

Postmodern Openings

ISSN: 2068-0236 | e-ISSN: 2069-9387

Covered in: Web of Science (WOS); EBSCO; ERIH+; Google Scholar; Index Copernicus; Ideas RePeC; Econpapers; Socionet; CEEOL; Ulrich ProQuest; Cabell, Journalseek; Scipio; Philpapers; SHERPA/RoMEO repositories; KVK; WorldCat; CrossRef; CrossCheck

2021, Volume 12, Issue 3, pages: 350-383 | <https://doi.org/10.18662/po/12.3/344>

The Impact of Perceived Corporate Reputation of Sport Clubs on Social Media Usage: a Study with the Lenses of Social Capital

Emel ESEN¹,
Seçil TAŞTAN²,
Nihan DEGERCAN³

¹ Prof. Dr., Yıldız Technical University, Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences, Department of Business Administration, Sub-Department of Organizational Behavior, ORCID NO: 0000-0001-5753-3252, emeloz@yildiz.edu.tr

² Assoc. Prof. Dr., Marmara University, Faculty of Business Administration, Department of Business Administration (English), Sub-Department of Organizational Behavior, ORCID NO: 0000-0003-3243-3989, seciltastan@marmara.edu.tr

³ Yıldız Technical University, Social Sciences Institute Doctorate Student, ORCID NO: 0000-0003-0685-3755, nihan_degercan@hotmail.com

Abstract: Technological developments and changes in communication systems in postmodern world have enhanced the organizations to improve their own communication infrastructures and to effectively use their internet sites. Like all other organizations, sport club institutions have considered the vital importance of investing in social media activities and creating their corporate reputation through their connections with their supporters. Thus, social media channels and public relations via social media have been the most essential tools of the organizations to build company image and increase their corporate reputation among the stakeholder groups, particularly their supporters. Taking into account the suggested influence of effective use of social media on building corporate reputation, the current study examined the relationship between supporters' social media usage frequency and their perceptions of corporate reputation. A cross-sectional research design has been applied in order to obtain data about the corporate reputation perception levels and social media usage frequencies of the supporters as well as the demographic characteristics of the participants. The sample group was composed of 782 participants and data obtained was examined by executing statistical analyses. The findings revealed that individuals' social media usage frequency has positive effect on the perceived corporate reputation. In addition, demographic differences were observed in terms of the social media usage frequency and corporate reputation perception. Consequently, the results of the study were discussed in the light of the conceptual background and the previous empirical evidences. The managerial and conceptual implications of the study were evaluated and future directions were presented.

Keywords: *Corporate reputation, Social media, Sport club, Stakeholder theory, Social Capital theory.*

How to cite: Esen, E., Taştan, S., & Degercan, N. (2021). The Impact of Perceived Corporate Reputation of Sport Clubs on Social Media Usage: a Study with the Lenses of Social Capital. *Postmodern Openings*, 12(3), 350-383. <https://doi.org/10.18662/po/12.3/344>

1. Introduction

Corporate reputation as being one of the most widely investigated concepts in organizational management, marketing management and organizational behavior literature has in the recent decades gained attention even its theoretical background is based on stakeholder theory and social capital theory (Preston, 2004; Luoma-aho, 2013; Maltese, Pons and Prévot, 2017). A review of extant corporate reputation literature demonstrates that scholars have, in their researches, fundamentally focused on two areas. One area is underlining the positive consequences of corporate reputation for organizations (e.g., Rose and Thomsen, 2004; Brammer and Pavelin, 2006; Fombrun, 2012; Hong, Dobrzykowski, Park, Lee and Roh, 2012; Hur, Kim and Woo, 2014); and the other area is the examination of the antecedents of the concept (e.g., Walsh, Mitchell, Jackson and Beatty, 2009; Jinfeng, Runtian and Qian, 2014; Van Der Merwe and Puth, 2014). It is argued that over time, the overall corporate reputation quotation of organizations had influences on outcomes of corporate performance, social capital, customer purchase behavior, brand perceptions, sustainability, etc. (e.g., Fombrun, Gardberg and Sever, 2000; Preston, 2004). Following this argument, researchers and organizations showed noteworthy consideration to search tools to enhance performance, market value and positive customer perceptions. Recently, researchers working in managerial sciences, marketing and organizational behavior have shifted to investigate positive outcomes of corporate reputation, particularly in customer level analysis (Gray and Balmer, 1998; Gotsi and Wilson, 2001; Chun, 2005; Barnett, Jermier and Lafferty, 2006; Barnett and Pollock, 2012). The links between corporate reputation and postmodern community communication were demonstrated, however there is scarce knowledge about the consequences of sport clubs' corporate reputation, since the concept is most often examined within service and production companies. In actual fact, sport clubs, as a result of commercialization, particularly football clubs and national and international sport federations have placed emphasis on the responsibility to increase their corporate reputation, to contribute to the society, and that they are encouraged to organize more programs and initiatives for this orientation (e.g., Hamil, Walters and Watson, 2010; Sheth and Babiak, 2010; Blumrod, Douglas and Flanagan, 2012). Additionally, football clubs' management have apprehended that the universal nature and popularity of the football game provide the football clubs to contribute to both the national and international societies. Further, it is evident that perceived corporate reputation of the football clubs have enormous impact on the attitudes and

behaviors of their supporters (e.g., Walters and Chadwick, 2009; Walker and Kent, 2009). As similar to other industrial and service organizations, football clubs' trustworthiness, corporate image and reputation may reshape the supporters' approach or avoidance behaviors for the clubs they support. Taking into account the financial structures and sources of the football clubs (e.g., Puglisi and Baiardi, 2019), it is obvious that the supporters' reactions, purchase behaviors of company products and social media shares regarding the football club have considerable role in clubs' performance and sustainability.

Concerning the impacts on supporters' attitudes and behaviors, social media are a new and active medium that communicate with the target groups of the football clubs (Caruana and Ewing, 2010; Özgen and Elmasoğlu, 2016; Maltese et al., 2017; Gammelsæter, 2017). Through social media networks, the clubs call out to the target groups in where and when they want and the clubs build more intimate relationship with them. Further, perceived corporate reputation has been demonstrated among the constructs that take role in supporters' sport club social media usage and following. Bringing both corporate reputation and sport club social media usage together, this study puts forward the discussion of enhancing social media usage frequency and following through positive supporters' perceptions of corporate clubs they support. Thus, the aim of the study is to provide an insight of how supporters use the social media of the football clubs on social media medium. For this purpose, in the conceptual part of study, initially, the concepts of corporate reputation and football club social media are described through theoretical roots and then the linkages between the concepts are examined upon the previous conceptual and empirical findings.

This study takes the corporate reputation concept one step further and introduces the concept along with the social capital theory and examines the links between the supports' social media behaviors and the organization's perceived corporate reputation. Subsequently, it argues that corporate reputation with the social capital theory may address how reputation manifests through social media usage. The study suggests that corporate reputation influences the frequency and following behaviors of football clubs' supporters via trust, positive image, engagement, etc. A positive reputation enables the formation of positive supporter attitudes and behaviors, while at the same time corporate reputation can provide establishing a good relationship with the supporters through social media medium. After the examination of the foundations of the suggested linkages between corporate reputation and supporters' social media behaviors, the study presents a set of generated hypotheses to direct future research. Given

the conceptual framework and the findings of the research, the study provides understanding to broader conceptual discussions for the study concepts and emphasizes the practical contributions of strengthening corporate reputation in pursuing institutional goals.

2. Literature review and conceptual framework

2.1. Corporate reputation

According to corporate sustainability theory, organizations need to learn a new business model and consider ways to increase their gains, as well as invest in the future socially and environmentally. This strategic importance of sustainability has been expressed in many studies, and it has been suggested that organizations that have built a perception of reputation in the society and exhibit responsible behavior towards social issues perform better in terms of competitiveness and sustainability (Leaniz and Bosque, 2013; Paulraj, 2011). Thereby, companies care about both their tangible and intangible resources to gain a competitive advantage over their competitors. Possibly one of the most important intangible resources is the reputation of an institution (Fombrun and Shanley, 1990). Today, corporate reputation is seen as important as some of the financial outputs of organizations. For this reason, most of the organizations make some efforts to increase their corporate reputation. The social networks, public relations and the success of social responsibility projects implemented have great importance in increasing the reputation of the organization.

The conceptual definition for corporate reputation, in this study, has been built on the works of Fombrun (1996) and Bennett and Kottasz (2000), who published academic studies and contributed to the literature with several integrated definitions of corporate reputation. It took years for Fombrun and van Riel's (1997) to combine a variety of approaches on corporate reputation through a common knowledge to steer academic inquiry and to investigate in academic works. Thus, the current study is based on the conceptualization of corporate reputation as provided by Fombrun (1996) and Rindova and Fombrun (1999) but also on the descriptions of several other published studies (Miles and Covin, 2002; Lewellyn, 2002).

Based on Fombrun's (1996, p.72) definitions, reputation is described as, an overall perceptions of the society in terms of the organization's past activities and future prospects and the organization's attractiveness to all its stakeholder groups when compared to its competitors (Fombrun, 1996, p.72). In literature, there is no common and precise opinion about the

concept of corporate reputation (Fombrun and Van Riel, 1997; Lange et al, 2011; Olegario and McKenna, 2013). For economists, reputation is the traits that point to a company's possible behavior, according to strategists, it creates competitive superiority, for financial analysts, an intangible asset, for marketers, perceptual assets that have the power to attract loyal customers, and a firm's identity, for its stakeholders (Fombrun, Gardberg and Sever, 2000). Some definitions in the literature are as follows; the perception of a company with its social partners over time (Kadibeşegil, 2006, 37); a global perception of how well an organization is being respected (Weiss, Anderson, and MacInnis, 1999, 75); emotional values of the institution, how it appears in the press, its financial situation and its place in the sector (Hannington, 2016, 11); being influenced by/response to multiple concepts such as corporate identity, image, culture and corporate brand (Scott and Walsham, 2005, 311); considering the past activities (Yoon, 1993) and future expectations of the institutions, from the eyes of all internal and external stakeholders (Castro et al., 2006), individuals or groups that affect and are affected by the achievement of the objectives of the institutions (Fombrun, 1996, p.72; Matueviciene and Stravinskiene, 2015, p.75); an emotional capital that is difficult to imitate and measure, is rare and differentiates the business from others, and therefore requires intense efforts to earn it (Esen, 2011, pp.290-291); it is the way stakeholders evaluate a particular organization as good or bad (Laufer and Coombs, 2006, p.380). In a word, collective judgements ascribed to the institution by observers of economic, social and environmental influences on the company over time (Barnett et al., 2006). Due to these reasons given above, as of fragile intangible assets, a good reputation is critical for its potential to create value. Furthermore, this concept with its abstract characters make it more difficult to being copied by rival firms. Therefore, previous research addressed the benefits of a positive and strong corporate reputation (Fombrun and Shanley, 1990; Roberts and Dowling; 2002, 1077). Reputation is based on the organizations' historical behavior and relationships, but if new information about the organizations' past behavior comes to light, observer perceptions can suddenly change into positive or negative way. Changes in an organizations' reputation affect the organizations' relationships with its stakeholders (Lange et al., 2011, 154).

Corporate reputation is a concept that is affected by many factors and affects many internal and external factors related to the institution. Although corporate reputation is intangible asset of company (Drobis, 2000; Miles and Covin, 2000), it provides valuable tangible benefits (Roberts and Dowling, 2002). Putnam (1993) defines as the organizational networks, norms and trust that facilitates social capital, the coordination between

societies for mutual benefit. When the literature is reviewed, it is seen that social capital, if used strategically, provides opportunities such as sustainability, competitive advantage and service success for an institution (Thakur and Hale, 2013). According to the strategic management theory; a good corporate reputation creates a sustainable competitive advantage and increases corporate performance (Devine and Halpern; 2001, p.45). Good corporate reputation helps reducing uncertainty about an individual, group, or organization by providing a "reasonable expectation" by suggesting predictable patterns of behavior when exact information about the individual or organization is unknown (Zinko et al., 2012). On the other hand, it contributes to know others and build relationships with those who are more collaborative and trustworthy (Dunbar, 2004); allows partners to change status, acceptance, and willingness to promote prosocial behavior (Cameron and Shirako, 2008); efforts to sustain superior financial performance results and return low-performing companies to profitability (Roberts and Dowling, 2002). Reputation consists of the common perception of all internal and external stakeholders, but this situation is criticized mainly on two points. First of all, reputation may vary depending on the areas of interest of the business. In other words, the reputation of the business, which has a very positive reputation in social responsibility projects, may not be that positive in product quality. Besides, the reputation of the business may differ from each stakeholder group. The reputation, which is very positive for employees, may not be very positive for customers (Lange et al., 2011). It is undoubtedly a long time-consuming process to identify, implement and manage what values a good corporate reputation depends on (Değercan, 2019, p.5). Fombrun et al. (2000, p.242) defined corporate reputation as "a structure that defines the overall perceptions of more than one stakeholder about an organization's performance", thus developing a 20-item. Reputation Quotient (RQ).

Emotional Appeal

The measure of emotional appeal consists of three characteristics, according to this: "good feelings about the institution, respect and admiration for the institution, trust in the institution." (Fombrun, 2000, p.178). The first of the components is defined as the emotional bond between the business itself and its products and services and stakeholders. Emotional appeal affects the level of quality of the business's products and services in the eyes of consumers (Akgöz and Solmaz, 2010, p.24).

Product and Services

It is the sum of perceptions related to the quality and value of its services and products, how innovative it is, and its reliability (Fombrun, 2000, p.13). It is expected that the institution will provide quality goods and services, stand behind this value, and provide customer support so that all stakeholders, whether customers or not, can experience the institution as admirable, cute, reliable, and respected. Game theory models assume that reputation essentially consists of investments made by companies to improve product quality (Fombrun, 2015, p.6).

Vision and Leadership

Leaders' reputations are thought to be closely related to the organization (Graffin et al., 2012). CEOs are important catalysts that build trust among stakeholders (Halff, 2013), transfer the success and performance of the company to finance (Fombrun, Ponzi and Newbury, 2015, p.8), thus creating corporate reputation. Inarguably, how we see the leader of a company affects how we see the company. Corporate leaders become the "face of the company" who appear to be the force behind the company's actions and results (Love et. al., 2017, p.3).

Workplace Environment

An institution with a good reputation attracts qualified staff and likewise talented people want to work in prestigious institutions. This cycle is reciprocal and the ability of the institution to easily implement its strategic decisions, to act flexibly in times of crisis shows the importance of working with qualified personnel during the implementation phase of the decisions (Halpern and Devine, 2001, p.43).

Financial Performance

Signal theory states that corporate reputation is informative about the expected financial performance and behavior of businesses (Fombrun, et. al., 2000, p.243). Financial performance is the main factor affecting the reputation of the organization, and achieving better profits will only be achieved with long-term profitability with a positive reputation. Financial performance refers to the perceptions of stakeholders towards the profitability of the institution and expectations about the institution (Nakra, 2000, p.373). There are many studies investigating the imoact of corporate reputation on economic performance or stock prices of businesses (Aupperle et al., 1985; McWilliams and Siegel, 2000; Roberts and Dowling,

2002; Kotha et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2012; Islam et al., 2012; Kandil et al., 2017).

Social and Environmental Responsibility

Philip Kotler (2008) expressed the importance the places on the concept of corporate social responsibility, saying that a successful firm provides high quality products and services, while a great company fights for a better world besides excellent products and services. Corporate social responsibility is defined as "organizational actions and policies that take into account the expectations of stakeholders and performance in economic, social and environmental contexts" (Aguinis, 2011, p.855). Corporate social responsibility refers to how a company adopts ethical practices in the organization, investing in social activities, protecting the environment, engaging in voluntary practices for the community, and enhancing sustainability (Kanji and Chopra, 2010; Barnea and Rubin, 2010). Among the corporate reputation components, corporate social responsibility is highly valuable in demonstrating the value of respected organizations. Although CSR activities are not the only factor in showing corporate social responsibility, they can be considered as a vital factor for sustainability (Esen, 2013, p.145).

Although each of the components of corporate reputation is of great importance in building corporate reputation, their priority varies according to the stakeholder group. For example, while the financial performance of the institution is perceived as more important for investors who are considering investing in the institution, consumers pay less attention to this issue (Şardağı and Bayçu, 2018, 113). In a study, the interaction of CEOs with social impact with stakeholders strategically on Twitter through CSR messages is investigated. 100 social influencer CEOs from top 200 fortune companies who have a tremendous influence on Twitter CEOs with wealth and CEOs with social influence are divided. According to this; there has been a significant difference in the number of CSR messages sent by wealthy CEOs and socially influential CEOs. The results reveal that socially influential CEOs post 5.97 times more CSR messages on Twitter than wealth CEOs. This situation can be considered to provide a better perception of corporate social responsibility in terms of shares and likes of social capital on Twitter (Grover et al., 2019).

2.2. Social media

The first computer went down in history as the device ENIAC (Electronic Numerical Integrator and Computer), which was built in

America in 1945 to determine the firing targets of missiles during World War II. While there were main computers available only to experts in 1950 and 1960, desktop computers that were introduced to everyone in 1980 and later portable laptops came into our lives (Thielman, 2019). The Internet was launched in 1957 by Dwight D. Eisenhower, the 34th President of the United States, under the name of the Advanced Research Projects Agency, to provide computer network and infrastructure. The text-based internet, which was used until 1989, later encountered the biggest development in its history. A hypertext based (The World Wide Web-WWW) information system project, which will ensure coordinated work among scientists, has been proposed. It became widespread among people and became a communication tool in the second half of the 1990s with the introduction of different software and peripherals, in short, the commercialization of the internet (Lammi and Pantzar, 2019).

The concept of web refers to all internet services that transmit data consisting of text, pictures, graphics, videos and sounds to a remote computer via the internet (Thackeray et. al, 2008; Mangold and Faulds, 2009; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). With the development of internet communication, one-way online web communication (Web 1.0), which does not allow readers to make written contributions, has turned into dynamic two-way and multi-channel communication (Web 2.0) forms through social media (Abeza, O'Reilly and Reid, 2013, p.123). Web 2.0, on the other hand, is a technological innovation that allows users to create content, communicate and interact at low cost and puts users at the center rather than businesses (Berthon et al., 2012, p.263). To define an application as social media on the internet; It should have basic features such as having users independent from the publisher, interacting between users and producing content, and not having time and space limitations (Erkul, 2009, p.3). Constantinides and Fountain (2008) state that Web 2.0 technologies are divided into five main categories depending on the application types; blogs, social networks, content communities, forums and bulletin boards, and content aggregators. According to Avcı (2018, p.52), Web 2.0 can simply be grouped into 5 groups. The first is wikis such as Wikipedia, which are used to gather information and produce joint projects, the second is blogs or microblogs such as Twitter, the third is content communities that allow media sharing such as Instagram or Youtube, the fourth social networking sites such as Facebook, and finally virtual gaming environments such as Second Life. With the rise of online social networks, mobile platforms and new channels such as Facebook, Twitter, Instagram and Youtube, entertainment content and game applications have gained importance,

changes have occurred in marketing and sales practices and have been transferred to the online environment (Uğurlu, 2017, p.6). It is indicated that there are approximately 4.2 billion active social media users around the world (<https://wearesocial.com/digital-2021>, Retrieved: 14.02.2021). This figure corresponds to 53.6% of the world population. The average time people between the ages of 18-64 spend on social media in the world is 2 hours and 25 minutes. The most visited Facebook, Instagram and Twitter in the world will be briefly mentioned below (<https://wearesocial.com/digital-2021>, Retrieved: 14.02.2021).

Facebook

Facebook was established in 2004 by Mark Zuckerberg and his friends to bring Harvard University students together and to communicate through the social network, and within a month of its establishment, half of Harvard University signed up for Facebook and gained great momentum. In 2006, everyone who had mail was allowed to register on the site (Boyd and Ellison, 2007, p.218; Lacy, 2008, p.167). Facebook allows its users to communicate more effectively with other member users (friends, family, colleagues), expanding their environment through the Internet, and provides information, photos, videos, etc. (Jung et.al., 2017) it is an information sharing system that aims to share and contains technologies for which digital maps of real social connections are created. In this system, users can create their own profiles, update them and send messages to other users (Akar, 2011).

Instagram

Established in 2010 by entrepreneurs named Kevin York Systrom and Mike Krieger as a photo sharing and editing application for Iphone, Instagram is the most popular photo shooting and sharing application that allows users to share images directly or with filters. The name "Instagram" comes from the words "instant camera" and "telegram". Users can write (create a hashtag) by adding the "#" sign under the photos and videos they upload, and at the same time tag another user with the "@" sign.

Twitter

Founded by Jack Dorsey as a microblog in 2006, Twitter is a social networking site that allows users to create their own profile and write texts that are called "tweet", which means "chirp" in Hawaiian language, with 140 characters when it was first introduced (Hughes et al., 2012, p.562), and 280 characters as of 2017 (Twitter, 2021). Users have profiles where they post

short general messages, thanks to these profiles, they are directed to other profiles according to their interests. Users can specify the people whose messages they want to receive, but they cannot determine who can receive the messages they post. If a user is followed by a person he does not want to be followed, he can block it through his profile. It is similar to Twitter chat rooms. For example; a user can continue the dialogue by labeling it with any username. However, unlike many chat rooms, Twitter is open to everyone (Murthy, 2012, p.1062). Twitter has an average of 350 million users as of January 2021 and is expected to reach an average of 500 million users by 2026 (<https://www.statista.com/forecasts/1146722/twitter-users-worldwide>). Retrieved: 03.01.2021).

2.3. Impact of corporate reputation on social media usage frequency

The extant literature indicates that social communication networks are a new form of communication and that the relationships established in these environments are a new type of interpersonal relationship with different characteristics than face-to-face communication (Grover, Kar and Ilavarasan 2019), with the development and widespread use of social media, public relations activities will become more widespread (Zafarmand, 2010), service diversity and quality, trust to the site, member sensitivity and the site's member profile factors are effective on member loyalty, social media channels are very effective in consumer purchasing decisions (Pütter, 2017; Amin et al., 2020), companies' corporate communication. The reasons for using social networks in media businesses; strengthening its own brand, informing the society and building trust, creating mutual interest and providing competitive advantage (Van Noort and Willemsen, 2011).

What should be considered here is to create a correct and effective channel of interaction with stakeholders. It is indicated that when stakeholders form effective communication with a company, it influences their interactions with the company and their corporate reputation perceptions (Yang and Grunig, 2005; Ji et al. 2017). Therefore; active online communities are the primary source of distributing organizational reputation (Kim et al. 2013; Yang, 2007). Social media creates more positive emotions such as trust and credibility by making the dissemination process more transparent. However, online communities may also cause negative interactions and undesirable outcomes of the social media communications. In this respect, Li (2016) stated that one negative comment on social media may lead to a dangerous results and chaotic situations that harms the organization's corporate reputation. As was the case with United Airlines "United Breaks Guitars", even a single unhappy customer can cause a loss of

reputation through social media platforms (Tripp and Gregoire, 2011; Dijkmans et al. 2015). In a study conducted by Ji et al. (2017) focusing on the behavior of stakeholders, 5-year longitudinal social media data were modeled and content analysis was performed for Fortune 500 firms in the context of Facebook. When the behaviors of the stakeholders according to their surface interaction and deep interaction levels are examined; it has been observed that active stakeholders leave positive or negative comments on a company's social media account as an important determinant of the company's reputation score.

Most of the studies in the literature examined the impact of social media on corporate reputation (Dijkmans et al., 2015; Ji et al., 2017; Becker et al., 2019; Etter, 2019; Guo et al., 2020). In this study, we aim to examine the effect of corporate reputation perception on social media usage perception in sports clubs, which is not mentioned much in the literature.

H1: Perceived corporate reputation has a positive impact on social media usage frequency.

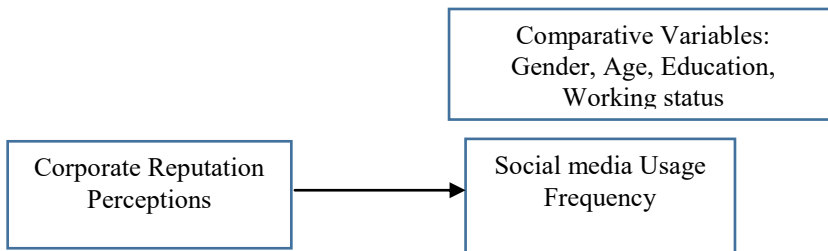
Moreover, this descriptive study examines the overall sport club social media usage of supporters and the extent to which demographic variables such as gender, age, educational level, and working status among the participants under study contributed to their perceived corporate reputation and attitudes towards social media usage. Since, the sport clubs appeal the diversified supporters particularly in today's societal diversity, it is imperative to investigate how demographic variables impact the perceived corporate reputation and social media usage. Several demographic variables have been previously examined in relation to supporters' perceptions and attitudes regarding the sport clubs; yet there are few inconsistencies (Dijkmons, Kerkhof and Beukeboom, 2015). Cngiz and Taşmektepligil (2016) revealed that supporters' demographic characteristics of gender, marital status, income, and occupation had significant impacts on their attitudes about the sport clubs and their supporting behaviors. Thereby, it is suggested that variables such as age, gender, educational level, and working status could be in relation to both perceived corporate reputation and intensity of supporters' social media use, even though a lack of research evidence. Gender and educational level are suggested to be related factors, as being male and having higher level of education also increases the engagement in sport club's social media in most of the cases. Previous research reported that male supporters and the ones having higher educational level were more engaged than female supporters and the ones

having lower educational level (Theodorakis, Dimmock, Wann and Barlas, 2010; Wann, Weaver, Belva, Ladd and Armstrong, 2015).

Based on that rationality, in addition to the hypotheses, research questions below were answered:

Q1: Are there significant differences of corporate reputation perception and social media usage frequency in terms of gender, age, education, working status of the participants?

Based on the hypotheses discussed in the theoretical framework, the overall conceptual model is presented in Figure 1.



4. Research methodology

4.1. Purpose and scope

Social media attracts increasing attention in the sports industry (Wang et al., 2015; Abeza et al., 2017). Sport Clubs consider that social media communication can make their brands more attractive and well-known and increase their financial performance (Abeza et al., 2017). For sports clubs, social media communication enhances them to learn, know and understand fan information, especially the ever-evolving interests, needs and wishes of the fans, to measure the sensitivity of the fans, to present themselves as an open and interactive entity, to provide the opportunity to establish a real-time and dynamic one-on-one dialogue with the fans, and to bring the fans together (Abeza et al., 2019). For example in the field of sports communication, Twitter is considered as a platform that redefines communication between stakeholders in the sports industry, revolutionizing the sports media by actively involving athletes and teams in content creation and becoming a fixture in sports communication since its introduction in 2006 (Fisher, 2009; Sanderson and Kassing, 2011). One of the biggest examples is the hashtag #worldcup with 115 billion impressions during the 2018 world cup (Twitter, 2021). Customers today show their loyalty by following their clubs on Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, bulletin boards, blogs, and content aggregators, rather than expressing their loyalty just as a team supporter or wearing a team vest and scarf. Club fans can also show their

loyalty by sharing their sympathy and friendship on social media platforms instantly and regularly (Benigni, Porter and Wood, 2009; Williams and Chinn, 2010).

Following the relevant rational and considerations the main goal of the current study is to understand the social media users' perceptions about sport club corporate reputation in social media and the effect of these perceptions on users' social media usage frequency. Further, the differences in terms of demographic variables as gender, age, education and working status are analyzed in order to get insight about how participants' perceptions of corporate reputation and social media usage differ in terms of their demographic characteristics.

4.2. Sample and procedure

An online survey was conducted with convenience sampling method to collect data from social media users in Turkey. The survey took about six months between April-September 2020. Participants were approached via networks and social media accounts and they voluntarily and anonymously participate to the online survey. Subsequently, the sample consists of 782 Turkish participants. Preliminary research was done to test the reliability and validity of the measures with 100 randomly selected participants.

Table 1. Demographic Statistics

Variable	N =782	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	423	%54,2
Female	359	%45,8
Age Distribution		
18-24 ages	353	%45
25-35 ages	328	%41,8
35-44 ages	73	%9,3
45 and above	28	%3,5
Education		
Primary	6	%0,7
High school	185	%23,6
Degree school	91	%11,6
Undergraduate	391	%50
Graduate	109	%13,9
Working status		
Working	547	%69,9
Students	208	%26,5
Jobless	27	%3,4

Table 1 represents the profile of participants in this sample. The majority of the respondents are male, between 18-35 ages, highly educated (university and post graduate degree) and working in different sectors.

4.3. Measures

All measures in the research questionnaire adapted from previous research and utilized a five-point Likert type scale was used (1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree).

Corporate reputation perceptions: The measure of corporate reputation measures were adapted from Fombrun et al (2000) study and consisted of 24 items and designed based on sport fans' perceptions in social media.

Social media usage frequency: Participants were asked to indicate how much frequently they use social media platforms as Twitter, Facebook and Instagram and other platforms with the following answers: Never, below one hour daily, 1-2 hours daily, 3-4 hours daily, 5-10 hours daily, above 10 hours daily.

4.4. Data analysis

Statistical programs were used for testing the proposed hypotheses of the study. Data analysis included descriptive statistics, factor analysis, correlation and regression analysis, difference tests. After confirming the normal distribution of the data within the research sample, regression analyses were conducted to evaluate the contribution of corporate reputation perceptions on social media usage frequency. Lastly, comparative tests were performed in order to examine the demographic differences in perceiving corporate reputation and social media usage.

5. The study results

Factor analysis were conducted to evaluate factors in corporate reputation dimensions. Bartlett's Test was applied to see the consistency of the model and KMO was evaluated for the measurement of sampling adequacy (Ghauri, Gronhaug and Kristianslund, 2005). Factor analysis results showed that KMO test value was above ,50 and Bartlett's test value was significant.

Corporate reputation instrument consists of 24 items and as a result of the factor analysis, 22 items remained and 2 factors emerged. The factors were labeled as *admire and good relationship action, information sharing and social media account*, explaining %66,634 of variance. Cronbach alpha values were ,80 and ,78. The factor analysis reports and reliability findings can be seen in Table 2.

5.1. Factor analysis

Table 2. Factor reliability analyses of corporate reputation scale

Factor	Items	Factor Loading	Explained variance	Cronbach α
F1: Admire and good leadership actions	Good feeling	,921	53,233	0,80
	Liking messages	,908		
	Shared sufficient visuals and videos	,876		
	Shared enough information	,861		
	Having effort in international platforms by self-promotion	,849		
	Shared right information	,843		
	Be transparent in management issues	,843		
	Good actions for society	,841		
	Liking sharing frequency	,840		
	Successful in crisis management	,811		
	Sharing current match photographs	,808		
	Good leadership	,808		
	Have vision	,805		
	Sharing news about licensed products	,756		
	Good transfer	,746		
Have (not) disruptive news about competitors	,649			
	Liking jokes about competitors with sportsmanship	,584		
F2: Information sharing and social media account	Information are not persuasive	,887	13,402	0,78
	Over-sharing in social media account	,844		
	Inappropriate decisions	,790		
	Inadequate news about social responsibility projects	,705		
	Low number of followers	,637		
Total Variance			66,634	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin: 0,942				
Bartlett Test Approx. Chi- Square: 5735,892 /df:231 Sig:00				

5.2. Hypothesis testing

Before testing the hypotheses of the study, the descriptive statistics of the research variables were evaluated. The descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) and correlation results was applied to each variable

followed by regression analysis testing the proposed effect of perceived corporate reputation on social media usage frequency.

5.2.1. Correlation analysis

Table 3 represents the means, standard deviation and bivariate correlation for all variables in research model.

Table 3. Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Corporate Reputation Perceptions	3,32	,87	1	,959**	,513**	,063	,002	,134*	,096	,308*
2. Admire and good leadership	3,71	1,05	,959**	1	,253**	,039	-,029	,121*	,065	,112**
3. Information sharing social media account	2,68	1,12	,513**	,253**	1	,095	,102	,099	,127*	,066*
4. Social media usage frequency (Facebook)	1,99	1,22	,063	,039	,095	1	,463**	,349**	,455**	,189*
5. Social media usage frequency (Twitter)	2,12	1,30	,002	-,029	,102	,463**	1	,390**	,402**	,665*
6. Social media usage frequency (Instagram)	3,19	1,31	,134*	,121*	,099	,349**	,390**	1	,385**	,346*
7. Social media usage frequency (Other)	2,08	1,42	,096	,065	,127*	,455**	,402**	,385**	1	,552*
8. Social media usage frequency (Total)	2,345	1,24	,308*	,112**	,066*	,489*	,665*	,346*	,552*	1

N=782, p*=.000; ** p< .001; *** p< .005, (2-tailed)

The correlation analysis results revealed that there was a moderate significant positive relationship between perceived corporate reputation and social media usage frequency of the participants ($r=.308$; $p=.000$). Moreover, the analysis for the components of social media usage frequency showed that there was a weak and significant correlation between corporate reputation perception and social media usage frequency (Instagram) ($r=.134$; $p=.000$). However, the relations of corporate reputation perception with social media usage frequency (Facebook), social media usage frequency

(Twitter), and social media usage frequency (Other) were not found to be significant ($p > .001$; $p > .005$).

5.2.2. Regression analysis

Following the correlation results of the study variables, regression analysis was applied to determine the direction and power of the relationship between perceived corporate reputation and social media usage frequency. The regression analysis findings are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. The effect of corporate reputation on social media usage frequency

Variable	β	Std. Error	t	P
(Constant)	1,221	,131	8.722	.000*
Corporate Reputation	,308	,030	25.105	.000*
R²= .674; F= 681.664; P<.001				
* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$ *** $p < 0.001$ b. Dependent Variable: Social Media Usage Frequency				
c. Independent Variable: Corporate Reputation				

As Table 4 displays, the results of the regression analyses indicated that the perceived corporate reputation coefficient is both positive and significant ($\beta = 0,308$; $p = ,000$, $F = 652.552$). These results showed that perceived corporate reputation has significant explanatory power over individuals' social media usage frequency. It is suggested that as individuals feel that the sport club has reputation, they exhibit more social media usage. Thus, the proposed hypothesis (H1) in the study is supported. In addition, the effects of corporate reputation on the types of social media usage were examined and it was reported perceived corporate reputation had significant positive effect on only social media usage frequency with Instagram ($\beta = 0,134$; $p = ,023$, $t = 2,287$).

Further regression analysis were performed in order to evaluate the effect of corporate reputation dimensions on social media usage frequency. It was revealed that both dimensions of "admire and good leadership actions" ($\beta = 0,301$; $p = ,000$) and "information sharing social media account" ($\beta = 0,062$, $p = ,000$) had significant positive effects on social media usage frequency. As Table 5 shows, both dimensions of corporate reputation has significant incremental explanatory power over social media usage frequency while admire and good leadership actions dimension had higher effect on social media usage than information sharing social media account

dimension. In sum, it is suggested that as individuals perceive that their football club's leadership actions are admirable, they engage in social media usage more frequently.

Table 5. The effects of corporate reputation dimensions on social media usage

Dependent Variable: Social Media Usage Frequency			
Independent Variables	Beta	t Value	p Value
Constant			
Admire and good leadership actions	.301*	4.707	.000
Information sharing social media account	.062*	.522	.000
R=0,325; R ² =0,220; F Value=21.727; p<0.05			

5.2.3. Comparative tests and demographic differences

The independent sample t-tests were applied for determining whether the means of two groups are statistically different from one other (Bhattacharjee, 2012) in terms of perceived corporate reputation and social media usage. For this purpose, the t-tests were performed concerning the demographic variables of gender and working status and One-Way ANOVA tests were applied for age and education levels of the sample group.

Firstly, the means of females and males were compared with regard to perceived corporate reputation and social media usage scores. As presented in Table 6, there was significant difference of Social media usage frequency (Facebook) mean scores between females and males ($p < 0.005$) with a female mean score of 1,86 and a male mean score of 2,09. In addition, a significant difference of social media usage frequency (Instagram) mean scores was found between females and males ($p < 0.005$) with a female mean score of 3,43 and a male mean score of 2,99.

Moreover, T-tests applied for the working status variable showed that there was a significant difference between working status and being a student ($p < 0.005$) on the social media usage frequency (Facebook) with the a working status mean score of 2,09 and student mean score of 1,66 which is presented in Table 7. In addition, significant differences were found on the social media usage frequency (Instagram) mean scores between working status and students ($p < 0.005$) with a working status mean score of 2,09 and student mean score of 1,66 (Table 7). Lastly, it was reported that significant differences were seen on the social media usage frequency (Other) mean scores between working status and students ($p < 0.005$) with a working status

mean score of 1,99 and student mean score of 2,29 which is presented in below Table 7.

Table 6. Results of difference test in terms of gender

			n	Mean	sd	p
Reputation	Corporate Reputation	Female	72	3,34	,87	,824
		Male	214	3,31	,87	
	Admire and good leadership actions	Female	72	3,81	1,11	,385
		Male	214	3,68	1,03	
	Information sharing social media account	Female	72	2,49	1,13	,099
		Male	214	2,74	1,11	
Social media usage	Social media usage frequency (Facebook)	Female	42	1,86	1,22	,009
		Male	315	2,09	1,21	
	Social media usage frequency (Twitter)	Female	42	2,06	1,35	,199
		Male	315	2,18	1,26	
	Social media usage frequency (Instagram)	Female	42	3,43	1,32	,000
		Male	315	2,99	1,27	
	Social media usage frequency (Other)	Female	42	2,08	1,43	,987
		Male	315	2,08	1,41	

Table 7. Results of difference test in terms of working status

			n	Mean	sd	p
Reputation	Corporate Reputation	Working	209	3,33	,83	,929
		Student	68	3,28	,95	
	Admire and good leadership actions	Working	209	3,71	1,01	,971
		Student	68	3,74	1,19	
	Information sharing social media account	Working	209	2,76	1,10	,101
		Student	68	2,42	1,13	
Social media usage	Social media usage frequency (Facebook)	Working	547	2,09	1,23	,000
		Student	208	1,66	1,05	
	Social media usage frequency (Twitter)	Working	547	2,16	1,30	,175
		Student	208	1,99	1,25	
	Social media usage frequency (Instagram)	Working	547	3,08	1,33	,001
		Student	208	3,43	1,20	
	Social media usage frequency (Other)	Working	547	1,99	1,37	,015
		Student	208	2,29	1,48	

Another variable tested as demographic variable was age of the sample group. To determine whether there is a difference in respect to the age groups, ANOVA test was performed. The results indicated that there were significant differences in the variables of the scales (excluding corporate reputation variable and social media usage frequency-twitter) with relation to age which was categorized into 3 different levels in the questionnaires as 18-24, 25-34, and 35 and above. Subsequently, as seen in Table 8, significant differences were found on the social media usage frequency (facebook) among group 1 (18-24), group 2 (25-34) and group 3 (35 and above) with a mean score of 1,75, 2,13 and 2,40 (p=0.000). There were also significant differences on the social media usage frequency (Instagram) among group 1 (18-24), group 2 (25-34) and group 3 (35 and above) with a mean score of 1,75, 2,13 and 2,40 (p=0.000). Moreover, significant differences were found among group 1 (18-24), group 2 (25-34) and group 3 (35 and above) with a mean score of 1,75, 2,13 and 2,40 (p=0.000) in terms of the social media usage frequency (Other) (Table 8).

Table 8. Results of difference test in terms of age

			n	Mean	sd	p
Reputation	Corporate Reputation	18-24	116	3,37	,85	,07
		25-34	127	3,37	,89	
		35 and above	43	3,10	,87	
	Admire and good leadership actions	18-24	116	3,82	1,04	,06
		25-34	127	3,73	1,05	
		35 and above	43	3,51	0,9	
	Information sharing social media account	18-24	116	2,55	1,11	,14
		25-34	127	2,84	1,20	
		35 and above	43	2,60	0,82	
Social media usage	Social media usage frequency (Facebook)	18-24	353	1,75	1,19	,000
		25-34	328	2,13	1,18	
		35 and above	101	2,40	1,23	
	Social media usage frequency (Twitter)	18-24	353	2,01	1,30	,127
		25-34	328	2,21	1,28	
		35 and above	101	2,15	1,31	
	Social media usage frequency (Instagram)	18-24	353	3,45	1,26	,000
		25-34	328	3,10	1,32	
		35 and above	101	2,51	1,25	
	Social media usage frequency	18-24	353	2,32	1,51	,000
		25-34	328	1,94	1,34	

(Other)	35 and above	101	1,75	1,7	
---------	--------------	-----	------	-----	--

Following the evaluations regarding the age groups, ANOVA tests were applied to examine how corporate reputation perception and social media usage frequency differ in terms of educational level groups.

Table 9. Results of difference test in terms of education

		n	Mean	sd	p	
Reputation	Corporate Reputation	High school	65	3,48	,97	,031
		Degree school	39	3,36	1,02	
		Undergraduate	149	3,25	,79	
		Graduate	32	3,32	,65	
	Admire and good leadership actions	High school	65	3,91	1,14	,054
		Degree school	39	3,66	1,18	
		Undergraduate	149	3,67	1,01	
		Graduate	32	3,70	,79	
	Information sharing social media account	High school	65	2,76	1,31	,062
		Degree school	39	3,04	1,34	
		Undergraduate	149	2,54	,97	
		Graduate	32	2,74	,980	
Social media usage	Social media usage frequency (Facebook)	High school	185	2,01	1,33	,051
		Degree school	91	2,00	1,11	
		Undergraduate	391	1,90	1,16	
		Graduate	109	2,21	1,27	
	Social media usage frequency (Twitter)	High school	185	1,96	1,38	,203
		Degree school	91	2,06	1,22	
		Undergraduate	391	2,23	1,28	
		Graduate	109	2,05	1,27	
	Social media usage frequency (Instagram)	High school	185	3,59	1,22	,000
		Degree school	91	3,43	1,29	
		Undergraduate	391	3,09	1,28	
		Graduate	109	2,70	1,38	
	Social media usage frequency (Other)	High school	185	2,49	1,61	,000
		Degree school	91	2,10	1,39	
		Undergraduate	391	1,90	1,31	
		Graduate	109	2,01	1,34	

As presented in Table 9, significant differences were found on the corporate reputation mean scores among group 1 (high school), group 2 (degree school), group 3 (undergraduate), and group 4 (graduate) with a

mean score of 3,48, 3,26, 3,25, and 3,32 ($p=0.031$). In addition, significant differences on the social media usage frequency (Instagram) among group 1 (high school), group 2 (degree school), group 3 (undergraduate), and group 4 (graduate) with a mean score of 3,59, 3,43, 3,09, and 2,70 ($p=0.000$) were reported. Lastly, significant differences were found among group 1 (high school), group 2 (degree school), group 3 (undergraduate), and group 4 (graduate) with a mean score of 2,49, 2,10, 1,90, and 2,01 ($p=0.000$) in terms of the social media usage frequency (Other) (Table 9).

6. Discussion

Increasing competition among institutions with globalization, economic crises and administrative problems arising in institutions, including the Sport Clubs, have revealed the importance of reputation and caused it to come to the agenda. At this point, considering that corporate reputation is the whole of all perceptions towards the institution, the concept emerges as an important differentiation factor among the Football Clubs. The fact that the football clubs try to exist by prioritizing only their financial strength and that they can only be respected in this way shows that they have a wrong understanding of corporate philosophy. In addition to the financial strength of the football clubs, the values, beliefs, behavior they show towards their stakeholders and the way they communicate with them are important factors affecting the reputation of the institution. Therefore, football clubs that want to create a positive reputation should intervene in the process and manage this reputation instead of waiting for this reputation to occur spontaneously. To gain the customers' corporate reputation perceptions, Walsh and Beatty (2007, 2009) addressed the concept of customer-based corporate reputation, referring to the customers' overall assessment of an organization regarding its products, services, and interactions with the community and other organizational communication activities. Such an approach was also put forward by Lerner and Fryxell (1988). It was indicated that an organization's current reputation is determined by the evaluations of the publics related to the direct efforts of the organization in terms of information channels, such as the media or the stock market (Lerner and Fryxell, 1988).

Taking into account the fact that it is only possible for organizations to survive in an intense competitive environment only by establishing a strong reputation. In this process, football clubs should also closely follow the emerging technological developments and effectively use the tools brought by these developments. With the development of new communication technologies and the introduction of the internet in our

lives, "social media" is an important factor in affecting the reputation of organizations positively or negatively. Therefore, ignoring this environment and not using social media tools effectively can cause negative consequences in terms of reputation. At the point of eliminating this negativity, it is important to use social media effectively and closely follow the developments that may affect the football club through this environment. Social media, briefly, allows individuals to use place and time on the internet. Internet, which allows them to express their opinions and views without limitation allowing unlimited use of the multimedia features it offers, at the same time the existence of an interactive environment based on the exchange of views and sharing with other individuals. Thus, it can be defined as a broad-based platform (Bulunmaz, 2011, p.29). Moreover, the social media tools in question can be counted as blogs, micro blogs, wikis, and social networking sites, media sharing sites (photo and video sharing sites), podcasting and virtual worlds. Especially Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Foursquare, Pinterest platforms have become popular. The first thing that comes to mind when social media is mentioned, and it is observed that football clubs also show interest in these environments and use them frequently and intensively. Considering the vital importance of Sport Clubs' effective use of social media, in this study, sport clubs' supporters' corporate reputation perceptions and their social media usage frequency relationship has been investigated.

7. Conclusion

A structured quantitative research method has been applied in order to collect data from sport clubs' supporters' social media usage frequencies and their perceptions of corporate reputation regarding the Sport Club they support. An online survey was conducted with convenience sampling method and the sample consisted of 782 participants. After evaluating the demographic characteristics of the sample group, the correlation analysis were conducted and the findings showed that perceived corporate reputation had a moderate significant positive relationship with social media usage frequency of the participants. Moreover, regression analyses reported that perceived corporate reputation had significant explanatory power over individuals' social media usage frequency. Even it was seen that perceived corporate reputation had significant positive effect on only social media usage frequency with Instagram, the proposed hypothesis (H1) was supported.

Furthermore, comparative tests were applied to determine whether there are differences between the ample groups in terms of their social

media usage frequency and corporate reputation perceptions. The results revealed that there was significant difference of Social media usage frequency (Facebook and Instagram) mean scores between females and males with a female mean. When working status variable was examined, it was seen that there was a significant difference between working status and being a student on the social media usage frequency (Facebook, Instagram and Other). Moreover, ANOVA test has been applied and the results indicated that significant differences were found on the social media usage frequency (Facebook, Instagram and Other) among age groups. Finally, ANOVA tests showed that significant differences were found on the corporate reputation mean scores among educational level groups and significant differences on the social media usage frequency (Instagram and Other) among educational level groups.

Subsequently, the current study provide an insight about how supporters use the social media of the football clubs on social media medium and to explore how corporate reputation perceptions contribute to the intensity of social media use. Additionally, the study revealed findings about how the perceived corporate reputation and engagement to sport club social media differ in terms of demographic variables.

Research studies related to corporate reputation and social media usage relations are too scarce in Turkey and also abroad. Thereby, the current study is suggested to be providing essential insights for how social media management of the sport clubs enhances their corporate reputation. It was revealed that social media has strategic importance in building corporate reputation of the sport clubs. This is consistent with Preston's (2004) assessment in which he implied reputation as a source of corporate social capital. According to the results of the research, it was seen that new media become an effective force to be settled and the football club administrators should invest necessary efforts for their social media activities. On the other hand, as it was discussed within the study, social networks attract users to follow the sports clubs they support and social media becomes an effective tool for creating social capital in terms of communicating and information sharing. In addition, social networks, which are one of the important components of social capital, emphasize the quality and strength of the communication between the organizations and the society. According to Putnam (2000, p.21), one of the social capital theorists, building trust and communication facilitates collaboration. In today's world, relationships for the continuation, the existence of social media can even be seen as a prerequisite. According to Ellison et al (2011), Facebook's technical and social conditions include maintaining ties with the people and the

organizations, so that users can develop bridging social capital. Similarly, many studies (Ellison et al., 2014; Steinfield et al., 2012) conducted field research to explain the structure of networks and social capital through Facebook. Thus, networks and social media, which have also become the requirements for the formation and continuity of relationships, has fundamental roles on relationships of the sport clubs in online environments and help them to increase their social capital. With this consideration, it is suggested that people develop relations in the online networks they often use – in social media environments - and they create strong bonds that contribute to the social capital of the sport clubs.

In this context, the study may have implications for the sport club administrators and all other organizations aiming to establish corporate reputation within the publics. Thus, it is suggested that the study will both fill the gap in the relevant subject in the literature and will contribute to the qualitative and quantitative researches to be conducted on the subject in the future.

Further, the fact that the study was conducted in Turkey with a limited number of participants constitutes a limitation of the study. In addition, considering that the perceived corporate reputation scale applied in the study was developed and tested in different cultural contexts, it can be said that originally developed measurements based on Turkish cultural setting could be used in order to get insight about the effects of psychosocial dynamics. It is suggested that subsequent research should be conducted with larger samples by including other psychosocial dynamics and some contextual or individual variables that can be considered as conditional variables in the research model. Thus, the research findings with higher reliability and generalizability can be achieved.

References

- Abeza, G., O'Reilly, N., & Reid, I. (2013). Relationship Marketing and Social Media in Sport. *International Journal of Sport Communication*, 6(2), 120–142, <https://doi.org/10.1123/ijsc.6.2.120>.
- Abeza, G., O'Reilly, N., & Seguin, B. (2019). Social media in relationship marketing: The perspective of professional sport managers in the MLB, NBA, NFL, and NHL. *Communication & Sport*, 7(1), 80-109, <https://doi.org/10.1177/2167479517740343>.
- Aguinis, H. (2011). “Organizational responsibility: doing good and doing well,” in *APA Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 3, ed. S. Zedeck (Washington, DC: American Psychological Association), 855–879.

- Akar, E. (2011). *Sosyal medya pazarlaması, sosyal web'de pazarlama stratejisi*. Ankara: Efil Publishing.
- Al Amin, M., Nowsin, N., Hossain, I., & Bala, T. (2020). Impact of social media on consumer buying behaviour through online value proposition: A study on e-commerce business in Bangladesh. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal*, 19(5), 1-18.
- Anderson, C., & Shirako, A. (2008). Are individuals' reputations related to their history of behavior?. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 94(2), 320-333
- Aupperle, K. E., Carroll, A. B., Hatfield, J.D., (1985). An empirical examination of the relationship between corporate social responsibility and profitability. *Academy of Management Journal*, 28(2), 446-463.
<https://doi.org/10.5465/256210>
- Avcı, K. (2018). Physicians' social media use and ethics. *Turkish Journal of Public Health*. 16(1). 48-57. 10.20518/tjph.458202
- Barnea, A., & Rubin, A. (2010). Corporate social responsibility as a conflict between shareholders. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 97(1), 71-86.
10.1007/s10551-010-0496-z
- Barnett, M. L., & Pollock, T. G. (Eds.). (2012). *The Oxford handbook of corporate reputation*. U.K.: Oxford University Press.
- Barnett, M. L., Jermier, J. M., & Lafferty, B. A. (2006). Corporate reputation: The definitional landscape. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 9(1), 26-38.
10.1057/palgrave.crr.1550012
- Basu, S., Phelps, C., & Kotha, S. (2011). Towards understanding who makes corporate venture capital investments and why. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 26(2), 153-171. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2009.07.001>
- Becker, K., & Lee, J. W. (2019). Organizational usage of social media for corporate reputation management. *The Journal of Asian Finance, Economics, and Business*, 6(1), 231-240. <https://doi.org/10.13106/jafeb.2019.vol6.no1.231>
- Bennett, R., & Kottasz, R. (2000). Practitioner perceptions of corporate reputation: an empirical investigation. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 5(4), 224-234.
- Berthon, P. R., Pitt, L. F., Plangger, K., & Shapiro, D. (2012). Marketing Meets Web 2.0, Social Media, and Creative Consumers: Implications for International Marketing Strategy. *Business Horizons*. 55(3). 261–271.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2012.01.007>.
- Blumrod, J., Bryson, D., & Flanagan, J. (2012). European football teams' CSR engagement impacts on customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, 7(2), 1-20.
- Brammer, S. J., & Pavelin, S. (2006). Corporate reputation and social performance: The importance of fit. *Journal of Management Studies*, 43(3), 435-455.

- Caruana, A., & Ewing, M. T. (2010). How corporate reputation, quality, and value influence online loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, 63(9-10), 1103-1110.
- Castro, G., Lopez, J. N. and Saez, P. L. (2006). Business and Social Reputation: Exploring the Concept and Main Dimensions of Corporate Reputation, *Journal of Business Ethics*, 63(4), 361-370.
- Cengiz, R., & Taşmektepligil, M. Y. (2016). Spor üzerine sosyolojik bir çözümleme: Spor merkezleri (Samsun örneği). *Akademik Bakış International Refereed Social Sciences Journal*, (56), 220-240.
- Chun, R. (2005). Corporate reputation: Meaning and measurement. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 7(2), 91-109.
- Constantinides, E., & Fountain, S. (2008). Web 2.0: Conceptual foundations and marketing issues. *Journal of Direct Data and Digital Marketing Practice*, 9(3), 231-244. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.ddmp.4350098>
- Dijkmans, C., Kerkhof, P., & Beukeboom, C. J. (2015). A stage to engage: Social media use and corporate reputation. *Tourism Management*, 47, 58-67. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.09.005>
- Drobis, D. (2000). Public relations: Priorities in the real economy. *Vital Speeches of the Day*, 67 (1), 15 – 19.
- Dunbar, R. I. M. (2004). Gossip in evolutionary perspective. *Review of General Psychology*, 8, 100-110. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1089-2680.8.2.100>
- Ellison, N. B., Vitak, J., Gray, R., & Lampe, C. (2014). Cultivating social resources on social network sites: Facebook relationship maintenance behaviors and their role in social capital processes. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 19 (4), 855-870.
- Ellison, N. B., Vitak, J., Steinfield, C., Gray, R., & Lampe, C. (2011). *Negotiating privacy concerns and social capital needs in a social media environment*. Privacy Online. Springer Berlin Heidelberg: 19-32.
- Erkul, E. (2009). Sosyal medya araçlarının kamu hizmetleri ve uygulamalarında kullanılabilirliği. *Türkiye Bilişim Derneği*, 116, 96-101.
- Esen, E. 2011. The role of trust on the relationship between organizational engagement and corporate reputation. Marmara University, Social Sciences Institute, Unpublished Doctorate Dissertation, Istanbul.
- Etter, M., Ravasi, D., & Colleoni, E. (2019). Social media and the formation of organizational reputation. *Academy of Management Review*, 44(1), 28-52. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2014.0280>
- Fisher, E. (2009). Flight or fancy. *Sports Business Journal*, June, 1-8.
- Fombrun C. (1996). *Reputation: Realizing Value from the Corporate Image*. Harvard Business School Press: Boston, MA.
- Fombrun, C. (2012). *Corporate reputation: Definitions, antecedents, consequences* (pp. 94-113). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

- Fombrun, C. J., & Gardberg, N. (2000). Who's tops in corporate reputation?. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 3(1), 13-17.
<https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.crr.1540095>
- Fombrun, C. J., & Van Riel, C M. B (1997). The Reputational Landscape. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 1, 5-13. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.crr.1540024>
- Fombrun, C. J., Gardberg, N. A., & Sever, J. M. (2000). The Reputation Quotient SM: A multi-stakeholder measure of corporate reputation. *Journal of Brand Management*, 7(4). 241-255. <https://doi.org/10.1057/bm.2000.10>
- Fombrun, C. J., Ponzi, L. J., & Newburry, W. (2015). Stakeholder tracking and analysis: The RepTrak® system for measuring corporate reputation. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 18(1), 3-24.
<https://doi.org/10.1057/crr.2014.21>.
- Gammelsæter, H. (2017). Media visibility and place reputation: does sport make a difference?. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 10(3), 288-298.
- Ghauri, P., Grønhaug, K., & Kristianslund, I. (2005). *Research in Business Studies: A practical guide*. U.S.A.: Prentice Hall.
- Gotsi, M., & Wilson, A. M. (2001). Corporate reputation: seeking a definition. *Corporate communications: An international Journal*, 6(1), 24-30.
- Graffin, S., Pfarrer, M., & Hill, M. 2012. Untangling executive reputation and corporate reputation: Who made who? In M. L. Barnett, & T. G. Pollock (Eds.), *The Oxford Handbook of Corporate Reputation*: 221-239. Oxford, U.K.: Oxford University Press.
- Gray, E. R., & Balmer, J. M. (1998). Managing corporate image and corporate reputation. *Long Range Planning*, 31(5), 695-702.
- Grover, P., Kar, A. K., & Ilavarasan, P. V. (2019). Impact of corporate social responsibility on reputation—Insights from tweets on sustainable development goals by CEOs. *International Journal of Information Management*, 48, 39-52. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2019.01.009>
- Guo, Y., Fan, D., & Zhang, X. (2020). Social media-based customer service and firm reputation. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOPM-04-2019-0315>
- Half, G. (2013). The presentation of CEOs in economic downturn, *Corporate Reputation Review*, 16(3), 234–243. <https://doi.org/10.1057/crr.2013.13>
- Halpern, P. (2001). Implicit claims: The role of corporate reputation in value creation. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 4(1), 42-49.
<https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.crr.1540131>
- Hamil, S., Walters, G., & Watson, L. (2010). The model of governance at FC Barcelona: balancing member democracy, commercial strategy, corporate social responsibility and sporting performance. *Soccer & Society*, 11(4), 475-504.

- Hannington, T. (2016). *How to measure and manage your corporate reputation*, U.K.: Routledge.
- Hong, P., Dobrzykowski, D., Park, Y. W., Lee, J., & Roh, J. J. (2012). Revisiting corporate reputation and firm performance link. *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, 4(4), 1-17.
- <https://wearesocial.com/digital-2021>, “We Are Social Digital”, Retrieved: 14.02.2021.
- <https://www.statista.com/forecasts/1146722/twitter-users-worldwide>. Retrived: 03.01.2021.
- Hughes, D. J., Rowe, M., Batey, M., & Lee, A. (2012). A tale of two sites: Twitter vs. Facebook and the personality predictors of social media usage. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 28(2), 561-569.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2011.11.001>
- Hur, W. M., Kim, H., & Woo, J. (2014). How CSR leads to corporate brand equity: Mediating mechanisms of corporate brand credibility and reputation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 125(1), 75-86.
- Islam, Z. M., Ahmed, S. U., & Hasan, I. (2012). Corporate social responsibility and financial performance linkage: Evidence from the banking sector of Bangladesh. *Journal of Organizational Management*, 1(1), 14-21.
- Ji, Y. G., Li, C., North, M., & Liu, J. (2017). Staking reputation on stakeholders: How does stakeholders’ Facebook engagement help or ruin a company’s reputation?. *Public Relations Review*, 43(1), 201-210.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2016.12.004>
- Jinfeng, L., Runtian, J. I. N. G., & Qian, C. A. O. (2014). Antecedents of corporate reputation and customer citizenship behavior: evidence from China. *International Business and Management*, 9(1), 128-132.
- Jung, E. H., Walden, J., Johnson, A. C., & Sundar, S. S. (2017). Social networking in the aging context: Why older adults use or avoid Facebook. *Telematics and Informatics*, 34(7), 1071-1080. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tele.2017.04.015>
- Kadıbeşegil S. (2006). *İtibar Yönetimi*. İstanbul: MediaCat Publishing.
- Kandil G, İ. E., Arar, T., & Uysal, B. (2017). Kurumsal itibar kavramı ve hisse senedi fiyatlarına etkisi: Türkiye örneği. *Journal of Accounting & Finance*, 74 (4), 1-21.
- Kanji, G. K., & Chopra, P. K. (2010). Corporate social responsibility in a global economy. *Total Quality Management*, 21(2), 119-143.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14783360903549808>
- Kaplan, M., & Haenlein, M. (2010). Users of the world, unite! The challenges and opportunities of social media. *Business Horizons*, 53(1), 59–68.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2009.09.003>

- Kassing, J. W., & Sanderson, J. (2010). Fan-athlete interaction and Twitter tweeting through the Giro: A case study. *International Journal of Sport Communication*, 3(1), 113-128. [10.1080/14783360903549808](https://doi.org/10.1080/14783360903549808)
- Kim, J., Huang-Baesecke, C. F., Yang, S., & Grunig, J. E. (2013). A strategic management approach to reputation, relationships, and publics: The research heritage of the Excellence Theory. In C. Carroll (Ed.), *The handbook of communication and corporate reputation* (pp. 197-212). Malden, MA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Kobak, K., & Biçer, S. (2008). Facebook sosyal paylaşım sitesinin kullanım nedenleri. 8. *International Education Technologies Conference*, (ss.567-571), Eskişehir.
- Kotler, P., & Lee, N. (2008). *Corporate social responsibility: Doing the most good for your company and your cause*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Lammi, M., & Pantzar, M. (2019). The data economy: How technological change has altered the role of the citizen-consumer. *Technology in Society*, 59, 101157. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techsoc.2019.101157>
- Lange, D., Lee, P. M., & Dai, Y. (2011). Organizational reputation: A review. *Journal of Management*, 37(1), 153-184.
- Laufer, D., & Coombs, W. T. (2006). How should a company respond to a product harm crisis? The role of corporate reputation and consumer-based cues. *Business Horizon*, 49, 379-385. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2006.01.002>
- Leaniz, P. M. G., & Bosque, I. R. (2013). Intellectual capital and relational capital: The role of sustainability in developing corporate reputation. *Intangible Capital*, 9(1), 262-280.
- Lee, Jooh.- Roh, & James Jungbae. (2012). Revisiting Corporate Reputation and Firm Performance Link. *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, 19 (4/5), 649-664. <https://doi.org/10.1108/14635771211258061>
- Lewellyn, P. G. (2002). Corporate reputation: Focusing the zeitgeist. *Business & Society*, 41(4), 446-455.
- Li, Z. (2016). Psychological empowerment on social media: Who are the empowered users? *Public Relations Review*, 42(1), 49-59. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2015.09.001>
- Love, E. G., Lim, J., & Bednar, M. K. (2017). The face of the firm: The influence of CEOs on corporate reputation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 60(4), 1462-1481. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2014.0862>
- Luoma-aho, V. (2013). Corporate reputation and the theory of social capital. *The handbook of communication and Corporate Reputation*, 279-290.

- Maltese, L., Pons, F., & Prévot, F. (2017). Managing e-reputation and key stakeholders in the context of sport expressive organizations. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 47(1), 88-105.
- Mangold, G., & Faulds, D. (2009). Social media: The new hybrid element of the promotion mix. *Business Horizons*, 52(4), 357–365.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2009.03.002>
- Matuleviciene, M., & Stravinskiene, J. (2015). The Importance of Stakeholders for Corporate Reputation. *Engineering Economics*, 26(1), 75-83.
10.5755/j01.ee.26.1.6921
- McWilliams A, & Siegel D. (2000). Corporate social responsibility and financial performance: correlation or misspecification? *Strategic Management Journal*, 21(5), 603–609.
- Miles , M . P., & Covin , J . G. (2000). Environmental marketing: A source of reputational, competitive, and financial advantage, *Journal of Business Ethics*, 23 (3), 299–312. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1006214509281>.
- Nakra, P. (2000). Corporate Reputation Management: CRM with a Strategic Twist? *Public Relations Quarterly*, 45(2), 35-42.
- Olegario, R., & McKenna C. (2013). Introduction: Corporate Reputation in Historical Perspective. *Business History Review*, 87, 643-654.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007680513001074>.
- Özgen, Ö., & Elmasoğlu, K. (2016). Sosyal Medya ve Marka İletişimi: Havayolu Şirketlerinin Twitter Kullanımına Yönelik Bir Araştırma. *İletişim Kuram ve Araştırma Dergisi*, (43).
- Paulraj, A. (2011). Understanding the relationships between internal resources and capabilities, sustainable supply management and organizational sustainability. *Journal of Supply Chain Management*, 47(1), 19-37.
- Preston, L. E. (2004). Reputation as a source of corporate social capital. *Journal of General Management*, 30(2), 43-50.
- Puglisi, V., & Baiardi, L. (2019). Sports facilities: The transition from Tthe “Cost System” Model to the “Revenue System” Model. In *IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering* (Vol. 471, No. 2, p. 022037). U.S.A.: IOP Publishing.
- Putnam, R. (2000). *Bowling alone: The collapse and revival of American community*. New York: Simon and Schuster.
- Pütter, M. (2017). The impact of social media on consumer buying intention. *Marketing*, 3(1), 7-13. 10.18775/jibrm.1849-8558.2015.31.3001
- Rindova, V. P., & Fombrun, C. J. (1999). Constructing competitive advantage: the role of firm–constituent interactions. *Strategic Management Journal*, 20(8), 691-710.

- Roberts, P. W., & Dowling, G. R. (2002). Corporate reputation and sustained superior financial performance. *Strategic Management Journal*, 23(12), 1077-1093. <https://doi.org/10.1002/smj.274>
- Rose, C., & Thomsen, S. (2004). The impact of corporate reputation on performance: Some Danish evidence. *European Management Journal*, 22(2), 201-210.
- Şardağı E., & Bayçu, S. (2018). İtibar oluşumunda medyada görünürlük: bankalar üzerine bir araştırma. *Erciyes University Communication Faculty Journal*. 5(3). 108-122. [10.17680/erciyesakademia.345468](https://doi.org/10.17680/erciyesakademia.345468).
- Scott, Susan V., & Geoff W. (2005). Reconceptualizing and managing reputation risk in the knowledge economy: Toward reputable action. *Organization Science*. 16(3), 308-322. <https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.1050.0127>.
- Sheth, H., & Babiak, K. M. (2010). Beyond the game: Perceptions and practices of corporate social responsibility in the professional sport industry. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 91(3), 433-450.
- Steinfeld, C., Ellison, N., Lampe, C., & Vitak, J. (2012). Online social network sites and the concept of social capital. *Frontiers in New Media Research*, 15, 115-125.
- Thackeray, R., Neiger, B., Hanson, C., & McKenzie, J. (2008). Enhancing promotional strategies within social marketing programs: Use of Web 2.0 social media. *Health Promotion Practice*, 9(4), 338-343. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1524839908325335>
- Thakur, R., & Hale, D. (2013). Service innovation: A comparative study of US and Indian service firms. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(8), 1108-1123. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2012.03.007>
- Theodorakis, N. D., Dimmock, J., Wann, D., & Barlas, A. (2010). Psychometric evaluation of the team identification scale among Greek sport fans: A cross-validation approach. *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 10(3), 289-305.
- Thielmann, T. (2019). *The ENLAC Display: Insignia of a Digital Praxeology*. In *Exploring the Early Digital* (pp. 101-116). Springer, Cham.
- Tripp, T. M., & Gregoire, Y. (2011). When unhappy customers strike back on the Internet. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 52(3), 37-44.
- Twitter, https://blog.twitter.com/en_us/topics/events/2018/2018-World-Cup-Insights.html, Retrieved: 14.02.2021.
- Twitter, https://blog.twitter.com/en_us/topics/product/2017/Giving-you-more-characters-to-express-yourself.html, Retrieved: 03.01.2021.
- Uğurlu, S. (2017). *Yeni Medya'da Stratejik İletişim Yönetimi*. İstanbul: Beta Publishing.

- Van Der Merwe, A. W., & Puth, G. (2014). Towards a conceptual model of the relationship between corporate trust and corporate reputation. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 17(2), 138-156.
- Van Noort, G., & Willemsen, L. M. (2011). Online damage control: the effects of proactive versus reactive web care interventions in consumer-generated and brand-generated platforms. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 26(3), 131-140. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intmar.2011.07.001>.
- Walker, M., & Kent, A. (2009). Do fans care? Assessing the influence of corporate social responsibility on consumer attitudes in the sport industry. *Journal of Sport Management*, 23(6), 743-769.
- Walsh, G., Mitchell, V. W., Jackson, P. R., & Beatty, S. E. (2009). Examining the antecedents and consequences of corporate reputation: A customer perspective. *British Journal of Management*, 20(2), 187-203.
- Walters, G., & Chadwick, S. (2009). Corporate citizenship in football: Delivering strategic benefits through stakeholder engagement. *Management Decision*, 47(1), 51-66.
- Wann, D. L., Weaver, S., Belva, B., Ladd, S., & Armstrong, S. (2015). Investigating the impact of team identification on the willingness to commit verbal and physical aggression by youth baseball spectators. *Journal of Amateur Sport*, 1(1), 1-28.
- Weiss AM, Anderson E, & MacInnis DJ. (1999). Reputation management as a motivation for sales structure decisions. *Journal of Marketing*, 63, 74-89. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intmar.2011.07.001>
- Yang, S. (2007). An integrated model for organization—Public relational outcomes, organizational reputation, and their antecedents. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 19(2), 91–121. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10627260701290612>
- Yang, S., & Grunig, J. E. (2005). Decomposing organizational reputation: the effects of organization-public relationship outcomes on cognitive representations of organizations and evaluations of organizational performance. *Journal of Communication Management*, 9(4), 305–325. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13632540510621623>
- Zinko, R., Gentry, W. A., Hall, A., & Grant, G. L. (2012). Reputational change among managers. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 9(26), 1-26.