsovas, & Kartakoulis, 2009). The addition of mobile phones further broadened customer reach, with the EPL negotiating national and international internet and mobile phone rights deals along with television rights for £2.1 billion over 2006-2007 (Olsen, Duray, & Slater, 2010).

Overseas adoption of soccer: Anecdotal evidence

Football was introduced to foreign markets through a variety of methods. Initially, sailors played pick-up games at ports (Goldblatt, 2006; Murray, 1996). From coastline ports, as Ravenel and Durand (2004) reported, professional teams were formed in France and Korea that spread inland as the sport's popularity gained traction. This dovetails with global business perspectives that new ideas often originate in coastal areas as international trade initiates exposure to foreign ideas and stimuli (Hill, 2009).

There were many other contributing pioneers. In British colonies, soldiers stationed abroad organized teams. Foreign-based expatriates (embassy employees, executives, students, and workers) initiated games for recreational purposes, and British educators weaned on the game introduced football at foreign educational establishments (Goldblatt, 2006; Horne & Manzenreiter, 2004; Murray, 1996).

Outside of the United Kingdom (UK), football made its debut in South America in portside games between British seamen and local residents (Giulianotti, 2007). It spread first in Argentina through British engineers and workmen building railways, working the mines, and through expatriate schools. This coincided with South American urbanization over 1890-1910 as factories and infrastructure were built and as trams and gas/electrical supplies mobilized the region's working classes, enabling them to form over 300 clubs by the early 20th century (Miller, 2007; Murray, 1996). Football's appeal received further boosts as a regional federation CONMEBOL (Confederacion Sudamericana de Futbol) was formed in 1916. This formalized the South American championships that had been played since 1910-1911 (Murray, 1996). Both

added to football's excitement quotient and animated Latin societies. At the macro-level, national teams helped to unite and integrate South America's diverse tribal and ethnic groups into a single national identity (e.g., Lopes, 2007; Panfichi & Thieroldt, 2007; Wood, 2007). At the micro-level, club rivalries magnified social and ethnic divisions at the league level (Magazine, 2007).

In Europe, students, private schools, and expatriates were early football pioneers in the second half of the 19th century, with Switzerland and Central Europe (Austria, Hungary, and Czechoslovakia) the early recipients. In Africa, south of the Sahara, soccer was first introduced by troops stationed in South Africa and Rhodesia. Its foundation was further solidified as expatriate teachers, students, and workers played the game. In Asia, European colonial possessions and outposts were also early catalysts as the game spread as soldiers played and as expatriates formed teams (Goldblatt, 2006; Murray, 1996). In India, football debuted through the army and through missionary schools (Mills & Dimeo, 2001).

Globally, Miller (2010) regarded European colonization as the major driving force behind football's diffusion across the British and French empires. But while this quintessentially European sport proved to be an acceptable form of Westernization in many countries, in others it had problems principally due to the interaction between the Western cultural import and national politics and cultures (Close & Askew, 2004). Politically, in the Middle East, Western-friendly Shahs in Iran allowed a national soccer federation to form in 1920 but anti-Western attitudes after that time led to a 4-decade lapse before a national league was formed in 1962. In Palestine, then under British occupation, football was played from the early 20th century, with competitive leagues instituted in the 1920s with both Jewish and Arab teams competing (Murray, 1996). After this time Jewish-Arab political conflicts caused the discontinuance of the Jewish and Arab teams competing.

In other countries, football's acceptance ebbed and flowed. The British introduced it into Tibet where, despite its popularity, it was at first discouraged by Tibet's religious leader, the Dalai Lama in the 1920s. It reemerged only to be banned in 1944 as too distracting for its Buddhist population. Under Chinese occupation from 1950, the sport again became popular, with a national team playing its first international game in 2001 (McKay, 2001). Typically though, outside of the colonial empires, anti-Western attitudes were problematic. Goldblatt (2006) noted that anti-Western attitudes in Russia and Turkey retarded football's adoption in the early 20th century. Finally, there were some anti-British reactions. Countries with very close ties to England (for example, Wales, Australia, and New Zealand) wary of over-Anglicizing their emerging national cultures, opted to make non-football sports their national pastimes (Hough, 2008).

Football's emergence from village pastime a century and one-half ago in England to 'the world's beautiful game' was not an easy one. It occurred during a 20th century characterized by global conflict, political and cultural upheaval, conditions that paralyzed most other international and global activities—except football. Here is a formal analysis of how it happened.

Formal analysis of the diffusion of soccer

While there is much anecdotal evidence concerning the adoption of football worldwide, a systematic analysis of its national and international diffusion patterns has not been forthcoming. This is the objective of this article. First, we outline the theoretical underpinnings of the diffusion process. Then we apply them to the sport's adoption in England, the birthplace of the modern

game, and then worldwide. We analyze the diffusion across two dimensions: temporally as we examine the formation of clubs and national associations over time; and spatially, as we chart its movement geographically throughout England and then worldwide. Finally, we examine how football attained the global synergies that propelled it to become the world's most popular sport.

Theoretical Foundations

Diffusion theory of innovations

Geographic diffusion theory was originally the work of Hagerstrand (1967, 1973) who identified the spatial and temporal dimensions of diffusion. However, it was Everett Rogers (1962, 1983, 1995) who refined the diffusion process by demonstrating how innovations were communicated and how they moved through social systems over time. He identified five major classes of adopters: innovators who pioneered and oversaw the initial introduction of a new idea or product (about 2.5% of total users); early adopters (about 13.5% of users) who had contacts with the innovators and viewed the innovation as usable within their societies. The major adoption surge then occurred as the early majority (comprising 34% of all adopters) provided additional momentum as they, along with the two earlier groups, established a critical mass adopting the innovation. The late majority, also about 34% of users, were trend followers. Finally there were the laggards, about 16% of users, who often had to be persuaded to join the majority.

Units of analysis

In this study we employed two major units of analysis. The first, applicable at the individual country level, was the formation of clubs, and we examined this in the English context as the birthplace of the modern game. Second, we investigated how the sport spread globally. The unit of analysis here was the formation of the national association. As Bale (2003) and Nanz and Steffek (2004) pointed out, the formation of national associations legitimized sports as legal public bodies in a country's social fabric. It was the point at which football achieved the internal critical mass to warrant national organization oversight.

Decision rule regarding adoption

Using the guidelines established by Rogers (1962, 1983), an innovation was deemed to be formally adopted in a country or region after the early and late majorities (the 68% of users between early adopters and laggards) adopted the innovation. This served as our approximate benchmark for the formal adoption of the sport.

Results

The diffusion of soccer in England and Britain: Temporal and spatial perspectives

From the full listing (shown in Appendix A), Table 1 shows club formation by era. As Table 1 shows, the vast majority of English soccer clubs (over 70%) were formed up to 1900. Initially, it was the Midlands and the North that provided the innovators and the early adopters for the game, with the South coming on strongly after 1881. The excitement of the FA Cup, changes in England's social fabric (5½ day work weeks), economic infrastructure upgrades (buses, bicycles, etc.), and improved press coverage look to be the likely catalysts up to 1900.

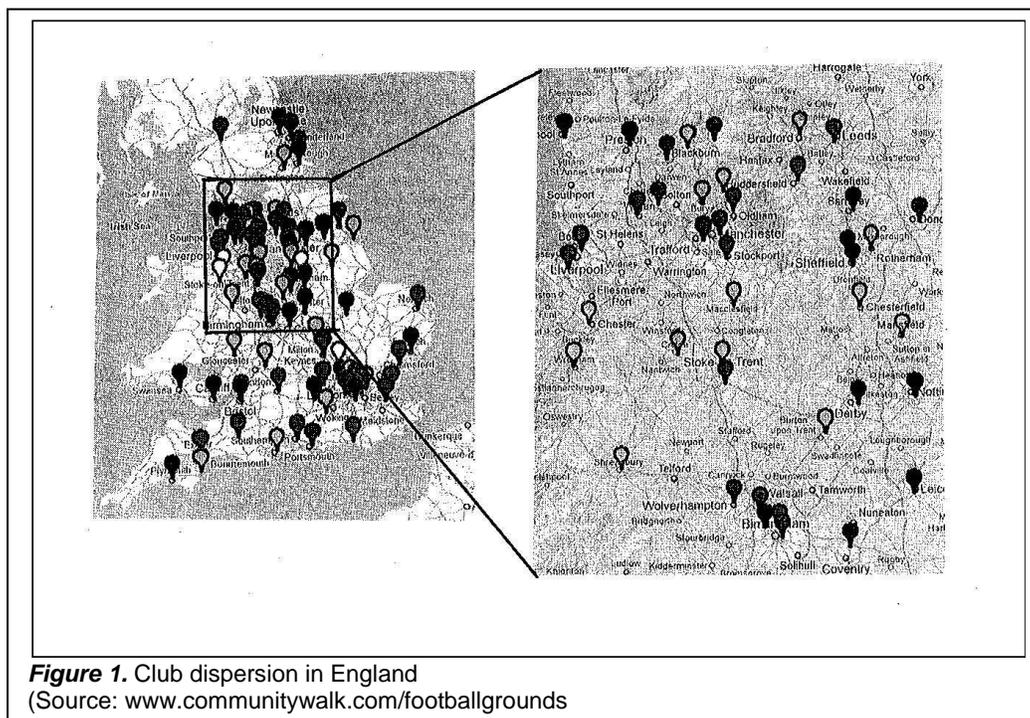
	Northern England	Midlands	Southern England	Other	Totals	Probable Catalysts
1861- 1880	10	10	3	1	24	FA Cup introduced; Saturday half-day work
1881- 1900	15	9	20	1	45	Infrastructure improvements, press coverage,; cigarette cards
1901- 1920	7		6	2	15	Commercial sponsors; widespread player professionalization
After 1920	2	3	3		8	Widespread media coverage over time
Totals	34	22	32	4	92	

From a spatial perspective, the innovators were Midland clubs, with the City of Nottingham featuring prominently. Those forming the pioneering vanguard were Notts County (1862), Stoke City (1863), and Nottingham Forest (1865). From there, the early adopters were in the North as Chesterfield (1866) and Sheffield Wednesday (1867) were added to the football fold. From then until 1880, the Midlands (Aston Villa, Birmingham City, Wolverhampton Wanderers) and the North (Bolton, Blackburn Rovers, Manchester United, Everton, Sunderland, Rotherham, Macclesfield, Port Vale, Crewe, and Middlesbrough) provided momentum. Outside of these core clubs, there were a few regional pioneers—Fulham and Tottenham Hotspur in London and Ipswich, respectively, on the east coast.

Over the next 2 decades to 1900, the south added its weight to the movement. Of the 45 clubs formed over this period, 20 were in southern England, 9 in central England, 15 in the north and 1 (Cardiff City) in Wales. Overall, 69 of 92 clubs were formed from 1861 to 1900 (75%). Thus, the diffusion of football, up to and including the late majority, took just 4 decades in England. From the turn of the century to 1920, with most of the country covered, club formation lapsed to just 15, half of which were northern-based.

Football success: The influence of regional agglomerations

While Table 1 shows club concentrations in the north and south following the initial formation of clubs in the Midlands, it does not show the extent of the regional end-dispersion. Figure 1 provides this information up to 2010. What it highlights is the prominence of the northwest, with its 17-club concentration around Lancashire and the Merseyside. This includes traditional EPL powerhouses Manchester United and Liverpool along with fellow EPL clubs Blackburn, Burnley, Wigan, Bolton, and Manchester City. Numerically, this EPL group eclipses London's five EPL clubs (Chelsea, West Ham, Spurs, Arsenal, and Fulham) and its regional supporting cast of seven other clubs.



Given that greater London's population dwarfs that of the northwest, this underlines the reverential status that football enjoys in Northwest England. Liverpool manager Bill Shankly once famously remarked, "Some people believe football is a matter of life or death. I am very disappointed with that attitude. I can assure you it is far more important than that" (Kelly, 1997, p. 290). This comment aptly sums up the regional attitude. The northwest was the first to professionalize the sport (Bale, 1978) and this early pursuit of excellence has been maintained to the present day. Measured by the number of league titles won, the northwest has garnered 54 titles out of a total (to 2010) of 111. If the northeast is added (Yorkshire and the Humberside) the total reaches 75. Additionally, Liverpool and Manchester United together have eight European club championship titles.

Global and regional trends in the diffusion of football

As of 2014, football is a worldwide sport. It progressed to that status largely over the 20th century as national federations were set up within countries. But before national federations could form, the nation-state itself had to be in existence. Yet in 1914, the concept of the nation-state was barely established with just 59 countries on the world map. Less than a century later, there were over 200 (Alesina & Spolaore, 2003). For many nations then, the concept of statehood in the 20th century has been a new experience. Football both contributed to and benefitted from the state-building process (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2004; Hough, 2008).

Temporal trends in football's global diffusion

Not surprisingly, football's worldwide diffusion did not occur smoothly in a turbulent 20th century that featured two world wars, a major economic depression, a Cold War between the US and the USSR, and the creation of about 140 new countries. As Table 2 shows, there were two major internationalization waves, one following each of the two world wars that dominated the

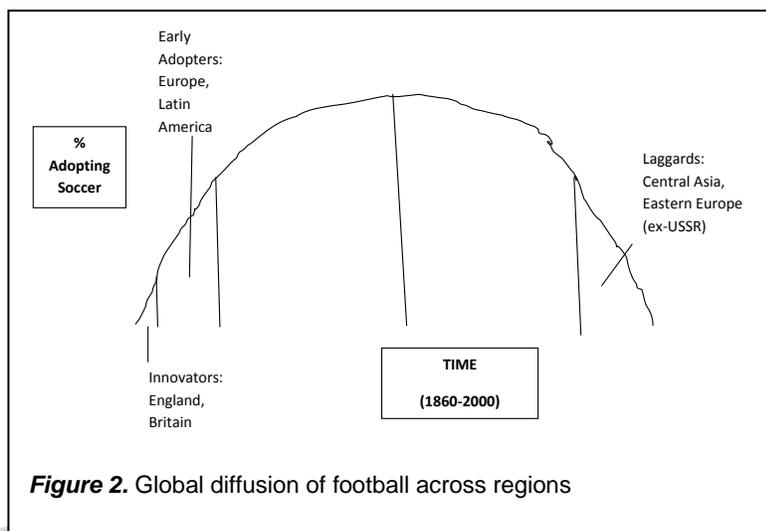
20th century. This conforms with Bale's (2003) theory that sports diffusion over time was likely to be an S-shaped curve with ebbs and flows. The first wave was between 1921 and 1940 as 55 countries established national associations. The second was in the post-1945 period when decolonization was at its height and football became established in 77 countries up to 1980. Thus both colonization and decolonization were influential in football's global diffusion. Colonization introduced the sport. Decolonization helped to legitimize the new nation-states through the formation of national federations and their acceptance into FIFA membership.

Period	Number of Nations	Probable Catalysts
Up to 1900	16	Foreign visitors (sailors, military, workers, schools) and colonial influences
1901-1920	33	Colonial influences
1921-1940	55	Colonial influences
1941-1960	37	Decolonization (expressions of nationality as new countries were formed)
1961-1980	42	Decolonization
1981-2000	22	New nations formed (USSR disbanded, countries break up into ethnic groups)
After 2000	1	

But behind the statistics were many variations. We examine these first by region and then within regions. These are illustrated in Figures 2 through 6 below with the full country listings by region shown in Appendix B.

Football's internationalization process: Spatial aspects

What Table 2 does not tell us is how football internationalized first among the world's regions and then within each region. Clearly, and never in dispute, Britain, South America, and Europe were the innovators and early adopters in spreading the modern game. After them, Asian nations mainly formed the early majority. Most were British or European colonies, ex-colonies, or countries with strong British cultural or commercial connections. British-influenced nations included New Zealand, Singapore, Hong Kong, Iran, Palestine, India, Malaysia, and Sri Lanka (then Ceylon) up to 1940. Over the same time, European colonial influences were also apparent in countries with French influences [Syria, Lebanon, and Cambodia (then Indo-China)], Portuguese influence (Macao), Dutch influence (Indonesia), and Spanish influence (Philippines, although Spain's 400-year colonial rule ended in 1901). The late majority comprised many African nations with over 90% of countries after 1940 (the late majority) being ex-colonies. The laggard nations were mainly ex-Soviet satellites as the USSR was disbanded in 1991.



Diffusion process within regions: Temporal aspects

Rogers' (1962, 1983, 1995) theory of diffusion states that an innovation is considered largely adopted as the early and late majorities (about 68%, or two-thirds of all adopters) embraced it. Given the global diversity of cultures, languages, and geographies, it is surprising that it took about 4 decades for football to spread throughout each region. In Europe, 65% of growth (34/52) in national associations took place in the 40 years after 1890. In South America, it took about 35 years for all 10 nations to get organized from the 1890s up to the mid-1920s. In geographically and culturally-challenged Asia, 67% of national associations (27 of 43) were formed between 1921 and 1961. In Africa, 76% of growth (41 out of 54 national associations) occurred between 1945 and 1985. Given the challenging global conditions of the 20th century, this was no small achievement. But within each region, football faced different circumstances. These are now examined.

Spatial diffusion within regions

The rate of soccer diffusion within individual regions shows some consistencies and some surprises. Initially, football made a slow start in Britain, but once the British had established the game's structural and organizational templates, it diffused quite rapidly and with some uniformity over a variety of regions with highly variable geographies and cultural characteristics.

Europe

Organized football started in England with the formation of its national association in 1863. From there it moved into Britain with the forming of federations in Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland by 1880. As one of the most westerly points in Western Europe, it was not surprising that from there football moved eastward and southward into mainstream Continental Europe through Denmark, Switzerland, and Italy. From these springboards football continued its eastward movement into Central Europe, and between 1900 and the outbreak of World War I in 1914, the sport had become established in Hungary, the Czech Republic (then Bohemia), Romania, Kazakhstan, Croatia, and Russia. By 1914 also, soccer had moved southward as

Spain and Portugal formed their associations. These early movements are illustrated in Figure 3.

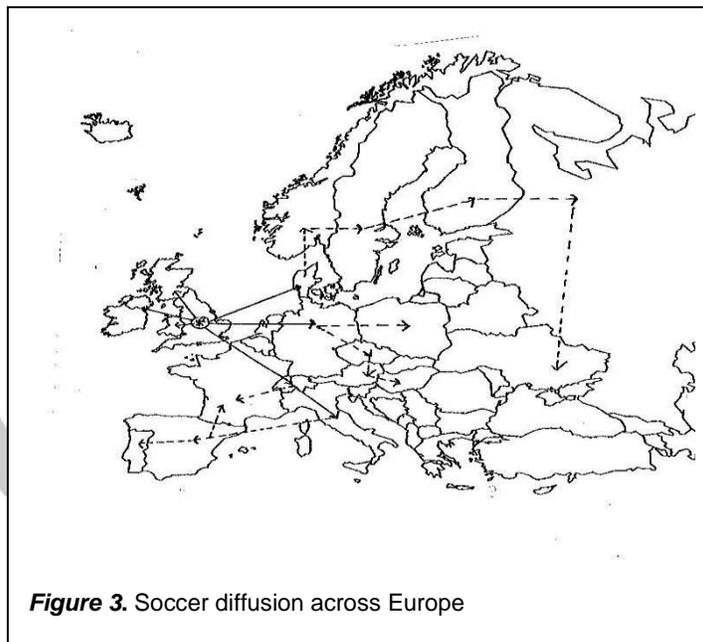


Figure 3. Soccer diffusion across Europe

By 1930, in spite of World War I, most of mainstream Europe was involved. From that time, smaller nations were added until the late 1980s when the USSR started to disintegrate and many former Soviet satellites celebrated their new-found independence by joining the football federations of Europe. As Central and Eastern Europe were freed from Soviet influences in 1991, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, Moldova, and Ukraine joined UEFA, as did the Czech and Slovak Republics as they formally split in 1993. Yugoslavia provided an additional seven federations as it divided back into its original ethnic groups after a bloody conflict in the early 1990s.

Overall, football's *complete* diffusion across Europe, including the laggard ex-USSR nations, took the best part of a century, not long considering the complications surrounding two world wars and the Cold War. Europe's compact geography (as the world's second smallest continent to Australia) both facilitated and prolonged the diffusion process. Aiding the process initially was the region's long history of interactions, especially on the commercial level. Retarding the diffusion process was its high ethnicity that from the 5th century onward had complicated regional communication and produced many conflicts during the 20th century before finally settling into its 50+ national groupings (Davis, 1996).

South America

With Europe, South America was an early adopter of the sport, and by the turn of the 20th century, football was established in its climatically temperate southern parts (Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay). Within a decade or so, the sport had moved northward into the climatically hotter nations that straddle the equator, with Paraguay and Brazil coming on stream by 1914 (see Figure 4). After the Great War in Europe, football became fully established as it moved into the hotter countries in the northwest, all of whom had national federations within the short span of 4 years (1922-26). Overall, it was a rapid region-wide diffusion that was completed in 35 years,

aided probably by South America's regional compactness, its common languages (Spanish and Portuguese in Brazil) and through its early urbanization that facilitated football's diffusion across its 6.9 million square miles land mass (Eakin, 2007).

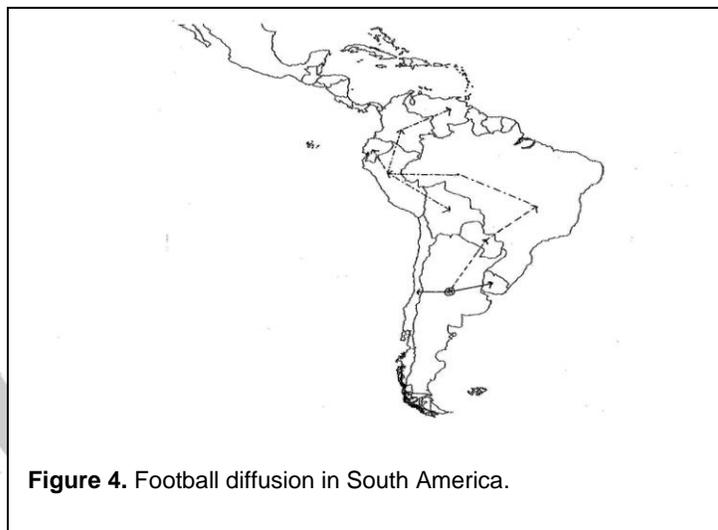


Figure 4. Football diffusion in South America.

Asia

Geographically and culturally, Asia was football's greatest challenge. Geographically, it was the world's largest region at 17.3 million square miles. Climatically, like South America and Africa, it straddled the equator. Topographically though, Asia was very different. It was not a compact landmass but was spread out across its Indian and Pacific Oceans, major archipelagoes (Indonesia and Philippines), large land masses (China and India), and many island states. Additionally, it was the world's most culturally complex region. All the world's major religions (Christianity, Islam, Buddhism, Hinduism, Confucianism, and Taoism) were present, as were thousands of languages and dialects (Mason, 2000). Geographically and culturally, then, Asia's complexities should have presented daunting obstacles for any Western innovation, especially one from Europe with its temperate climate, compact geography and homogeneous Christian religion. Yet football spread, just as it had in other parts of the world, with most of its growth in a time-span of just 4 decades (from 1921-1961). In this though, it was aided by extensive colonial presences and Western commerce.

Asia's football journey began in New Zealand in 1891. But its major move onto the Asian mainland occurred as Singapore, then under British rule, formed its national association in 1892. Initially, it was slow to catch on, complicated by extensive European colonial presences whose influence was largely unwelcomed (Braudel, 1993; Mason, 2000). Thus there was a 30-year lull as just four nations formed national federations, only two of which had extensive colonial histories (Philippines and Hong Kong).

But slowly the game spread, initially around the South China Sea (see Figure 5). This was Asia's most important shipping lane as it linked China, the Philippines, Malaysia, Brunei, Taiwan, and Indonesia. This suggests that Western and local trade were the likely catalysts. Then, probably through the same influences, it spread from Southeast Asia to major regional powers Japan and China in 1921 and 1924, respectively. This was noteworthy as neither was particularly stable at that time. Japan was becoming increasingly militant and internally repressive, while China stood on the brink of a civil war between the Chinese Nationalists and

Communists (Mason, 2000). Nevertheless, football took hold. From there, it spread mainly along Asia's coastal states in the 1930s, with India, Indonesia, Cambodia, Korea, Malaysia, and Taiwan signing on. Once again, Western influences, either trade or colonial occupation, were the likely precipitants. The only movements northward into Asia's interior over this period were to Afghanistan and Tajikistan, both of which bordered countries with federations (Iran and China, respectively). In a number of instances, national federations were formed prior to formal independence from their colonial overseers (e.g., India, Indonesia, Cambodia, and Malaysia).

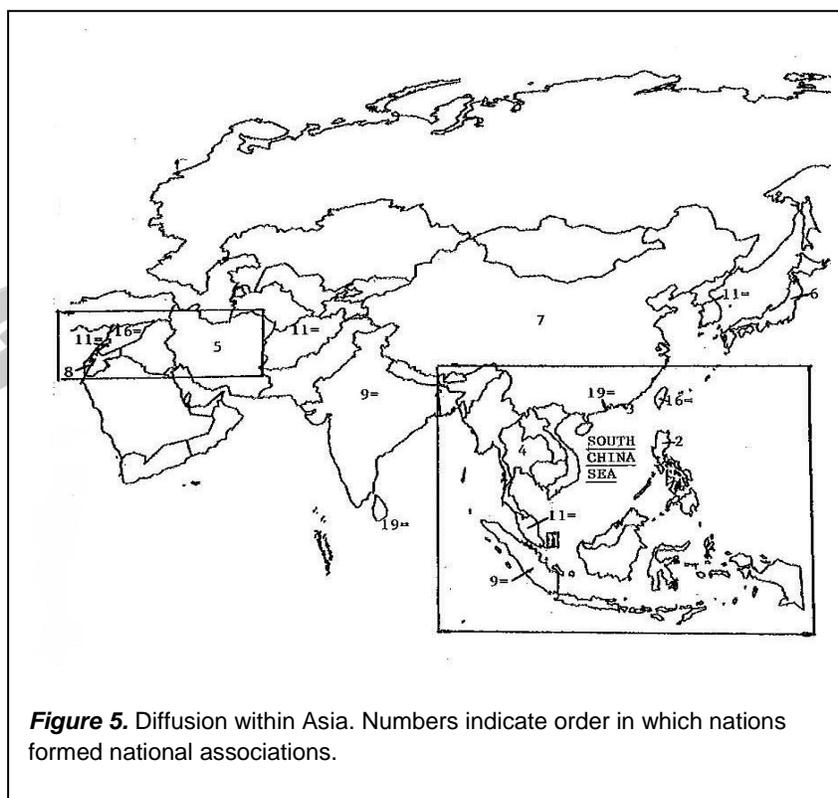


Figure 5. Diffusion within Asia. Numbers indicate order in which nations formed national associations.

Meanwhile, at the western end of Asia, football made its debut as British-influenced Iran formed its federation in 1920 to establish a regional presence in Southwest Asia (a.k.a., the Middle East). This was followed by federations in the Palestine in 1928, Lebanon in 1933, and Syria in 1936. All were then under colonial occupation or supervision. But football and politics were always intertwined in the Middle East. As Murray (1996) pointed out, football was first played in the Palestine early in the 20th century. While its federation was formed in 1928, increasing Jewish immigration to Palestine brought conflict as political and ethnic issues took precedence over sport.

No more Middle Eastern organizations were formed until the post-war era when six more (Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Bahrain, and Qatar) were established between 1948 and 1960. Crucially, this was a period characterized by Arab nationalism as many countries within the region became independent and the Middle East established itself as the world's premier oil producer (Mansfield, 2004). Of these, Saudi Arabia was the crucial addition in 1956. As the birthplace of Islam and opinion leader in the Muslim world, its formal adoption of football amounted to legitimization for the sport among Islam's 1 billion plus adherents. Even then, cultural controversies and complications ensued, as by Islamic standards, football's immodest

Western sports attire limited female participation and presence at matches (Farooq & Parker, 2009).

Football's Asian popularity was adversely affected by other colonial sports and well-entrenched local rivals. In India for example, the British over their 150 year occupation had exposed the country to numerous other sports, including cricket, squash, and field hockey. In Indonesia, badminton was a major national sport, and in Japan, apart from its native Sumo wrestling, baseball became popular following US occupation there in the post-1945 period (Goldblatt, 2006; Mills & Dimeo, 2001 Murray, 1996). Australia, a former British colony, was also conspicuously late in establishing its national federation in 1961. This was probably due to the popularity of a local rival, Australian Rules Football, and two colonial rival sports, cricket and rugby. In these nations, country cultures were resilient enough early on to resist the global trend toward football.

Asia's full adoption of soccer was completed after 1960 as a further 11 nations came on stream. This gave the region 28 countries in total and placed Asian football on a firm organizational footing. This late surge was due to two political factors. First, decolonization added Oman, UAE and Yemen, and Bangladesh. Second, the breakup of the USSR after 1991 released former USSR satellites Kyrgyzstan and Turkmenistan to join the Asian Football Confederation.

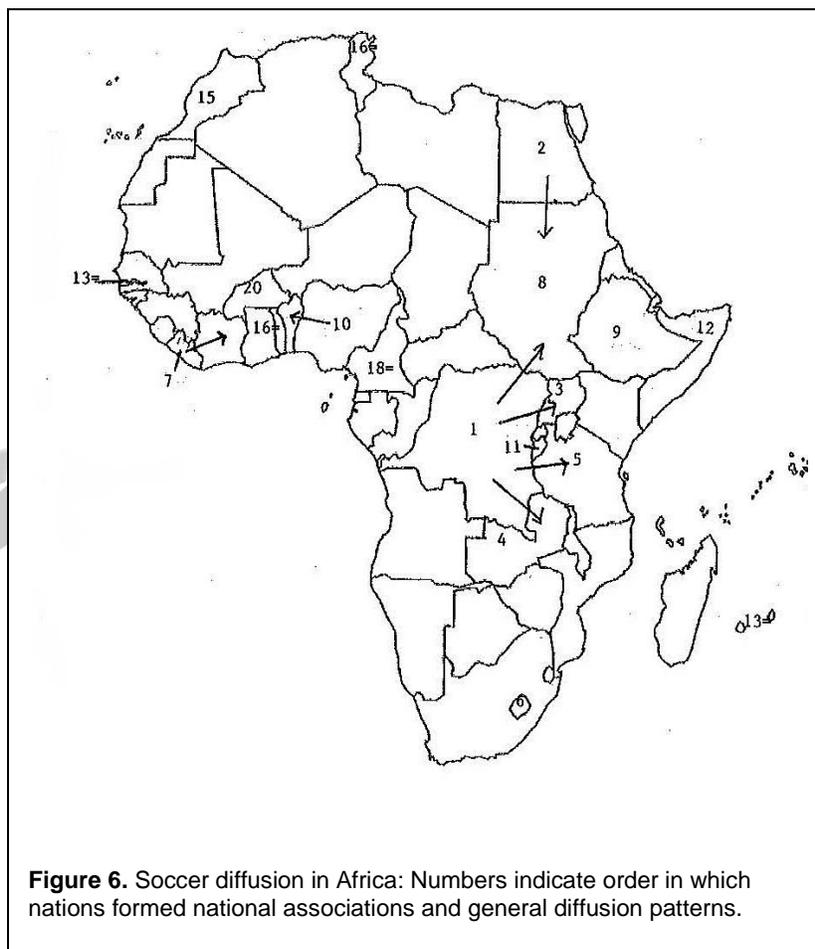
Africa

At 11.7 million square miles, Africa was another geographic and cultural challenge as Europe's premier sport spread around the world. Like Latin America, the region climatically centered on the equator, but geographically it was three times larger than Europe and culturally many more times diverse with over 2500 ethnic groups and a myriad of different languages and dialects (Hill, 2009). With 19th century Europe industrializing rapidly, the region's resources were attractive. The discovery of quinine and other medical advances opened up Africa's forbidding interior and in Europe came. By the mid-1880s, the European colonial machine had commandeered over 90% of Africa, despite much opposition (Overy, 2007).

As in Asia, the European presence of Britain, France, Belgium, Portugal, Germany, and Italy were key precipitants to the game's adoption. Initially, football's adoption in Africa was slow as the region's dominant geography, low level of development, and lack of infrastructure took their toll (Braudel, 1993). Its first federation was formed in its central-southern region in the DR Congo (then the Belgian Congo) in 1919. The interwar years were slow as African nations agitated for their independences. Only nations adjacent to DR Congo (Uganda, Tanzania, Zambia, and Sudan) got organized. In Islam-dominated North Africa, Egypt, then under British occupation, was Africa's second federation in 1921. Here adoption was equally slow, complicated by the hot climatic conditions and Islam's gender and modesty considerations. Thus, only Liberia and the Sudan formed national organizations in the interwar years. Noticeably absent in Africa were the two catalysts to football's European and South American adoption, industrialization and economic infrastructures (Collins, 2006).

Africa changed after 1945. From then until 1961, 20 nations secured their independence. A further 21 countries followed after 1961. Political independence caused the sport to surge, and from 1945 to 1985 over four-fifths of African nations formed their national associations to make football the region's premier sport. As a critical mass of nations was established, the Africa's Cup was initiated in 1961. After that time, despite poor infrastructures, educational systems, and national disruptions, as Murray (1996) noted, the sport continued to spread. By the time Africa

stabilized and democratized in the 1990s (Collins, 2006) football was indisputably its premier sport.



Internationalization catalysts of football's geographic diffusion

Why did football successfully internationalize with relative ease? Murray (1996) summarized the sport's appeal by noting:

Soccer's popularity far surpasses that of all other sports. It is based on the game's simplicity, its economic democracy and its appeal to the poor, the illiterate, the working classes—those who cannot afford a polo pony, a yacht, a squash racket or a set of clubs; whose games take place on streets and beaches and spare lots, not in expensive leisure centers or well-manicured lawns and who are likely to settle their differences with blows rather than by recourse to lawyers and letters to the editor. (p.168)

Murray's arguments centered around two key aspects. First, a sport must have widespread appeal to both participants and audiences. Second, there should be few impediments to its adoption. We elaborate briefly on these.

Simplicity appeal

The acceptance and accessibility of sports rules are key facilitators to international sports diffusion. Goldblatt (2006, p. 19) called football “the simplest game.” It has just 17 laws that have changed little since they were formalized in the 1860s to satisfy the innate English liking for order and consistency (Fox, 2005) and to ensure widespread acceptance and competition on even terms (Murray, 1996). Other versions of football developed along different paths. American Football, for example, started with just 12 rules in 1911 but as the game evolved, additions and clarifications caused these to balloon to 738 (Nelson, 1994).

Working class appeal

Football’s appeal to the world’s working classes was critical in its takeoff. Here, timing was important. Football’s take-off coincided with the industrialization movement that characterized 19th century Britain and the rest of the world during the 20th century. It provided a break from regimented factory life and daily routines to provide exercise and sociability (Murray, 1996). This working class appeal as ‘the people’s sport’ gave it decisive advantages over sports such as cricket that were heavily associated with distinct social classes.

Universal values appeal

Football’s shared values, embodied in the spirit of the game, were instrumental in its appeal. These date back to its early development in the 19th century when sport (including football) was initially played at English public schools as a character-shaping activity. The driving force behind these values was the Victorian concept of the ‘Muscular Christian’ ethic that emphasized courage, fairness, loyalty, equality, teamwork, justice, and sportsmanship in the 1860s (Mangan, 1981). These values, though, were not unique to Christian England or Europe. They were, as Smith (1998) pointed out, also core values in most of the major religions of the world (Islam, Hinduism, Buddhism, and Confucianism). In Asia, its teamwork, self-control, and fairness resonated with Buddhist and Confucian values (Goldblatt, 2006; McKay, 2001). In Latin America and India, its egalitarianism was a key selling point in societies with pronounced social class differences.

These three innate appeals were the keys to football’s global popularity. But other sports shared one or more of these appeals. What distinguished football was the *lack* of impediments that limited other sports.

Equipment and facilities

Football requires little specialized equipment and non-specific playing areas, even for formal games (Miller, 2007). This contrasts with cricket, American Football, and ice hockey. Its field of play is flexible. Small-sided games can be accommodated over decreased areas. This contrasts with tennis where formal court markings are crucial even in informal games. Football also did not require specialized surfaces or facilities as did sports such as track and field events in athletics and swimming.

Physical characteristics

Football required no specific athletic build as, for example, American Football and basketball do. As Murray (1996) commented, most of the game’s superstars, for example, are below 6 feet tall.

Most importantly, it is a game of spontaneity, skills, and wits. It is an easy game to play, but a hard game to play well.

Geographic requirements

Football, despite its origins in Europe's temperate climate, can be played on most surfaces and in almost all climates, unlike ice hockey and cricket. Despite this, temperature is a factor. Hoffmann, Ging, and Ramasamy (2002) found that teams from temperate climates (14° Celsius) tended to be more successful in international competition. This suggests that climate may have been a factor in the sport's adoption and popularity.

The globalization of football

Internationalization and globalization have often been used interchangeably in the popular press. But, as Dicken (2007) and Hill (2009) pointed out, they are different processes. Internationalization is the geographic spread across national borders while globalization is the integration of activities among countries. This distinction is important as while internationalization spreads activities across nations, it is the globalization process that creates the cross-border synergies that stimulate interest across nations over and above what individual activities could do on their own. Thus, our attention turns to the integrating mechanisms that have transformed football's diverse geographic activities into the cohesive global sport we know today.

Bale (2003) drew attention to seven globalizing tendencies in sport. These are (a) global telecommunications and media, (b) the international division of labor to produce sports equipment, (c) international sports organizations, (d) international sports management firms that control athletes and promote events, (e) the promotional strategies of individual teams, (f) the growth and migration of outstanding foreign athletes across national borders, and (g) the growth of professionalism. We now assess each of these with respect to football.

Global media

The role of the mass media was crucial in globalizing the sport's appeal to international audiences. Technology provided the platform as satellite transmissions facilitated global viewership over the 1990s. Crucially, the awarding of the English Premier League (EPL) television contract to Rupert Murdoch's BSkyB network in 1988 was the key. In the 1990s, as his media empire expanded, the EPL was taken worldwide, reaching over 170 countries (Crispin, 2004). But that was only the beginning. In the 2 decades following, media options multiplied. Fox Sports launched its dedicated football channel in 2006. Clubs initiated their own websites through the internet, their own media (e.g., Manchester United's MUTV), and even their own cafes. As media options expanded, EPL club brands like Manchester United, Chelsea, Arsenal, and Liverpool became household names around the world (Hill & Vincent, 2006; Horne & Manzenreiter, 2004). Global access and interest peaked in 2010 as the World Cup final attracted an estimated 700 million viewers worldwide, the largest sports audience ever (www.epltalk.com/2010-world-cup-final).

International division of labor

In a globalizing world economy, Maguire (1999) reported that all aspects of the sports value chain become mobile, especially players, managers, and coaches, broadening club appeal

beyond its national boundaries. In football, the key factor affecting player mobility was the European Union's 1995 Bosman Ruling that allowed free transfers after player contracts had expired. As the world's most competitive league opened up, player mobility increased both within Europe and from outside. The EPL in particular benefitted from the quality player influx at both senior levels (Madichie, 2009) and at the youth academy levels (Elliott & Weedon, 2010). On the EPL's opening day in 1992, there were just 15 non-British players on display. By 2007, there were 340 eligible players. Similarly, South America's foreign player numbers tripled between 1980 and 2000 (Gilbert, 2007).

At other levels of the club value chain, globalization also had effects. Managerially, clubs increasingly sought the best talent. Currently, of the EPL's 'big six' clubs (Manchester United, Manchester City, Spurs, Chelsea, Arsenal, and Liverpool) just one (Spurs) has an English manager. Ownership, too, has globalized, with the EPL leading the way with half its teams under foreign ownership in 2008 (Nauright & Ramfjord, 2010).

International sports organizations

The early foundation of its world body, FIFA, in 1904, as Quinn (2007) noted 'made soccer global before we thought global'. But still, for many decades football retained its European and Latin American orientation. It took Joao Havelange's presidency of FIFA from 1974 to give the organization a true global outlook as 90 additional nations were brought into the football fold between 1974 and 1998 (Murray, 1996).

In recognition of its global appeal, FIFA has made pronounced efforts to bring its signature event, the World Cup to new regional audiences. In recent times, the World Cup has alternated between traditional powerhouse venues (France in 1998, Germany in 2006, and Brazil in 2014) and new venues to aid the sport's adoption (the USA in 1994, South Korea and Japan in 2002, and South Africa in 2010). This trend has continued as football's premier event goes to Qatar in 2018 and Moscow in 2022.

Organizationally, regional organizations gave the game structure at the sub-global level. In this, CONMEBOL was the leader in South America in 1916. Four decades elapsed before other regions followed suit. Both UEFA (Europe) and AFC (Asia) were formed in 1954, CAF (Africa) in 1957, CONCACAF (North and Central America) in 1961, and OFC (Oceania) in 1965. Each currently orchestrates the qualifying rounds for the World Cup and their own regional competitions.

International sport management firms

Media globalization gave football worldwide visibility and increased opportunities for commercial exploitation (Hill & Vincent, 2006). This made the sport attractive to global companies whose sponsorships provided welcome injections of capital. Apparel giants Adidas and Nike began to compete globally for key player, club, and league sponsorships. Sponsorships also added synergies to the sports value chain as prestigious sponsors, successful players, and teams each added to the others' marketplace visibility and attractiveness (Shah, Nazir, & Khalid, 2013). In South Asia, Philips, Tata, and United Breweries got behind Indian football (Mills & Dimeo, 2001) and in South America, Carrefour, Visa, and Adidas sponsored players and clubs (Alabarces, 2007). Thibault (2009) summarized the sport-media-multinational enterprise synergies as the 'ménage-a-trois'.

Promotional strategies of individuals and teams

Outstanding individuals and teams promote the game and spread excitement. In the 1960s and 1970s TV made icons out of Eusabio, Charlton, Law, Best, and Cruyff (Goldblatt, 2006). In the modern era, football and business have interacted even more as football appeal has been leveraged beyond the sporting domain. David Beckham extended his football appeal into fashion and Hollywood to become the archetypal working class metrosexual icon (Vincent, Hill, & Lee, 2009).

Outstanding teams at the club and national levels added to the game's allure. Hungary's 1950s' teams, featuring Pushkas, played 46 games and lost just 1, scoring 210 goals (Murray, 1996). Real Madrid, with Di Stefano won the UEFA Cup five times between 1956 and 1960. Liverpool under Bill Shankly and Bob Paisley emulated that feat over the 1970s and 1980s. Additional synergies came with timing. Manchester United's 1990's on-field success and global brand notoriety coincided with the global media expansion of that decade (Hill & Vincent, 2006). In recent times, Barcelona, with Lionel Messi, became the dominant team with UEFA successes over 2009-2011. All had one thing in common: they capitalized on global media and the sport's worldwide popularity to add to the game's attractiveness.

The growth of professionalism

Professionalism enhances sports by providing incentives for player excellence that in turn upgrades the sport as a spectacle. As Bale (1978) noted, professionalism in the English game began in Lancashire in the late 1870s in Blackburn, Bolton, and Preston. With the success of northern teams, it spread southward to the Midlands and then to the southeast between 1885 and 1907.

Professionalism also unwittingly added to the game's global appeal as the sport's finest players became unavailable for then-amateur Olympics. A new outlet for global competition was necessary. The World Cup provided it with its inaugural event held in Uruguay in 1930 (Lissi, 2007). Once the tournament became a reality, professionalism spread in Latin America, first in Argentina (1931), Uruguay (1933), and Brazil over 1933 to 1936 (Murray, 1996). A half-century later, full-pay professionals became part of Asian leagues [1983 in South Korea's case (Hongik, 2004) and in Japan a decade later (Takahashi & Horne, 2004)]. The 1990s also saw the adoption of professionalism in Africa to increase the club talent pool levels (Goldblatt, 2006).

Conclusions and Discussion

This study is the first to systematically chart and analyze the national and international diffusion of a major sport. Football's complete global diffusion took a century and a half from its formalization in England after the middle of the 19th century to its last adoptee in 2002. A key finding from this research was that, despite being the archetypal Western cultural export, football's diffusion across regions of variable geographies, climates, and cultures took a uniform 4 decades. This suggests that changes in national sporting habits only occur over decades as the generation that introduces the game carries that enthusiasm over to succeeding generations. In the USA's case for example, the 1994 hosting of the World Cup may eventually lead to its widespread adoption (if it happens) by about 2030-2040.

Our analysis of the game's diffusion in England suggests that regional agglomerations are influential in club success, and that the intense rivalries among the numerically-clustered clubs

in northwest England have contributed to the region's success nationally and in Europe. These findings contrast with those of Paulo and Reis (2010) who found that European club soccer success tended to occur in high population density-high affluence regions, the same as in Latin America (Gilbert, 2007). Our explanation for this finding draws on Porter's (1990) competitive advantage of nations' thesis. This posits that intense local rivalries pay off globally as heightened levels of local competition from geographically concentrated industry rivals create hyper-competitive conditions that raise global performance levels. Such appears to be the case in the English northwest.

An unexpected finding was the muted effect of environmental factors such as geography, climate, and culture on football's global acceptance. Geographically, our spatial analysis did show a few short-term effects. Football's movement out of Britain was at first eastward to adjacent European countries with the same temperate climate. This dovetails with Diamond's (1998) assertion that innovations initially spread more easily along the same climatic band rather than north-south across climactic bands. This was also the case in South America, where adoption was initially in the more temperate climates of Argentina, Uruguay, and Chile. Only later did it spread northward into the more the equatorial countries. In Asia also, football began at the eastern and western ends (Singapore and Iran, respectively) and moved east and west along the same climatic band. The anomaly to the climatic band thesis was Africa where, if anything, the reverse was true, with African soccer getting started in equatorial DR Congo but spread more randomly to adjoining nations.

We were equally surprised that football, like many sports, did not suffer from its Western cultural label. Its diffusion occurred during a time of Western hegemony when the British and European Empires were still factors in world politics, opening the sport up to allegations of cultural imperialism and neocolonialism (e.g., Bale, 1994; Eichberg, 1984; Guttman, 1993). Our research suggested that this may not be the case. In South America's case for example, Spanish and Portuguese influences were long gone by the time that football took off there in the late 19th century. Neither was colonial occupation a major factor in the sport's spread in Europe. We also noted that in both Africa and Asia most national football federations were formed as decolonization occurred, times when nationalist, rather than colonial, attitudes were at their height. Finally, football was adopted in Muslim, Buddhist, and Hindu cultures during times when pro-Western values and attitudes were highly unpopular.

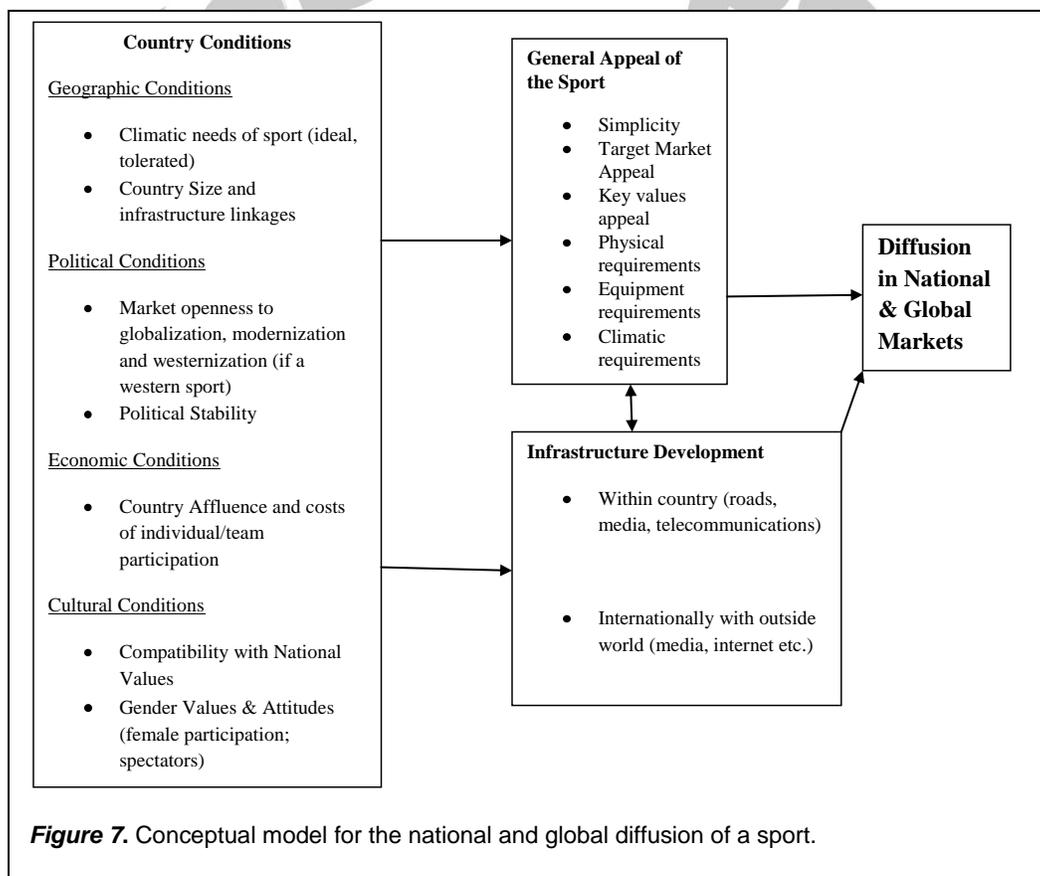
The key catalysts promoting the diffusion of football, both nationally and globally, were its simplicity, working class appeal, and its underlying values of fairness, equality, and teamwork. Equally important, football was never impeded by excessive equipment requirements, specific physical requirements, or climatic needs. All enhanced football's appeal and enhanced its internationalization push. Timing was perhaps the key catalyst for football's diffusion and surge to global popularity. In almost all cases, its arrival coincided with industrialization. With this came improvements in national and international infrastructures to facilitate player participation and competition among teams. Here, two key factors came together, an urbanized working class seeking a physical and social outlet and an infrastructure that allowed players and spectators to travel, communicate, and promote its activities. We see infrastructure's influence initially as transportation, mails, and telegraphy linked England's regions in the late 19th century. Later, we see it as first radio and then television made their impacts. Finally we see it as digital media and the internet escalated fan interest.

Globally, we also see infrastructure's influence later in creating and maintaining football's worldwide momentum. Without global transportation and telecommunications infrastructures,

international and regional organizations could never have promoted and coordinated regional and global football activities such as the World Cup and regional competitions. Global media, particularly television, stimulated spectator interest and made global icons of players such as Pele, Best, Eusabio, and Cruff over the 1960s and 1970s. In the 1990s, it did the same for Cantona, Beckham, and Messi and made clubs such as Manchester United, Real Madrid, and Barcelona into global household names. In the new millennium, the internet and digital media have added to this global momentum.

Suggestions for Future Research

For sports management scholars, we offer Figure 7 as a template to guide future research efforts in this field. In it we bring together the country conditions, sports appeals, and infrastructure development needs that facilitate or retard the diffusion of a sport nationally and internationally.



We see the globalization of sport as a potential-laden area for future research efforts and would suggest the following topics for future research interest.

- On the global diffusion of sport: This effort focused on football, the world's most popular sport. We view many others as eligible for this type of analysis [e.g., baseball, rugby football (league and union), American football, basketball, wrestling, volleyball, and so on].
- Organizational aspects can be evaluated, charting and reporting on interfaces between local, regional, national, and international organizations. Best organizational practices

can be identified, as can disruptive elements such as corruption, cronyism, and other factors.

- Researchers in marketing can investigate numerous topics such as consumer involvement measures (preferences all the way up to consumer devotion), equipment and sourcing strategies, branding, promotions, and pricing.
- Accounting and financial practices of clubs, national, and international organizations (transparency, profitability, non-profit management).
- Gender issues with respect to consumer attractiveness, performance, and cultural factors (patriarchal tendencies, religion, the roles of tradition and emancipation, etc.).
- Finally, while sports are usually associated with able-bodied athletes, sports for the disabled and disadvantaged also have parallel organizations and practices that should be studied globally.

We appreciate that some research on these topics has already occurred, but with 200+ nations in the world, there is much scope for further evaluation.

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Appendix A: The Diffusion of Club Soccer in England and Wales

	EPL	League Championship	League 1	League 2
1861-1880	Stoke 1863 (2) Aston Villa 1874 (8=) Bolton 1874 (8=) Birmingham 1875 (11) Blackburn 1876 (12=) Wolves 1876 (12=) Man. Utd. 1878 (17=) Everton 1878 (17=) Fulham 1879 (21=) Sunderland 1879 (21=) Spurs 1879 (21=) Regional Dispersion Northwest 4 Northeast 1 Midlands 4 Southeast 2	Nott'ham Forest 1865 (3) Sheffield Wed. 1867 (5) Reading 1871(7) Middlesbrough 1876 (12=) Ipswich 1878 (17=) West Brom. 1878 (17=)		Notts. County 1862 (1) Chesterfield 1866 (4) Rotherham 1870 (6) Macclesfield 1874 (8=) Port Vale 1876 (12=) Crewe 1877 (16) Grimsby 1878 (17=)
1881-1900	Burnley 1882 Arsenal 1876 Man. City 1887 Liverpool 1892 West Ham 1895 Portsmouth 1898 Regional Dispersion Northwest 2 Northeast 1 Southeast 2 Midlands 1	Newcastle 1881 Preston 1881 Watford 1881 Queens Park Rangers 1882 Coventry 1883 Derby 1884 Leicester 1884 Plymouth 1886 Barnsley 1887 Blackpool 1887 Sheffield Utd. 1889 Doncaster 1891 Bristol 1894 Scunthorpe 1899 Cardiff City 1899 Regional Dispersion Northwest 2 Northeast 4 Midlands 4 Southeast 2 Southwest2 Wales 1	Leyton Orient 1881 Swindon 1881 Bristol Rovers 1883 Stockport 1883 Tranmere Rovers 1884 Wycombe 1884 Southampton 1885 Millwall 1885 Walsall 1888 Milton Keynes 1889 Brentford 1889 Gillingham 1893 Oldham 1895 Yeovil 1895 Regional Dispersion Northwest 3 Midlands 1 Southeast 6 Southwest 4	Accrington Stanley 1881 Darlington 1883 Lincoln 1884 Bury 1885 Shrewsbury 1886 Barnet 1888 Cheltenham 1892 Northampton 1897 Bournemouth 1899 Torquay 1899 Regional Dispersion Northwest 3 Midlands 3 Southeast 1 Southwest 3
1901-1920	Hull City 1904 Chelsea 1905 Regional Dispersion Northeast 1 Southeast 1	Crystal Palace 1905 Swansea City 1912 Regional Dispersion Southeast 1 Wales 1	Brighton 1901 Norwich 1902 Carlisle 1903 Exeter 1904 Charlton 1905 Southend 1906 Hartlepool 1908 Huddersfield 1908 Leeds 1919 Regional Dispersion Northeast 4 Southeast 3 Southwest 1 East 1	Bradford 1903 Rochdale 1907 Regional Dispersion Northwest 1 Northeast 1
1921-1940	Wigan 1932	Peterborough 1934	Colchester Utd. 1937	Morcambe 1920 Hereford 1924 Burton 1950 Dagenham 1992 Aldershot 1992
1941-1960				
After 1960				

Source: Adapted from www.the.football-club.com

Appendix B: National Soccer Associations Formed by Region and by Year(Source: Adapted from www.fifa.com/aboutfifa/federation/associations)

	AFC	CAF	CONACAF	EUFA	OFC	CONMEBOL
Up to 1900	Singapore (1892)			England (1863); Scotland (1873); Wales (1876); N. Ireland (1880); Denmark (1889); Switzerland (1895); Italy (1898); Netherland (1898); Germany (1900); Malta (1900)	New Zealand (1891)	Argentina (1893); Chile (1895); Uruguay (1900)
1901-1920	Philippines 1907 Hong Kong 1914 Thailand 1916 Iran 1920	DR Congo 1919	Guyana (1902); Haiti (1904); Trinidad & Tobago (1908) Barbados (1910); Jamaica (1910); Canada (1912); USA (1913); Guatemala (1919); Suriname (1920)	Hungary (1901); Czech Rep. (1901) Norway (1902); Sweden (1904); Austria (1904); Finland (1908); Lux'Bg. (1908); Romania (1909); Croatia (1912) ; Russia (1912); Spain (1913); Portugal (1914); Kazakhstan (1914); 1919: France, Poland, Serbia; Slovenia (1920)		Paraguay (1906); Brazil (1914)
1921-1940	Japan 1921 China 1924 Palestine 1928 India 1930 Indonesia 1930 Afghanistan 1933 Cambodia 1933 Korea 1933 Lebanon 1933 Malaysia 1933 Taiwan 1936 Syria 1936 Tajikistan 1936 Macao 1939 Sri Lanka 1939	Egypt 1921 Uganda 1924 Zambia 1929 Tanzania 1930 Lesotho 1932 Liberia 1936 Sudan 1936	Neths. Antilles (1921); Costa Rica (1921); Cuba (1924); Grenada (1924); Mexico (1927); Antigua & Barbuda (1928); Bermuda (1928); Nicaragua (1931); Aruba (1932); St. Kitts/Nevis (1932); El Salvador (1935); Panama (1937); Puerto Rica (1940)	1921: Estonia, Ireland, Latvia; Lithuania (1922); Bulgaria (1923); Turkey (1923); Greece (1926); Albania (1930); Montenegro (1931); St. Marino (1931); Cyprus (1934); Liechtenstein (1934)	New Caledonia (1928); Vanuatu (1934); Fiji (1938)	Peru (1922); Colombia (1924); Bolivia (1925); Ecuador (1925); Venezuela (1926)

Appendix B: National Soccer Associations Formed by Region and by Year (continued)

	AFC	CAF	CONACAF	EUFA	OFC	CONMEBOL	
1941-1960	Uzbekistan 1946 Burma/Myanmar 1947 Pakistan 1948 Iraq 1948 Jordan 1949 Laos 1951 Nepal 1951 Kuwait 1952 Saudi Arabia 1956 Bahrain 1957 Mongolia 1959 Qatar 1960	Ethiopia 1943 Nigeria 1945 Burundi 1948 Somalia 1951 Gambia 1952 Mauritius 1952 Morocco 1955 Tunisia 1957 Ghana 1957 Brunei 1959 Cameroon 1959 1960: Burkina-Faso; Ivory Coast ; Equatorial Guinea; Guinea; Kenya; Mali; Senegal; Sierra Leone; Togo	Honduras (1951); Dom. Republic (1953)	Iceland (1947); Israel (1948); Macedonia (1948)			
1961-1980	Australia 1961 Vietnam 1962 Yemen 1962 UAE 1971 Bangladesh 1972 Guam 1975 Oman 1978	1961: Madagascar; Mauritania; Central African Republic; Niger 1962: Algeria, Benin; Congo; Chad; Gabon; Libya. Zimbabwe (1965); Malawi (1966); Swaziland (1968); Botswana (1970); Rwanda (1972); Guinea-Bissau (1974); Sao Tome e Princip (1975); Mozambique (1976); 1979: Comoros; Djibouti; Seychelles	Cayman Isl. (1966); Bahamas (1967); Dominica (1970); Br. Virgin Isl. (1974); St. Lucia (1979); St. Vincent / Grenadines (1979)	Faroe Isl. (1979)	Papua New Guinea (1962); Tonga (1965); Samoa (1968); Cook Isl. (1971); Solomon Isl. (1978)		
1981-2000	Maldives 1982 Bhutan 1983 Kyrgyzstan 1992 Turkmenistan 1992	Cape Verde Is. (1982); Anguilla (1990); Namibia (1990); South Africa (1991); Eritrea (1996)	US Virgin Isl. (1992); Montserrat (1994); Turk/Caicos Isl. (1996)	Belarus (1989); Georgia (1990); Moldova (1990); Ukraine (1991); 1992: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bosnia-Herzegovina; Slovakia (1993); Andorra (1994)	Tahiti (1989); American Samoa (1994)		
After 2000	East Timor 2002						