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*Tennis influencers: the player effect on social media engagement and demand for tournament attendance*

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# Tennis influencers: the player effect on social media engagement and demand for tournament attendance

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# 1 Tennis influencers: the player effect on 2 social media engagement and demand for 3 tournament attendance 4

## 5 [Abstract](#)

6 Understanding the interest of sports fans in professional tennis has valuable operational and marketing  
7 implications for tournament organisers, marketeers, player sponsors and the media. In sports, professional  
8 tennis in particular, the player effect on social media user engagement is still elusive. Using data from the  
9 2019 Australian Open grand slam period, the authors examine Adler's (1985) theoretical construct in the  
10 context of sports and social media. A social listening tool is used to probe more than 2 million posts and  
11 comments mentioning elite male and female tennis players on four major social media channels: Twitter,  
12 Facebook, Instagram and YouTube, over the grand slam period. It is shown that the effect of professional  
13 tennis players on social media user engagement extends beyond their talent. A selection of players had a  
14 strong positive impact on prompting social media activity, even after accounting for factors related to their  
15 performance, the tournament rounds in which they were featured and the opponents against whom they  
16 played. Furthermore, the connection between social media research and sports economics is considered by  
17 examining the relationship between a player's effects on social media engagement and her/his differential  
18 influence on demand for tickets at the Australian Tennis Open. The authors further discuss how the social  
19 media star influence can be used, in combination with other quantitative measures, to optimise tennis  
20 tournament scheduling, determine player appearance fees and lift participation in the sport.

## 21 1. Introduction

22 Social media has transformed the way consumers engage with businesses and brands. In addition  
23 to boosting their visibility on the web and expanding their reach among internet users, social media has  
24 become a reliable source for capturing (formal and informal) consumer feedback and the public reaction to  
25 web content and core products of these businesses and brands (Gu & Ye, 2014). As such, social media has  
26 become extremely popular as a marketing communication medium (Yadav & Rahman, 2017). The focus  
27 extends beyond quantifying conversion or referral rates as the key measures for success, to further  
28 understanding the broader behaviour of consumers on social channels. For instance, aside from *shopping*  
29 online, consumers can profoundly engage with brands on social media with the potential to influence a  
30 large portion of the public opinion (Gu & Ye, 2014). Recent figures from the Centre of Marketing Research  
31 of the University of Massachusetts (Barnes, Mazzola, & Killeen, 2019) show that, only one out of  
32 America's 500 largest corporations, namely the "Fortune 500", was not using not actively using social  
33 media to connect with its audience. This comes as no surprise given the enormous user base that is currently  
34 active on social media platforms. Facebook, the social media behemoth, presents the perfect example with  
35 its 2.49 billion monthly active user-base reported in the fourth quarter of 2019, generating USD20.7 billion  
36 in revenue entirely from advertising over that period (Facebook, 2019).

37 The strategic (use and) presence on social media has been shown to have a big impact on the  
38 popularity and marketing goals of businesses/brands. For instance, in year 2019, the earnings of the top 10  
39 highest paid YouTubers (two of which are under the age of 10) hit \$162 M (Forbes, 2019). Given its huge  
40 potential in transforming the marketing and branding sectors, the study of social media has attracted  
41 researchers and practitioners, from a wide range of fields, who are interested in deepening their  
42 understanding of consumer activity and preference behaviour on social channels. For instance, the role of  
43 social media has been investigated in relation to predicting and enriching advertising activities, enhancing  
44 customer relationship management and creating stronger association between consumers and brands  
45 (Alalwan, Rana, Dwivedi, & Algharabat, 2017). Several quantitative measures (Hearn & Schoenhoff, 2016;

46 Rao, Spasojevic, & Dsouza, 2015; Kred Influence Measurement, 2011), many of which have underlying  
47 proprietary algorithms, have been developed to highlight (to corporate partners, stakeholders and the public)  
48 the level of engagement and popularity associated with a brand on social media platforms. Social media  
49 research has found positive associations between consumer motivations to engage with luxury brands on  
50 social media, and the propensity to use these brands (Jahn et al., 2012). Interestingly, the level of user  
51 engagement on social media further appears to predict brand loyalty (Jahn et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2019).

52         The sport industry—because of its high profile, visibility and emotional engagement of fans,  
53 athletes, industry professionals and customers—offers an excellent platform to investigate the potential  
54 impact of social media on the success of its actors. Filo, Lock, and Karg (2015) shed light on the value of  
55 social media in the business of sport, particularly from a brand perspective. As sports organisations become  
56 more competitive and consumers become more demanding for higher-quality content and entertainment,  
57 the pressure is mounting on them to focus on a consumer-centred strategy that delivers world-class events  
58 to its patrons. Consequently, an understanding of the superstardom phenomenon, by identifying how talent  
59 and success relate to each other, has become a fundamental practice in sports, and its (business) implications  
60 are manifold. Firstly, stardom can be one of the main drivers for motivating fans to physically attend  
61 sporting events, contributing to higher revenue for sports organisations through ticket purchases (Chmait,  
62 Robertson, Westerbeek, Eime, Sellitto & Reid, 2019). As we discuss later, understanding the stardom  
63 phenomenon could present tournament organisers with an objective approach to determining the  
64 appearance money (Lynch & Zax, 2000; Scully, 2002) that is offered to leading players (to encourage them)  
65 to participate in tournaments.

66         Besides growing the appetite for demand for tournament attendance and television consumption,  
67 leading players act as ambassadors for their sport. Thus, superstars play a role in incentivising new  
68 individuals to discover and/or become (more) active in playing the sport. The latter also has financial  
69 benefits as it can lead to higher revenue from increased demand on facilities and larger membership  
70 registrations or subscriptions. Moreover, some observations associate increased sales of merchandise and  
71 other sports paraphernalia to leading athletes promoting such products in marketing campaigns (Williams,

72 2018). Last but not least, leading players also tend to earn considerably more from endorsements than  
73 prizemoney (Badenhausen, 2019), so meaning that being able to identify emerging players that could be  
74 highly influential on social media presents a commercial opportunity for player management.

## 75 2. Literature Review

### 76 2.1. Theories of superstardom

77 The superstardom phenomenon is frequently discussed in the context of Rosen's (1981) and Adler's  
78 (1985) theories debating the role of talent and popularity in explaining the emergence of superstars and  
79 their market value. Rosen (1981) distils stardom down to talent, whereas Adler (1985) argues that stardom  
80 emerges among equally talented individuals and emphasizes fame and popularity as the attributes shifting  
81 the needle. In other words, Rosen links the phenomenon of superstardom to talent, and proposes that "small  
82 differences in talent become magnified in large earnings differences" (Rosen, 1981, p. 846), whereas Adler  
83 (1985) stresses on the importance of positive network externalities and claims that stardom arises among  
84 equally talented *artists*.

85 The theories of Rosen (1981) and Adler (1985) have been examined in a range of domains as, for  
86 example, the contemporary visual art market (Candela, Castellani, Pattitoni, & Di Lascio, 2016), music  
87 album sales (Filimon, López-Sintas, & Padrós-Reig, 2011) and sports (Franck & Nüesch, 2012; Lucifora  
88 & Simmons, 2003), to name a few. Traditionally, the literature has prioritised talent (i.e., the quality of a  
89 team or a player) to be a major factor/motive underlying fans' consumption of sport (Funk, Filo, Beaton, &  
90 Pritchard, 2009; Hansen & Gauthier, 1989; Kunkel, Doyle, & Berlin, 2017; Shilbury, Westerbeek, Quick,  
91 Funk, & Karg, 2014). Consequently, the *value* of athletes has been occasionally equated to their  
92 performance on the court (e.g., Gilsdorf & Sukhatme, 2008; Radicchi, 2011) or their professional rankings.  
93 In tennis, player *quality* is frequently estimated by the player's world ATP rankings (Association of Tennis  
94 Professionals, 2019) or her/his Elo ratings (Elo, 1978).

95           While strong player talent is usually associated with higher popularity of the sport, other (non-  
96 performance related) attributes of fame and popularity also strongly influence audience preferences in  
97 soccer (Franck & Nüesch, 2012; Lucifora & Simmons, 2003). This suggests that Adler’s 1985 theory  
98 pertains to the domain of sports. For instance, the distribution of incomes of soccer players could not be  
99 merely explained by their talent (Lucifora & Simmons, 2003). In similar vein, in baseball, the surge in the  
100 income of batters appeared to be more proportional to the batter’s experience rather than their efficiency or  
101 output (Blass, 1992). Recent studies that investigated the *value* of tennis players showed that the star status  
102 can have significant positive effects on consumer demand for both stadium attendance (ticket sales) and  
103 television consumption, above and beyond factors related to the player success and admission or  
104 subscription prices (Chmait et al., 2019; Konjer, Meier, & Wedeking, 2017; Lewis & Yoon, 2016). Whether  
105 through the lens of live sports consumption on television or in stadium, the case for evaluating the star  
106 status has proven to be a very insightful activity, bearing significant implications for the management and  
107 operation of the sports under investigation.

108           To the knowledge of the authors, it is still unclear if Rosen’s (1981)’s or Adler (1985)’s proposition  
109 is more applicable to the star status in the context of sports (professional tennis in particular) and social  
110 media. Perhaps the most relevant work around this subject matter is that of Kiefer and Scharfenkamp (2012;  
111 2018) on the impact of physical attractiveness on the popularity of female tennis players on social media.  
112 The study shows that attractiveness might have a positive influence on the popularity of tennis players on  
113 social media. Nevertheless, for a number of reasons discussed hereafter, more evidence is required to  
114 recognise which of Rosen’s (1981) and Adler’s (1985) theories best applies in the context of tennis and  
115 social media<sup>1</sup>. Firstly, only one social channel, namely Facebook, was contemplated for measuring social  
116 media popularity (while other prevalent channels also exist). Moreover, the study only uses the number of

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<sup>1</sup> In contrast, Kiefer and Scharfenkamp (2012; 2018) provide a comparatively much richer and more comprehensive analysis of these theories in the context of *online* media.

117 *Facebook followers* as the sole measure of player popularity. The number of followers, as we describe in  
118 detail in Section 2.2, was demonstrated for not being the appropriate measure of popularity on social media.  
119 Furthermore, the study does not control for player performance rankings/ratings but rather estimates player  
120 talent from their prizemoney. The latter can be a biased measure since prizemoney in tennis strongly  
121 depends on (i) the type, status and number of tournaments in which the players were featured so far in their  
122 careers (i.e., how active a player has been), and (ii) the level or performance of the opponents they have  
123 played against in those tournament; for instance, tennis grand slams reward players for simply making it  
124 into the slam, and then incrementally reward the players for each round they proceed into. In addition, the  
125 study is limited to (top ranked) female tennis players and no insight is given on men's tennis. Last but not  
126 least, as the discussed in (Kiefer & Scharfenkamp, 2018), "the evaluations of the tennis player's physical  
127 attractiveness might be biased" since only German university students were asked for their evaluation. As  
128 a result, such evaluations are subjective and therefore it is not possible to control for differences in  
129 perception of physical attractiveness between evaluators from different regions/countries. To that end,  
130 examining superstardom and its constituents in sports (i.e. tennis) and social media can offer a valuable  
131 new perspective which is what we set out to do in the study.

132 Thus far, besides the aforementioned open research question, there are also missing links between  
133 the star status research in social media and sport economics. For instance, it is not clear if, and to what  
134 extent, tennis stars' social media engagement relates to their influence on demand for tournament event  
135 attendance. The research and business opportunity lies in combining star power value with business profit  
136 maximisation. The need for comprehending the role of athletes on social media engagement is amplified as  
137 the next generation of sport consumers are now favouring digital and social media platforms over broadcast  
138 television as their primary source of sport consumption (Media Chain, 2019; Facebook IQ, 2019).  
139 Moreover, evaluating the influence of stars on the engagement level of social media users can help inform  
140 (and optimise) business decisions related to tennis tournament scheduling, determining player appearance  
141 fees in non-grand slam tournaments and adjusting admission prices, amongst other things. Therefore, one

142 of the aims of this study is to investigate whether individual tennis superstars have a significant impact on  
143 prompting higher user engagement on social media.

144

## 145 2.2. Measuring influence on social media

146 Social media platforms are typically used in different ways and for different purposes (Penni, 2017;  
147 Ahmed et al., 2018). Deciding on which metrics to be used for measuring user engagement on social media  
148 requires careful consideration. For instance, some social metrics fall short of capturing a substantial  
149 category and volume of online activity that is (pro-actively, rather than re-actively) initiated by fans on  
150 social media platforms. Such pro-active engagement (i.e., social media *mentions* that are posted by the fans  
151 themselves, rather than simple reactions to existing posts) associated with sports stars can arguably be  
152 considered as a form of super-engagement. Cha, Haddadi, Benevenuto & Gummadi (2010) have  
153 empirically demonstrated that measures based on the number of social media followers on Twitter reveal  
154 little about the influence of the account holder. This is in accordance with the million follower fallacy  
155 discussed by Avnit (2009) who revealed that a large portion of social media users follow (other) individuals  
156 simply for *etiquette* purposes, often without reading the content posted by these individuals. Interestingly,  
157 Cha et al. (2010) reveal that it is much more influential to have an active fan base that mentions (and shares  
158 the content of) a user on social media platforms than merely having a large number of followers. This  
159 suggests that the emphasis is transitioning from a passive social media user engagement to an active one.  
160 With that in mind, we refer to *social media engagement* associated with a tennis player as “the total number  
161 of, original and shared, posts or comments mentioning that player on social media platforms”. To explore  
162 which of Adler’s or Rosen’s propositions is more applicable in our context, we will test whether  
163 engagement on social media (as defined in the previous sentence) can be sufficiently explained by player  
164 talent (his/her performance ratings).

165 A large proportion of the research investigating sport and social media has been reported in Filo,  
166 Lock, and Karg (2015) highlighting its applications in sports management and marketing where the authors

167 categorise social media research into: strategic, operational, and user-focused. The strategic research  
168 investigates how social media facilitates brands' reach and communication with users as well as building  
169 relationships and promoting brand activities. Operational research focuses on how to leverage the types of  
170 content shared by brands whereas the user-focussed research analyses social media based on the  
171 demographics (and other attributes) and explores motives for engaging with different types of social media  
172 content. Recent research on social media in sports also examined its use as consumers simultaneously watch  
173 live sporting telecasts, a phenomenon referred to as the second screen consumer engagement  
174 (Phonthanakitithaworn, & Sellitto, 2017). The authors show that the behavioural intention of sport  
175 consumers using social media as a second screen is linked with the increased use of the social platforms to  
176 make purchases, make recommendations and learn more about sponsors. This highlights the potential of  
177 social media in ultimately driving higher revenue for sports organisations and help them attract corporate  
178 partners. Hwang & Lim (2015) also explored second screen activity and identified "convenience,  
179 excitement, and information" as the three main engagement motives for the use of social TV during a  
180 sporting event. Furthermore, Mudrick et al. (2016) showed that there is positive relationship between the  
181 use of social media for sports expression and strong team/athlete identification, and demonstrated that social  
182 media platforms are efficient tools for keeping fans behaviourally active with sport consumption.

183         Tiago et al. (2016) analysed the social media profiles and content created by six famous athletes,  
184 namely: Cristiano Ronaldo, Lionel Messi, Tom Brady, Aaron Rodgers, LeBron James, and Kevin Durant.  
185 The authors compared athlete popularity on Twitter and Facebook by aggregating the number of likes,  
186 comments and shares they gathered on their posts. The authors then proposed a strategic model for a more  
187 effective social media use in regard to leveraging brands and players' roles in social media, and to boost  
188 engagement with their audience. Similarly, Pegoraro (2010)'s study compared the use of Twitter by  
189 different athletes and the type of content they shared on this social media platform. They reported that  
190 athletes predominantly discuss their personal lives and respond to fans' queries through Twitter, and show  
191 evidence that some athletes, such as Serena Williams, purposely used social media for marketing purposes.  
192 A survey by E-Poll and Nielsen media research (Van Riper, 2011) assessed the likeability and awareness

193 of selected sports celebrities showing that National Association for Stock Car Auto Racing (NASCAR)  
194 drivers were becoming more popular and influential among sports fans in the United States compared to  
195 other sports professionals in the year 2010. However, recent figures show that NASCAR has been declining  
196 in popularity as a result of not accommodating to the changing audience preferences and dynamics (Gold,  
197 2019). In tennis, Kiefer and Scharfenkamp (2012; 2018) have shown that the *attractiveness* of female tennis  
198 players has a positive impact on the number of their Facebook followers (and other online non-social  
199 media), yet prizemoney appears to be a more accurate predictor of their popularity.

### 200 2.3. The conventional outlook on athlete influence

201 Many studies have examined the relationship between famous athletes (or teams) and the related  
202 consumption of the sports of soccer (Allan & Roy, 2008; Brandes, Franck, & Nüesch, 2008; González-  
203 Gámez & Picazo-Tadeo, 2010; Jewell, 2017; Lawson, Sheehan, & Stephenson, 2008; LeFeuvre,  
204 Stephenson, & Walcott, 2013; Madalozzo & Berber Villar, 2009; Parrish, 2013), baseball (Gitter & Rhoads,  
205 2010; Gitter & Rhoads, 2011; Lewis & Yoon, 2016; Nesbit & King-Adzima, 2012; Ormiston, 2014),  
206 basketball (Berri, Schmidt, & Brook, 2004; Burdekin & Idson, 1991; Jane, 2016) and other sports (Borland  
207 & MacDonald, 2003; Coates & Humphreys, 2012; Kunkel, Doyle, & Berlin, 2017; Lenten, 2012; Paton &  
208 Cooke, 2005). This work has consistently shown that sports celebrities have positive effects on consumer  
209 demand; an effect that exceeds that which is attributable to their performance and other factors such as  
210 admission prices (Lewis & Yoon, 2016) to the sport event. For instance, Jewell (2017) discussed how the  
211 signing of David Beckham increased attendance figures at the Major League Soccer matches in the USA.  
212 Likewise, the stardom effect was observed in connection to demand for National Basketball Association  
213 stadium attendance (Jane, 2016) and television consumption (Hausman & Leonard, 1997). Player status has  
214 also been linked to an increase in attendance at one-day cricket games (Paton & Cooke, 2005) and can be  
215 a primary driver for attendance in Major League Baseball (Ormiston, 2014). More recently, Chmait et al.  
216 (2019) showed the effect of tennis stars on attendance figures following an examination of ticket sales at  
217 the Australian Open Grand Slam. These researchers observed that the star status influenced ticket sales

218 beyond the performance of the players, the admission prices to the grand slam sessions, and other match  
219 schedule details in which the players were featured. In similar vein, demand for live broadcast of tennis  
220 matches in Germany (Konjer, Meier, & Wedeking, 2017, Appendix Table A1) also suggests the presence  
221 of loyalty effects for individual (domestic) tennis stars.

222         Engaging fans is of utmost importance to professional sport organisations as a substantial share of  
223 their revenue relies on the consumer demand for, and satisfaction with, their products. As it has become  
224 clear so far, fans can engage in the sport in multiple ways, whether by playing sport, physically attending  
225 an event, watching matches on live television or digital media or interacting with their favourite sport and  
226 players on social media (platforms). With the ever-increasing competition between sport organisations and  
227 their efforts to increase the value of their broadcasting rights, understanding the influence of players on  
228 core products delivered by such sport organisations (from live events to television and social media) can be  
229 highly lucrative for sport managers, marketers and the media in general. While the literature offers a  
230 comprehensive overview of the influence of players on both demand for stadium attendance and television  
231 consumption, the examination of the social media component remains disproportionately low.

232         Equating the player effect on live broadcast to event attendance or social media can be  
233 controversial. For instance, Mongeon and Winfree (2012) and Cox (2018) showed that important  
234 differences can exist between the determinants of economic demand for television audience and gate  
235 attendance. It therefore seems logical that this might also apply to social media where engagement is not  
236 constrained (no seating capacities), it is typically free of charge and it is not restricted to the time or content  
237 of broadcast of the sport event (in contrast to live television). Consequently, evidence is required before  
238 extrapolating a player's effect on live broadcast or demand for tickets to her/his effect on social media fan  
239 engagement. In the next sections, we systematically explore the influence of tennis stars on engaging social  
240 media users (as previously defined in this paper) in a similar fashion to the studies performed around  
241 demand for tickets and television consumption.

## 242 3. Methodology

### 243 3.1. Conceptual Model

244 The economic theories of superstars presented and discussed by Rosen (1981) and Adler (1985)  
245 mark our starting line of investigation in this paper. The fundamental aspects of stardom are examined in  
246 the context of professional tennis and influence on social media. The overarching goal is to understand how  
247 differences in player talent and player status can generate differences in (prompting) social media user  
248 engagement. As discussed in previous sections, such player effects can bear enormous implications on the  
249 sustained success of the athlete and their (social media) endorsement earnings, among other things.

250 Previous research in social media marketing conceptualised customer engagement as a multi-  
251 dimensional construct consisting of cognitive, emotional, and behavioural building blocks (Liu, Shin, &  
252 Burns, 2019). Nevertheless, only behavioural metrics of engagement tend to be captured in such studies  
253 due the limited ability to adequately measure cognitive and/or emotional aspects underlying customer  
254 engagement on social channels. Indeed, Liu et al. (2019) analysed the effect of brands on consumer  
255 engagement on social media and showed that all 13 studies evaluated, exclusively measured behavioural  
256 characteristics of customer engagement despite some advocating for a multi-dimensional conceptualisation  
257 of consumer engagement. Likewise, in this study, we only measure behavioural features of consumer  
258 engagement on social media platforms. Further details about the captured behavioural features are provided  
259 in the sections to follow. A high-level conceptual model summarising (the scope of) our research is  
260 presented in Figure 1. Beyond player talent and status, the fundamental aspects of the stardom component,  
261 other variables can impact (the influence of players on) social media user engagement. In professional  
262 tennis, these correspond to tournament and match related factors (synchronous to when the observations  
263 are collected). We discuss these variables in more detail in our model definition.

264 The player stardom effects have been previously investigated in the context of ticket sales and  
265 demand for stadium attendance in professional tennis (Chmait et al., 2019). Hence, a logical extension of

266 our analysis is to identify connections that might exist between the effect of individual professional tennis  
267 players on (i) social media and (ii) stadium attendance. To achieve that, we rank the players under study  
268 according to how strongly they can impact (i) social media user engagement and (ii) demand for tournament  
269 attendance. We then analyse the correlations between the player ranks as we elaborate later.

270 **Insert Figure1**

271 The considerations discussed in the paper so far lead us to propose and examine the following hypotheses:

- 272 • **Hypothesis 1:** Professional tennis players can have positive effects on the engagement of  
273 fans on social media platforms beyond their performance.
- 274 • **Hypothesis 2:** Players with higher influence on demand for event attendance will also have  
275 higher influence on prompting social media engagement.

### 276 3.2. Data collection framework

277 Social media mentions of a total of 84 professional (male and female) tennis players were  
278 monitored, worldwide, throughout the 18-day period around and during the 2019 Australian Open grand  
279 slam. This includes tracking of social mentions from the two days prior to the start of tournament until the  
280 two days following its completion. This was the only data available at the time of writing, and it was  
281 restricted to the above time-frame due to the strong seasonality present as part of the nature of this problem.  
282 A social listening tool, namely Salesforce Social Studio (SalesForce, 2015), was set up to probe posts and  
283 comments comprising player mentions on four leading social media channels: Twitter, Facebook<sup>2</sup>,  
284 Instagram and YouTube, and major discussion forums and blogs. All of the players under study were  
285 participants in the 2019 Australian Open.

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<sup>2</sup> Due to recent privacy terms and regulations with respect to the use of Facebook data, user posts that are set private from the public are not picked up by our social listening tool.

286 Data was also collected about each player’s matches in the 2019 Australian Open during the grand  
287 slam period. We compiled—a conceivably exhaustive set of—keyword groups to identify all possible  
288 mentions/references associated with each player on social media platforms. In other words, a dictionary of  
289 all player-related keywords has been created to map the terms (or nicknames) associated with each  
290 individual player.

### 291 3.3. Exploratory analysis

292 The number of mentions of the 84 players during the period under study tallies to 2,084,331  
293 mentions, having a *std. dev.*  $\sigma = 9552.5$ . A bar chart showing the total number of mentions for each player  
294 during the time period under investigation is provided in Figure 2 for all players who have had 5000+  
295 mentions. Note that a mention of a given player is associated with a social media or blog/forum post (in the  
296 form of a text message or captioned image), or the retweet or sharing of a post, comprising (at least) one of  
297 the keywords associated with that player. For example, a mention of Roger Federer could be a *tweet* of the  
298 text: “I enjoyed watching <Federer> play this evening at the Australian Open”. Following a keyword  
299 analysis of web content linked to the players under study, we have created (hopefully) an exhaustive set of  
300 keywords that could refer to each player including (official and non-official) hashtags, relevant acronyms  
301 or nicknames associated with these players. For instance, the word <Federer> in the tweet text above could  
302 be replaced by any other term that Roger Federer is known by.

#### 303 **Insert Figure 2**

304 Figure 2 shows that Rafael Nadal had the highest number of mentions followed by the women’s singles  
305 champion Naomi Osaka and then Roger Federer. We observe a heavy-tailed distribution of mentions  
306 dominated by a few superstars. Interestingly, Pareto’s principle (Pareto, 1964), also known as the 80–20  
307 rule, seems to elegantly describe the given distribution of social mentions whereby 81% of social media  
308 mentions are linked with 20% of the *population* (players). As they stand, these summary statistics can be  
309 very valuable to marketers and large sports event sponsors who pursue partnerships with popular players  
310 and seek their endorsement. Nevertheless, these social mention summaries fall short of explaining the

311 genuine player effect on engaging users on social media. In this paper, we design a regression model to  
312 understand the individual-player fixed effects on stimulating fan post activity on social media platforms.  
313 Before we give the full specifications of our model design, we provide a descriptive summary of our data  
314 and discuss the range of variables taken into consideration whilst testing our hypotheses.

### 315 3.4. Data variables and summary

316 The list of variables considered in our analysis is provided in Table 1. Our analysis considers social  
317 media post data from all countries and time zones. Naturally, sport fans located in different time zones  
318 might post about players at different (dates and) times of day. Despite such differences, we found that fan  
319 peak posting activity associated with a player typically coincides with the span of the tournament round in  
320 which this player was featured. As a result, we grouped the social mentions associated with a player by  
321 round (or stage) of tournament as opposed to doing it on a daily basis (or other shorter timeframes). The  
322 outcome variable in our model would therefore correspond to the observations generated by the grouping  
323 of each player’s social media mentions by tournament round (inclusive of a 48-hour timespan of pre-and  
324 post-tournament), and the resulting sample size is one of  $n = 742$  observations.

#### 325 **Insert Table 1**

326 Mentions of a player on social media often appear in the same post alongside mentions of the  
327 opposing player. As such, in some instances, the volume of social mentions of a given player is driven by  
328 the interest in her/his opposing superstar. To isolate the effect of individual tennis players, we control in  
329 our model for both the *Player* and (her/his) *Opponent* variables in each round of the tournament. The  
330 identities of the participating players under study are provided in Table 1. To further emphasise the  
331 significance of the player influence on prompting social media engagement, we compared the players to a  
332 designated base-level or reference player (denoted as “ref.” in Table 1). The reference player is chosen from  
333 the pool of participants in such a way that his/her total number of (social media) mentions in the first round  
334 of the tournament (where all players were featuring) has the minimum absolute square difference relative  
335 to the median number of player mentions in that round.

336           Although more advanced or final rounds of the tennis grand slam tournament tend to be more  
337 attractive to patrons who physically attend the tournament (which is typically reflected by the admission  
338 prices to these rounds), the influence of the round on social media engagement is not clear. The volume of  
339 social mentions associated with a player might be impacted by the event or being eliminated from the  
340 tournament. In other words, fans might connect more with players who are still competing in the tournament  
341 as opposed to those who have been eliminated. We control for this by introducing the variable *Played* which  
342 indicates whether or not a player has been eliminated from the tournament. Furthermore, we control for the  
343 variable *Round* to eliminate bias linked to amplified social mentions associated with playing in more  
344 advanced or final rounds of the Australian Open. Likewise, different match outcomes, being a *win* or a *loss*,  
345 can potentially impact social media activity in different ways. The match result is controlled for by  
346 introducing the variable *Loss*.

347           Finally, we wanted to account for the effect of player quality and her/his performance to understand  
348 whether players drive social media engagement beyond their talent. Ideally, we would require historical  
349 observations of social media post activity from different years and tournaments to allow us to examine the  
350 player effects beyond their talent and performance rankings. As this historical data is not available, it was  
351 not fully possible to control for each player's individual performance ranking as such ranking remains static  
352 across the period under study. For instance, for non-match observations, we controlled for the variations in  
353 social mention volumes that were driven by the individual performance ranking of a player whereas, for  
354 match-observations, the average ranking of the featured players in each match was used<sup>3</sup>. This is captured  
355 by the variable *Player ATP*. Women's rankings are based on the Women's Tennis Association (WTA)  
356 ranking list (<https://www.wtatennis.com/rankings>). For simplicity, we used the term *Player ATP* to refer to  
357 the average player rankings for both males' (ATP) and females' (WTA) rankings. We look at the interaction

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<sup>3</sup> Andy Murray's ranking dropped significantly (by 200 ranks) after injury in 2018. To capture the genuine longer term performance of Murray, we used his ATP ranking from before injury.

358 between *Player ATP* and *Played* given that we are considering observations for players who still feature  
359 and/or eliminated from the tournament.

### 360 3.5. Formal model specification

361 As described earlier, our outcome variable corresponds to the volume of social media posts (or  
362 shares) mentioning each player, grouped by tournament round. We designed an Ordinary Least Squares  
363 (OLS) regression model to investigate the relationship between players and this outcome. In the model  
364 specification below, the outcome variable is denoted as *Mentions* and the subscript  $i$  refers to a particular  
365 observation such that  $i = 1, \dots, n = 742$ , while  $\epsilon$  is the error term:

$$\log(Mentions_i) = \alpha + \beta_1 Player + \beta_2 Played + \beta_3 Round + \beta_4 Loss + \beta_5 Player\ ATP + \beta_6 Opponent + \epsilon_i$$

366 We *log* transform the outcome variable to achieve *normality* in our model. The model passes the  
367 Shapiro-Wilk normality test, and the normality assumption is further validated by a graphical assessment  
368 of the (residuals) quantile-quantile plot.

369 The above-specified OLS model allowed us to test the first hypothesis around the effects of players  
370 outlined in Section 3.1. Our second objective was to further examine whether players with higher influence  
371 on demand for event attendance will also have higher influence on prompting social media engagement  
372 (Hypothesis 2). To achieve this, we tested the rank correlations between the point estimates of the player  
373 coefficients from our OLS model, and those in Chmait et al. (2019), who examined the player effect of  
374 tennis stars on demand for stadium attendance. Chmait et al. (2019) also performed their analysis within  
375 the scope of recent Australian Open tournaments. Both Kendall's *tau* (where calculations are based on  
376 concordant and discordant rank pairs) and Spearman's *rho* (where calculations are based rank order  
377 deviations) rank correlation tests were performed. Of course, only the mutual set of players examined in  
378 this study and in Chmait et al. (2019) were tested. First, the point estimates of the mutual players (their  
379 effects on social media and independently their effects on ticket sales) were put in order and numbered

380 according to each study. The resulting ranks were then compared and correlations were tested for statistical  
381 significance.

## 382 4. Results and Discussion

383 The coefficients from the OLS regression are provided in Table 2. Before analysing the effects of  
384 players, we consider how the different independent variables are related to our outcome of interest.

385 **Insert Table 2**

### 386 4.1. Attributes of social media mentions

387 Social mentions clearly display variations by *Round*, and depending on whether a player has been  
388 eliminated from the tournament or not (*Played*). For instance, more advanced rounds seem to be associated  
389 with relatively higher volumes of mentions. This is consistent with fan interest in attending (or watching)  
390 tennis matches in the final stages of the tournaments (Chmait et al. 2019; Konjer, Meier, & Wedeking,  
391 2017). Moreover, the positive coefficient for *Played* indicates that social media engagement, in the form of  
392 posts and comments, largely corresponds to discussions around the players' matches. In other words, being  
393 eliminated from the tournament is associated with a lower volume of social mentions. The match outcome  
394 of a player also has a significant relationship with her/his earned mentions. We observe that players who  
395 win a match seem to drive higher engagement compared to those who lose.

396 The investigation of whether player quality/performance helps to explain a player's influence on  
397 social media engagement is a novel part of this study. It is frequently tested in the literature by examining  
398 Rosen's (1981) vs. Adler's (1985) theory on the emergence of stardom and star income. For instance, Rosen  
399 (1981) linked superstardom to performance by proposing that minor fluctuations in talent are amplified in  
400 big earnings differences, whereas Adler (1985) stressed fame and popularity, beyond talent, as key features  
401 that resulted in stardom emerging among equally talented performers/athletes. From Table 2, we observe  
402 that the *Player ATP* ranking has a significant negative relationship with the outcome variable. This is  
403 expected since a higher ranking of players (equivalent to a lower numerical rank value) increases the volume



429 engagement might be resilient to home bias. However, more research is required to test this hypothesis. It  
430 is important to note that the high social media engagement rank for Andy Murray could be attributed to the  
431 announcement of (his possible) retirement due to injury after losing his first match at the Australian Open.  
432 As a result, more data is required to validate Andy Murray's estimates.

433 In summary, looking at the resulting player coefficients, our data seems to support Adler's thesis  
434 in professional sports (Adler, 1985; Blass, 1992; Franck & Nüesch, 2012; Lucifora & Simmons, 2003,  
435 Chmait et al. 2019) indicating that some popular players can indeed be much more influential in the social  
436 media sphere than other players that have similar performance rankings or professional history.

### 437 4.3. Bridging social media and demand for tickets research

438 Present research on social media star influence has not been linked to the literature of sport economics, and  
439 particularly to the impact of stars on demand for stadium attendance. To the knowledge of the authors, this  
440 is a first attempt to bridge the two fields by providing some fundamental insights into how the player effect  
441 on demand for ticket sales compares to that of driving social media activity. Rank correlations between the  
442 common set of players examined in this study and from Chmait et al. (2019), who investigated the player  
443 effects on ticket sales at the Australian Open, are provided in Table 3. Although there is no absolute  
444 concordance between the paired samples in the two studies, it is obvious that a strong positive correlation  
445 exists. Interestingly, both the top and bottom ranked players in the two studies are identical. Table 3 shows  
446 that Spearman's rank correlation between the set of 14 players is strong and positive  $\rho = 0.916$ , indicating  
447 that our observations have fairly concordant pairs, as well as being statistically significant (with a very  
448 small  $p$ -value  $< 2.2e-16$ ). This is also the case with Kendall's  $\tau$  which returns a rank correlation  $> 0.78$   
449 (noting that Kendall's  $\tau$  values are typically smaller than Spearman's  $\rho$ ).

#### 450 **Insert Table 3**

451 Overall, our tests show a positive relationship between the influence of star status on demand for attendance  
452 (i.e., ticket sales), an important subject in sports economics, and social media user activity. In other words,  
453 players with higher influence on demand for event attendance are also likely to have higher influence on

454 social media engagement. There are different ways that sport organisations can benefit from this analysis  
455 and finding. We elaborate on the business implications of our work in the next section.

## 456 5. Business Implications

457 Our findings show that beyond their performance ranking there are supplementary stardom effects  
458 resulting from the player status in regard to social media engagement, analogous to the conclusions from  
459 the literature on demand for attendance in sport (Hausman & Leonard, 1997; Lewis & Yoon, 2016;  
460 Ormiston, 2014; Paton & Cooke, 2005, Chmait et al., 2019). Although more talented players commonly  
461 attract more fans, our study reveals that the star status in social media extends beyond the quality and career  
462 performance of the athlete in agreement with Adler's thesis in professional sport (Adler, 1985; Blass, 1992;  
463 Franck & Nüesch, 2012; Lucifora & Simmons, 2003).

464 In addition to the aforementioned research findings, the outcomes from this study have several  
465 business implications that can enrich the way sport organisations manage players, campaigns and tennis  
466 tournaments in the future. In the digital sport era, there is the likelihood that consumers will discover the  
467 sport of tennis through its professional players who are leading influencers on social media. As a result,  
468 famous players may play a key role in incentivising young individuals to commence playing tennis as well  
469 as lifting participation rates among existing tennis players, consequently resulting in larger consumer  
470 investment of time and money in the sport. Indeed, the practice of nominating players to feature in targeted  
471 advertisements and marketing campaigns, based on their (empirically measured) charisma and user appeal  
472 on social media, may encourage amateur players to become more active with the sport (both physically and  
473 as spectators) and can assist in promoting sales of merchandise and other tennis products (Williams, 2018).  
474 A study to quantify the magnitude of these presumed effects of tennis superstars in the marketing campaigns  
475 of tennis organisations could follow.

476 Player-management enterprises can also leverage the research on player social media influencers  
477 by identifying and helping less-influential players in strengthening their off-court and social media activities

478 that can develop the player brand value. For those new and upcoming players particularly, our results can  
479 be used as part of a framework for the assessment of the (social media, marketability and onsite) *value* of  
480 these players in their endeavour towards a professional sport career that entails more than becoming a high  
481 performing player on court. With the enormous competition for prizemoney and other performance-related  
482 earnings, tennis athletes, beyond their playing excellence, can become more commercially relevant and  
483 popular among the public. In light of this, highly influential players on social media may have the potential  
484 to generate more revenue off the court (e.g., in endorsements or sponsorship) than from tournament  
485 participation. Roger Federer offers a fine example with his \$65M earnings from endorsements and  
486 appearance fees compared to his tally of \$12.2M in prizemoney in recent years (Badenhausen, 2019). With  
487 that in mind, our findings reveal that equally talented players (or even those of a lower standard ranking)  
488 can indeed be more influential, which emphasises the opportunity for upcoming players to develop their  
489 brand value.

490 Day by day, tournament organisers aim to increase the number of consumers who physically attend  
491 their events for this constitutes a substantial source of their income (Clark, 2011). To achieve this goal,  
492 organisers of tennis tournaments need to strategically recruit top tennis players who can pull more fans into  
493 their stadia. In tennis, appearance money (Lynch & Zax, 2000; Scully, 2002) is the fee that organisers pay  
494 for star players to participate in (relatively less prestigious) tournaments, and it is one of the main drivers  
495 for attracting popular players to these tournaments especially when these appearance fees can (largely)  
496 exceed the standard prizemoney offered. Accordingly, measuring the effect of tennis players on social  
497 media activity can be valuable to tournament organisers as it may be one of the factors considered in  
498 determining the cost-benefit equation of their appearance.

### 499 5.1. Some limitations

500 The lack of access to historical social listening data did not permit us to expand the scope of our  
501 analysis to include a variety of tennis tournaments. The absence of repeated observations from different  
502 years of the tournament under study might also limit our interpretation with respect to the impact of the

503 player performance rankings on social media engagement. Although we have pulled data from four leading  
504 and large social media platforms and blogs, an inclusion of more platforms may have altered the player  
505 estimates. Moreover, posts sourced from the Facebook platform were limited to public postings (due to  
506 recent privacy regulations) and may not reflect the private views of fans. Without longitudinal data, it is not  
507 clear how the influence of players fluctuates over longer timespans. For instance, some players could be  
508 highly popular on social media platforms for short periods of time whereas others could be associated with  
509 steady figures related to popularity and engagement for extended periods of time.

## 510 6. Conclusion

511 This study demonstrates the relationship between professional tennis players and social media post  
512 activity initiated by tennis fans. We account for a range of attributes that could have impacted the volume  
513 of social media posts associated with individual tennis players around the 2019 Australian Open grand slam  
514 period. We show that the superstardom effect is present above and beyond professional player talent, in  
515 support of Adler's thesis that superstardom emerges among equally talented players. As well as being the  
516 first empirical examination of the effects of individual athletes on engaging sports fan on social media, this  
517 study is a first step towards bridging the social media and sports economics research tracks by testing the  
518 proposition that players with higher influence on demand for event attendance (e.g., tickets sales) will also  
519 have higher influence on prompting social media engagement.

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**Table 1**

List of variables included in the OLS regression model and their descriptions.

Variable	Description
<b>Player/Opponent</b>	
Alex Bolt	The Player variable holds the names of the players investigated in our study. As these players compete against each other, this list also holds values for the Opponent variable with the exception for "D. Yastremska" and "A.
Alex de Minaur	
Alex Popyrin	
Alexander Zverev	
Andreas Seppi	
Andy Murray	
Aliaksandra Sasnovich	
Anastasija Sevastova	
Anett Kontaveit	
Angelique Kerber	
Aryna Sabalenka	
Ashleigh Barty	

Bernard Tomic	Barbora Strycova	Pavlyuchenkova" for which we have no social monitoring data.
Borna Coric	Camila Giorgi	Male and female opponents who participated in less than three matches (those players associated with less than 3 observations) in the tournament are encoded as "Other-Male" and "Other-Female" respectively.
Daniil Medvedev	Carla Suarez Navarro	Observations from dates peripheral to the tournament start and end dates, as well as those associated with players beaten out of the tournament (players who lost a match), have the Opponent variable set to "No Opponent".
David Goffin	Caroline Garcia	The reference or base-level player is Denis Shapovalov (refer to Section 3.4 for more details about this selection).
Denis Shapovalov (ref.)	Caroline Wozniacki	
Diego Schwartzman	Danielle Collins	
Dominic Thiem	Daria Gavrilova	
Fabio Fognini	Daria Kasatkina	
Fernando Verdasco	Dominika Cibulkova	
Frances Tiafoe	Donna Vekic	
Gael Monfils	Elina Svitolina	
Gilles Simon	Elise Mertens	
Grigor Dimitrov	Garbine Muguruza	
Jeremy Chardy	Jelena Ostapenko	
John Isner	Johanna Konta	
John Millman	Julia Goerges	
Jordan Thompson	Karolina Pliskova	
Karen Khachanov	Katerina Siniakova	
Kei Nishikori	Kiki Bertens	
Kevin Anderson	Kimberly Birrell	
Kyle Edmund	Lesia Tsurenko	
Lucas Pouille	Madison Keys	
Marin Cilic	Maria Sharapova	
Marton Fucsovics	Mihaela Buzarnescu	
Matthew Ebden	Naomi Osaka	
Milos Raonic	Petra Kvitova	
Nick Kyrgios	Petra Martic	
Nikoloz Basilashvili	Qiang Wang	
Novak Djokovic	Saisai Zheng	
Pablo Carreno Busta	Sam Stosur	
Rafael Nadal	Serena Williams	
Roberto Bautista Agut	Shuai Zhang	
Roger Federer	Simona Halep	
Stefanos Tsitsipas	Sloane Stephens	
Steve Johnson	Su-Wei Hsieh	
Ajla Tomljanovic	Venus Williams	
<b>Round</b>		
1	Pre-Tour	An integer $\in [0, 8]$ that controls for variations in the propensity to mention players on social media, at different stages/rounds of the Australian Open (AO) tournament.
2	R128 (ref.)	The list shows the (integer) value corresponding to each round (right-side) in order of play. The index is reset to zero further to the end of the tournament (Post-Final).
3	R64	
4	R32	
5	R16	
6	Quarter-final	
7	Semi-final	
8	Final	
0	Post-Final	
<b>Played</b>		
No (ref.)		Determines if a player was featuring in a given round of the tournament (i.e., has not been eliminated).
Yes		
<b>Loss</b>		
No (ref.)		Indicates whether a player has lost a match in the corresponding round (controls for match outcome).
Yes		
<b>Player ATP</b>		
		Controls for the overall player performance/talent. For non-match observations this corresponds to a player's ATP ranking, while the value for match observations is measured by the average ATP rankings of the featuring players. Note that the top ATP rank (highest rank) corresponds to a value of 1. For simplicity, we also use the term ATP to refer to the women's WTA rankings.

*Note: ref. indicates the reference category of the variable.*

692 **Table 2**  
 693 Coefficients from the OLS regression model output showing the fixed effects of tennis players on social  
 694 media mentions during the Australian Open 2019 time period.

<i>Dependent variable:</i>	
Social media mentions	
<i>Constant</i>	5.1607*** (0.6358)
<b><i>Player</i></b>	
Alex Bolt	-0.1277 (0.5137)
Alex de Minaur	0.4711 (0.4434)
Alex Popyrin	0.0039 (0.5024)
Alexander Zverev	0.8993* (0.4470)
Andreas Seppi	-0.7162 (0.4444)
Andy Murray	2.7342*** (0.4446)
Bernard Tomic	0.8076 (0.4644)
Borna Coric	-0.5593 (0.4451)
Daniil Medvedev	-0.2659 (0.4445)
David Goffin	-0.9093* (0.4544)
Diego Schwartzman	0.1235 (0.4409)
Dominic Thiem	0.3183 (0.4421)
Fabio Fognini	-0.6789 (0.4457)
Fernando Verdasco	-0.7008 (0.4450)
Frances Tiafoe	0.8009 (0.4533)
Gael Monfils	0.4341 (0.4410)
Gilles Simon	-1.5584*** (0.4541)

Grigor Dimitrov	0.4311 (0.4450)
Jeremy Chardy	-1.2834** (0.4457)
John Isner	-0.1524 (0.4421)
John Millman	-0.4774 (0.4448)
Jordan Thompson	-0.4789 (0.4670)
Karen Khachanov	-0.6313 (0.4442)
Kei Nishikori	1.2890** (0.4510)
Kevin Anderson	0.8450 (0.4454)
Kyle Edmund	-0.7593 (0.4414)
Lucas Pouille	0.1610 (0.4465)
Marin Cilic	0.5488 (0.4459)
Marton Fucsovics	-1.3021** (0.4666)
Matthew Ebden	-0.0430 (0.4453)
Milos Raonic	0.4145 (0.4499)
Nick Kyrgios	1.2029** (0.4491)
Nikoloz Basilashvili	-1.1261* (0.4585)
Novak Djokovic	1.8873*** (0.4555)
Pablo Carreno Busta	-0.1763 (0.4412)
Rafael Nadal	2.8713*** (0.4554)
Roberto Bautista Agut	0.4156 (0.4493)
Roger Federer	3.3549*** (0.4449)
Stefanos Tsitsipas	1.3884** (0.4485)
Steve Johnson	-2.0119*** (0.5002)
Ajla Tomljanovic	-1.3596** (0.5237)
Aliaksandra Sasnovich	-0.8870* (0.4461)
Anastasija Sevastova	-0.2554 (0.4479)
Anett Kontaveit	-1.6193*** (0.4560)

Angelique Kerber	1.1858** (0.4479)
Aryna Sabalenka	0.2650 (0.4476)
Ashleigh Barty	0.5151 (0.4506)
Barbora Strycova	0.1443 (0.4425)
Camila Giorgi	-1.1257* (0.4461)
Carla Suarez Navarro	-0.9244* (0.4463)
Caroline Garcia	-0.3680 (0.4469)
Caroline Wozniacki	1.2313** (0.4446)
Danielle Collins	0.5778 (0.4556)
Daria Gavrilova	0.1211 (0.4434)
Daria Kasatkina	-0.0557 (0.4432)
Dominika Cibulkova	-1.6565*** (0.4462)
Donna Vekic	-0.5418 (0.4435)
Elina Svitolina	0.4130 (0.4544)
Elise Mertens	-0.9224* (0.4440)
Garbine Muguruza	0.1908 (0.4478)
Jelena Ostapenko	0.6360 (0.4421)
Johanna Konta	-0.0061 (0.4472)
Julia Goerges	-1.0049* (0.4457)
Karolina Pliskova	0.4430 (0.4609)
Katerina Siniakova	-0.7904 (0.4423)
Kiki Bertens	0.2143 (0.4463)
Kimberly Birrell	-0.0954 (0.5757)
Lesia Tsurenko	-1.1048* (0.4424)
Madison Keys	1.6125*** (0.4489)
Maria Sharapova	1.7798*** (0.4447)
Mihaela Buzarnescu	-0.7636 (0.4420)

Naomi Osaka	2.3125*** (0.4749)
Petra Kvitova	1.7737*** (0.4570)
Petra Martic	-0.6332 (0.4492)
Qiang Wang	-0.9253* (0.4473)
Saisai Zheng	-2.2838*** (0.5350)
Sam Stosur	0.1131 (0.4594)
Serena Williams	2.8408*** (0.4536)
Shuai Zhang	0.4910 (0.4481)
Simona Halep	1.8485*** (0.4475)
Sloane Stephens	0.6560 (0.4478)
Su-Wei Hsieh	-0.3101 (0.4456)
Venus Williams	1.1285* (0.4436)
<i>Played</i>	1.8557*** (0.1422)
<i>Round</i>	0.0491** (0.0161)
<i>Loss</i>	-0.7187*** (0.1776)
<i>Player ATP</i>	-0.0089*** (0.0025)
<i>Played: Player ATP</i>	0.0066** (0.0021)

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<i>Observations</i>	739
<i>R<sup>2</sup></i>	0.8464
<i>Adjusted R<sup>2</sup></i>	0.8189
<i>Residual Std. Error</i>	0.9244 (df = 626)
<i>F Statistic</i>	30.7948*** (df = 112; 626)

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*Note:* · p<0.1 \*p<0.5; \*\*p<0.01; \*\*\*p<0.001  
Coefficients for *Opponent* omitted in the interest of space.



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**Table 3**

Spearman’s and Kendall’s rank correlations between (the rank orderings of) the common set of players examined in this study and in (Chmait et al., 2019).

**Player status rank ordering on demand for attendance and social media engagement**

<i>Player</i>	<b>Influence rank</b>	
	<i>Demand for attendance</i> <i>(Chmait et al., 2019; Table 3)</i>	<i>Social media engagement</i> <i>(Table 3)</i>
Roger Federer	1	1
Novak Djokovic	2	4
Rafael Nadal	3	2
Nick Kyrgios	4	6
Kei Nishikori	5	5
Andy Murray	6	3
Alexander Zverev	7	7
Gael Monfils	8	10
Bernard Tomic	9	8
Domnic Thiem	10	13
Marin Cilic	11	9
Gigor Dimitrov	12	11
Milos Raonic	13	12
David Goffin	14	14
<hr/>		
<i>Spearman's rank correlation</i>	S = 38, <i>p</i> -value = < 2.2e-16	
$\rho \in [-1,1]$	Alternative hypothesis: true $\rho \neq 0$	
	Sample estimates: $\rho = 0.9164$	
<i>Kendall's rank correlation</i>	T = 81, <i>p</i> -value = 1.919e-05	

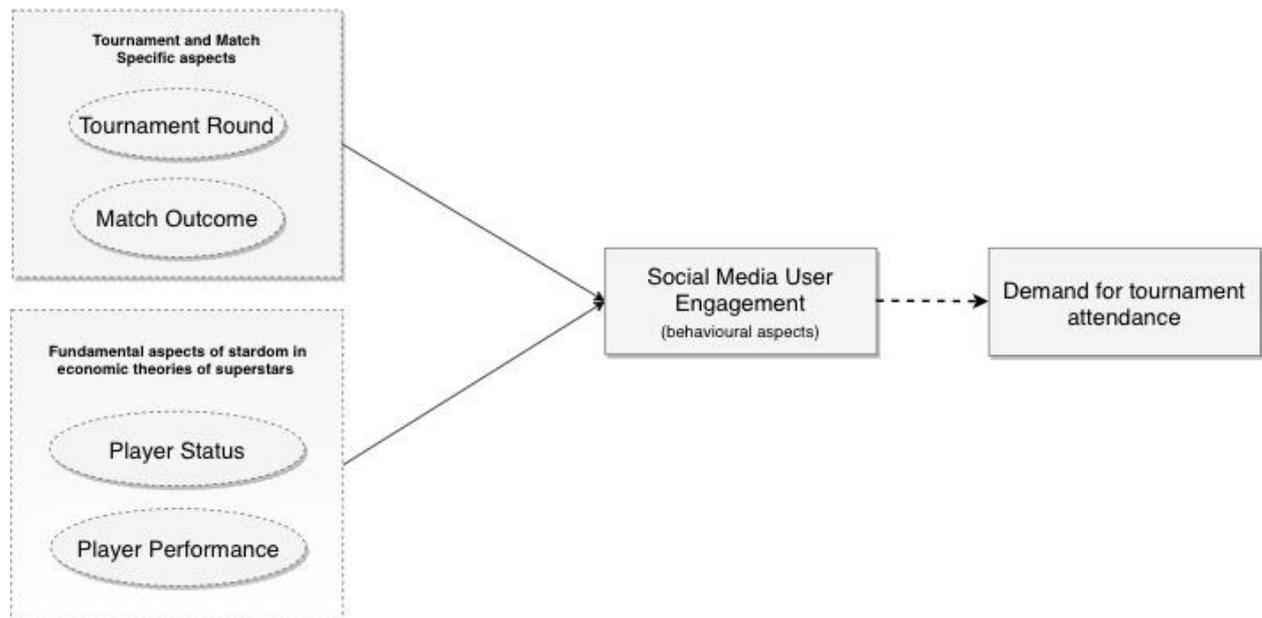
$\tau \in [-1,1]$

Alternative hypothesis: true  $\tau \neq 0$

sample estimates:  $\tau = 0.7802$

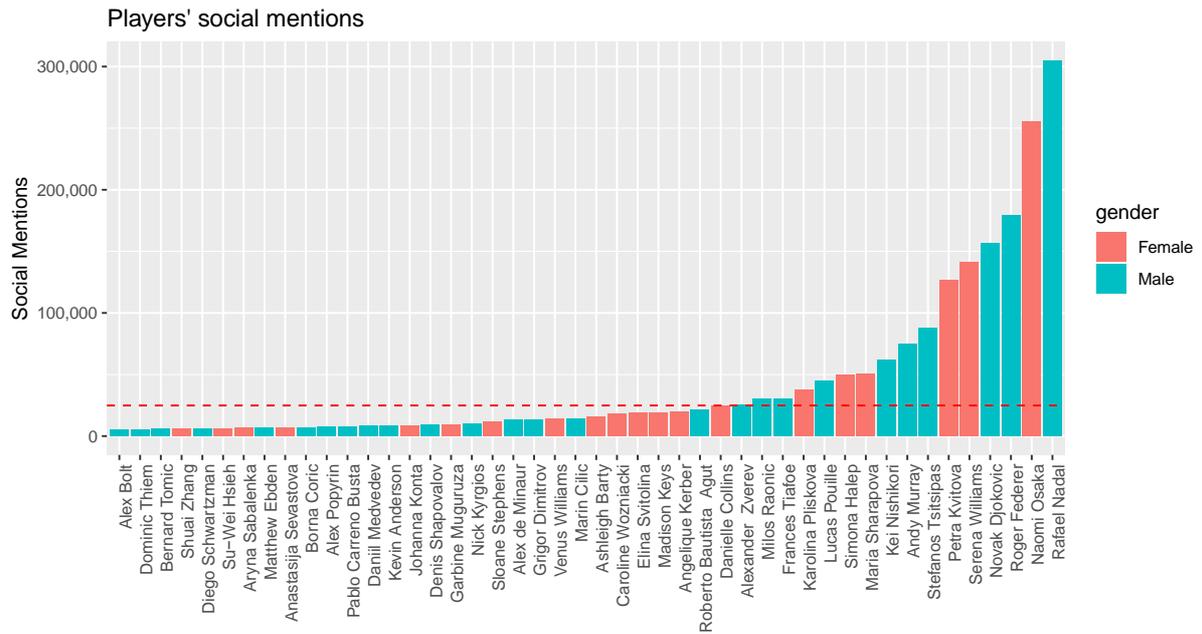
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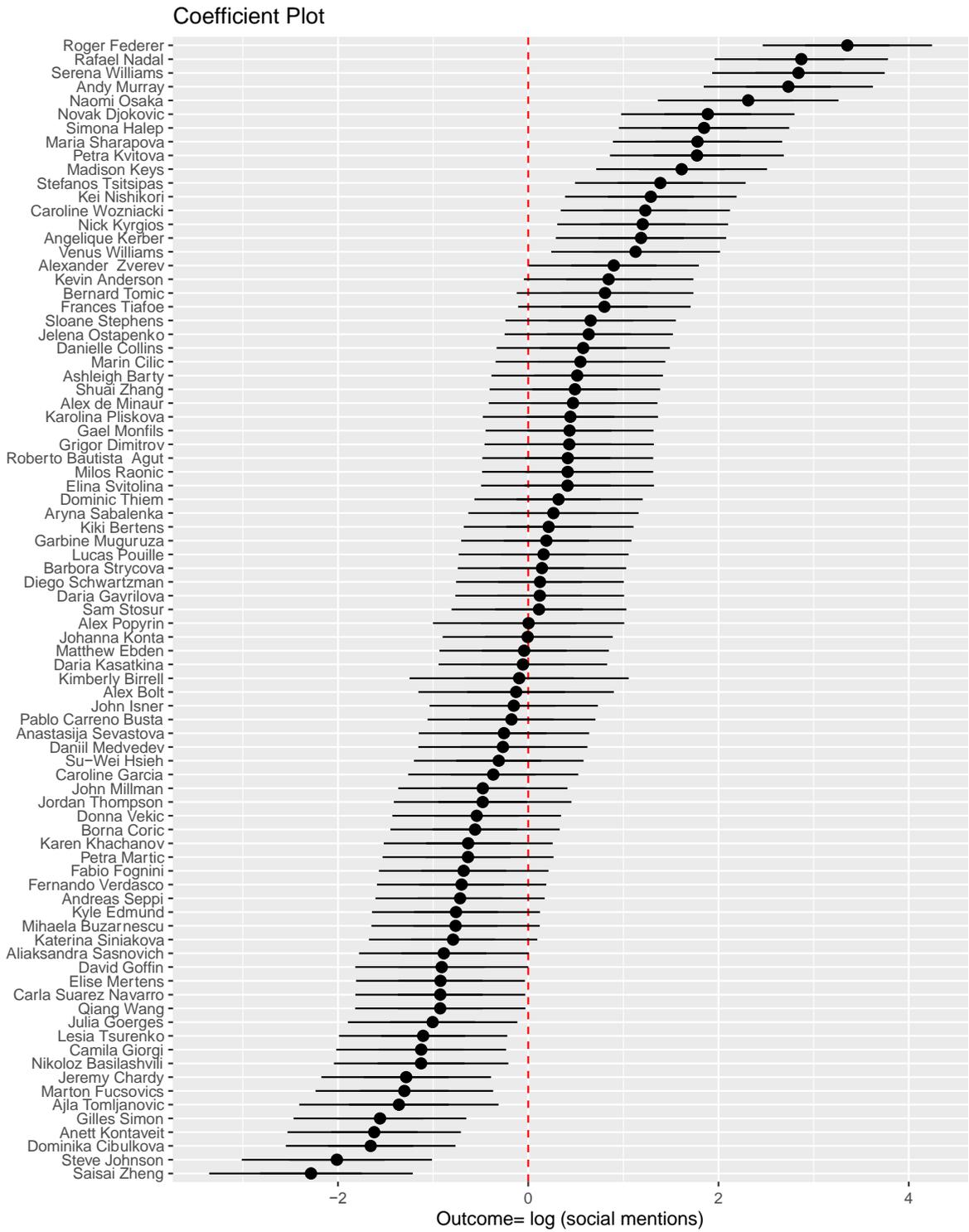


**Fig. 1.** Proposed high-level conceptual model showing the main components investigated in this research and their relationships with user engagement on social media. The two components consist of (i) aspects underlying superstardom theories and other (ii) tournament specific aspects. The relationship between the superstardom component and social media user engagement is also compared (dotted lines) to how that component has been shown to influence demand for tournament attendance in the existing literature. The conceptual model relates the two hypotheses identified in this research.

Figure2



**Fig. 2.** A bar chart of the total number of mentions associated with players during the time period under study. Only players with 5000 or more social mentions are plotted. The colour identifies the gender of the player while the red dotted line shows the average social media mentions across all (appearing and non-appearing) players.



**Fig. 3.** Coefficient plot from the OLS regression model showing the fixed effects of the players on the (log transformed) outcome variable corresponding to the players' social media mentions, and their 95% confidence intervals.