

THE PRICE OF THE BEAUTIFUL GAME: HOW THE BIGGEST FIFA WORLD CUP EVER BECAME A GLOBAL PLATFORM FOR PROMOTING HARMFUL PRODUCTS

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1 | EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

ABOUT THIS RESEARCH

The 2026 FIFA Men's World Cup was the biggest World Cup ever. It brought together 48 teams for 104 matches over 39 days and was predicted to engaged with by more than six billion people worldwide. FIFA President Gianni Infantino compared its scale to "104 Super Bowls being played in 39 days" (FIFA, 2026c). But viewers do not just see the game – marketing messages by FIFA's sponsors have always been a part of the broadcast. Some of these promote harmful commodities, like alcohol, gambling (and gambling-like activities), or unhealthy food and beverages.

This is the first study to analyse harmful commodity advertising across every match of a FIFA Men's World Cup. We developed an AI computer vision model to analyse all 104 matches and 172.6 hours of live play. The model was trained and run on Isambard-AI, the UK's most powerful supercomputer, alongside the computational facilities of the Advanced Computing Research Centre, University of Bristol, and validated against independent human coding.

We examined advertising across five harmful commodity categories: unhealthy food and beverages, alcohol, gambling, prediction markets and cryptocurrencies.

The main analysis focused on advertising embedded within FIFA's centrally produced international match footage and distributed to broadcasters worldwide. It did not include commercials added by individual broadcasters.

The research examined three areas:

- **The scale of the advertising:** How many harmful commodity logos appeared and for how long they remained visible.
- **The products and brands promoted:** How advertising differed across the five harmful commodity categories and the policy issues raised by this.
- **Potential population exposure:** How much harmful commodity advertising UK viewers may have seen across 53 broadcasts, used as a case study of exposure in one national market.

THE CENTRAL FINDINGS

UNAVOIDABLE HARMFUL COMMODITY ADVERTISING SATURATED LIVE PLAY

Across all 104 matches, we identified 93,409 harmful commodity logos, equivalent to 9 logos per minute – making them virtually highly prevalent. They appeared in every single game and were visible for 39 hours, or 22.8% of all live play. Because this advertising was built directly into the match footage, viewers could not avoid it without also missing the game.

Unhealthy food and beverage brands dominated, accounting for 70.4% of all harmful logos. This matters because unhealthy diets are a major preventable driver of noncommunicable diseases, while alcohol, gambling, prediction markets and cryptocurrencies are associated with serious health or financial harms. Evidence linking exposure to unhealthy food, alcohol and gambling advertising with consumption or behaviour makes this saturation particularly concerning for children and young people.

GLOBAL ADVERTISING CROSSED NATIONAL LEGAL BOUNDARIES

FIFA's shared international match footage carried the same embedded advertising for each match to broadcasters around the world. Alcohol branding was shown in countries where alcohol advertising, or alcohol itself, was prohibited. Gambling branding reached countries where the promoted operator was not licensed or where commercial online gambling was illegal. Prediction market advertising also reached jurisdictions where providers faced legal uncertainty or lacked the required local licence.

Technology to avoid this issue already exists: UEFA had already used virtual board replacement technology at EURO 2024 to show different advertising in different countries. FIFA chose not to use this technology, which meant that promotion of products was shown in countries where their use, advertisement, or purchase is not legal.

104

ALL MATCHES

176.2

HOURS OF LIVE PLAY

93,409

HARMFUL LOGOS

POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

1 | Ensure live sport advertising is covered by marketing regulation

Governments should ensure that commercial branding and logos embedded within live sport are treated as advertising and covered by marketing regulations.

2 | Adopt an independent public interest standard

FIFA should use transparent, independently developed criteria when selecting commercial partners. These criteria should reflect regional legal and cultural requirements.

3 | Use technology to meet national requirements

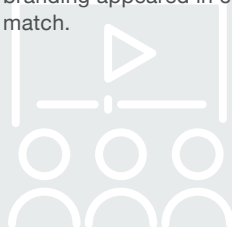
FIFA should use existing technology that allows the removing or replacing branding where products or services cannot lawfully be advertised or offered.

HEADLINE FINDINGS

93,409

HARMFUL COMMODITY LOGOS, ONE EVERY 6.7 SECONDS

We recorded 93,409 harmful commodity logos, equivalent to roughly one every seven seconds of live play. Harmful commodity branding appeared in every match.



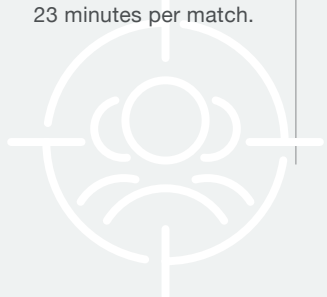
On average, viewers encountered nine logos for brands associated with health or financial harms during every minute of live play.



9

HARMFUL COMMODITY LOGOS PER MINUTE

At least one harmful commodity logo was visible for 39.3 hours of live play, averaging almost 23 minutes per match.



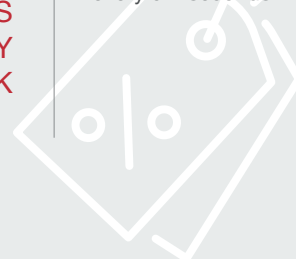
22.8%

OF LIVE PLAY CONTAINED HARMFUL COMMODITY ADS

70.4%

OF HARMFUL LOGOS PROMOTED UNHEALTHY FOOD AND DRINK

Unhealthy food and drink brands accounted for 65,722 logos, averaging 6.35 per minute, or one every 9.4 seconds.



FINDINGS

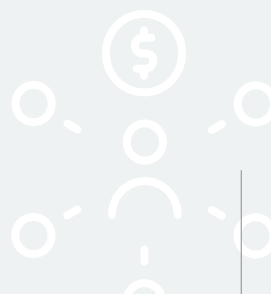
1.5

GAMBLING AND PREDICTION MARKET LOGOS PER MINUTE

Together, gambling and prediction market brands accounted for 15,789 logos, representing 16.9% of all harmful commodity logos.



We identified 9,360 prediction market logos and 8.8 hours of screen time, making this the second largest category.



10%

OF HARMFUL LOGOS PROMOTED PREDICTION MARKETS



All matches carried alcohol ads, with Michelob Ultra and Budweiser together accounting for 78.5% of the total alcohol logos.

9,266

HARMFUL LOGOS PROMOTED ALCOHOL BRANDS

267 BILLION

LOGO IMPRESSIONS IN THE UK ALONE



Harmful commodity logos were seen an estimated 267 billion times across UK broadcasts. Unhealthy food and drink brands accounted for 184.4 billion of these impressions.

2 | INTRO & BACKGROUND

International sporting tournaments draw significant global audiences. This is particularly true of the FIFA Men's World Cup, the pinnacle international tournament in men's professional football, which is consumed globally across multiple channels. According to FIFA (2023), the Men's World Cup 2022 engaged five billion fans across linear television, digital, social media, and FIFA platforms. The total engagement for the 2026 World Cup is projected to total six billion (Danziger, 2026). The 2026 edition of the Men's World Cup also presents an opportunity for even greater reach with the tournament expanded to 48 teams as opposed to 32 teams, resulting in an increase from 64 matches in 2022 to 104 matches in 2026.

The expansion of the World Cup represents an opportunity for the further commercialisation of the tournament, particularly for the tournament's sponsors. Sponsorship can be defined as "assistance either in cash or in kind to an activity by a commercial organisation for the purpose of achieving commercial objectives" (Meenaghan, 1983, p. 9). In practice, sponsorship may be portrayed as an alliance between a brand and a sponsored property (Cornwell & Kwon, 2020), such as the World Cup. Sports sponsorship allows brands to associate themselves with popular sporting properties, therefore potentially influencing consumers' perceptions of the sponsoring brand and helping the sponsor to gain legitimacy (Cliffe & Motion, 2005; Cornwell & Kwon, 2020; Cornwell, 2025). Previous research has found that sponsorship can increase congruence between consumers' perceptions of a sporting entity and the sponsoring brand (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Kwon et al., 2016). Other research carried out in a sporting context has found that sponsor image – specifically, sports fans' perceptions of sponsors – can have a positive effect on purchase intentions (Koronios et al., 2016).

Given the global audience of the Men's World Cup and the commercial benefits of sports sponsorship, commercial organisations are willing to invest substantial capital to become sponsors. Industry estimates suggest that sponsorship revenues for the 2026 Men's World Cup will total US\$2.4 billion (Sim, 2026). Sponsors seek to capitalise on this investment through sponsorship-linked marketing, or the development of marketing activities designed to communicate sponsorship agreements (Cornwell, 2008). Such marketing includes pitchside advertising which was reserved during the Men's World Cup 2026 for FIFA's official "Commercial Affiliates" (FIFA, 2026g).

Importantly, FIFA's Commercial Affiliates for the 2026 Men's World Cup included multiple brands from

'harmful commodity industries' or "corporations that produce and market products and services such as tobacco, alcohol, gambling and unhealthy foods and beverages" (McKevitt et al., 2023, p.1). The consumption of these harmful commodities plays a role in the development of noncommunicable diseases, with each harmful commodity carrying a distinct set of risks and harms. Unhealthy diets are a major preventable driver of noncommunicable diseases such as heart disease, stroke, cancer, and diabetes (WHO, 2025). A large Global Burden of Disease study estimated that in 2017 alone, 11 million deaths were attributable to poor diets (Murray, 2024). Alcohol consumption is another leading cause of noncommunicable diseases – such as cancer, liver disease, heart disease, as well as mental health conditions – and contributed to 2.6 million deaths globally in 2019 (WHO, 2024a). Gambling can lead to a variety of harms which may be financial, physical, emotional or social, while impacting not only the individual but also others such as families, friends and communities (Langham et al., 2016). The global scale of gambling-related harm remains difficult to quantify, yet research estimates that 5.5% of women and 11.9% of men experience any risk from gambling (Wardle et al., 2024).

Similar harms can be experienced through the trading of cryptocurrencies. Cryptocurrency trading is strongly associated with problem gambling severity (Moseby et al., 2026; Mills & Nower, 2019) and people who gamble harmfully are more likely than average to trade cryptocurrencies, suggesting the two attract overlapping populations (Andrade et al., 2026; Mosbey et al., 2026). Whilst currently less is known about the harms associated with prediction markets, they share structural characteristics (i.e., constant availability, high event frequency, ease-of-deposit) with online gambling (Johnson & Chan, 2026). Researchers and policy makers increasingly consider prediction markets as a form of gambling. Indeed, federal rulings in the US have also restricted prediction markets in some states due to their similarities with gambling (Schoenbaum, 2026), while the German gambling regulator forced ADI PredictStreet to restrict access to its platform in Germany due to it not holding a German gambling licence (Killeen, 2026). Despite their emerging status and the lack of relevant research or consistent regulation, concerns indicate that prediction markets form a 'harmful commodity'.

Previous research has demonstrated how football acts as a platform for the marketing of 'harmful commodities', both within international and domestic tournaments. Frequency analyses have explored the exposure of advertising of 'harmful commodities'

across a range of other football competitions (Purves et al., 2020; Torrance et al., 2023; Rossi et al., 2025; Singer et al., 2026). Specifically, research has found that the Men's World Cup provides a platform for sponsor brands of 'harmful commodities'. Ireland et al. (2024) explored the prevalence of advertising of unhealthy foods and beverages, alcohol and gambling in the UK broadcasting of eight matches of the 2018 Men's World Cup and found at least one unhealthy brand visible in 22.7% of the footage. Alfayad et al. (2022) explored the population exposure to alcohol and 'junk food' branding during 13 matches from the same tournament and estimated 10.8 billion alcohol and junk food impressions in the UK, including more than 1.2 billion delivered to children under 16. Collectively, this research highlights the platform provided by the Men's World Cup for 'harmful commodity' brand sponsors.

This research contributes to debate on whether the advertising of harmful commodities should be encouraged given the risks for audiences. Exposure to advertising may increase children's consumption of unhealthy food and beverages (Boyland et al., 2016), as well as the consumption of alcohol (Stautz et al., 2016). Previous research has found positive associations between exposure to alcohol sports sponsorship and increased consumption (Brown, 2016), while sports-related gambling advertising can be associated with increased gambling behaviour (McGrane et al., 2025). Advertising may also increase trust in cryptocurrency (Babu et al., 2024). There is, as of yet, no research linking exposure to prediction market-related advertising and participation in prediction markets. Nonetheless, the risks associated with harmful commodities and the possible links between exposure to advertising and consumption provide important context to the commercial arrangements surrounding the 2026 Men's World Cup. The Commercial Affiliates for the World Cup included brands from unhealthy commodity industries such as alcohol (e.g., Budweiser, Michelob Ultra, Diageo), gambling (Betano), cryptocurrency (Kraken), prediction markets (ADI PredictStreet) and unhealthy food and beverages (e.g., Coca-Cola, Lay's, McDonald's) (Sports Business Journal, 2025).

Importantly, these commercial affiliates obtain exposure through pitchside advertising incorporated into the live match coverage, which is produced as part of FIFA's centrally controlled world feed and distributed to individual broadcasters (e.g. BBC, ITV, ZDF) around the world (McLean, 2026). This brings complex implications for regulation. Indeed, the exclusivity of the live match feed transmitted by FIFA's host broadcaster means

that the sponsorship-related marketing of 'harmful commodity' sponsor brands that appears pitchside during live matches is exposed within jurisdictions where they may be illegal. This demonstrates the complexities associated with advertising regulations in relation to harmful commodities and appears to indicate FIFA's willingness to generate sponsorship revenue from harmful commodity industries despite some products being illegal in certain territories receiving the central broadcast feed.

Given the heightened commercialisation of the Men's World Cup, the possible risks of the exposure of sponsorship-related advertising of 'harmful commodities' to vast audiences, and the possible regulatory implications from the widescale advertising of some harmful commodities, there is a need to quantify the extent of their exposure during the live match feed that is transmitted across the world. There is also no extant research on the advertising of prediction markets. However, as previous research based on rigorous frequency analyses has found, the counting of brand logos can be labour-intensive, particularly where extra measures are required to mitigate for human error (Torrance et al., 2023; Rossi et al., 2025). With the Men's World Cup now expanded to 104 matches, this study carries out an AI-assisted frequency analysis, counting 'harmful commodity' sponsor-brand logos exposed during live match coverage. This approach is designed to increase the consistency and reliability of measurement across the 104 matches, therefore helping to establish the global minimum exposure of 'harmful commodity' advertising during the live action broadcast of the 2026 Men's World Cup. Additionally, this study builds on previous research (Alfayad et al., 2022) to explore the population exposure to harmful commodity advertising during the tournament's live action in the UK.



FOR THE FIRST TIME,
USING AI, WE COUNTED
EVERY LOGO IN EVERY
MATCH OF A WORLD CUP:
NINE LOGOS PER MINUTE!

3 | AIMS & RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This flagship study analyses harmful commodity advertising across every match of a FIFA Men's World Cup. We covered all 104 matches, more than all our previous studies combined. It focuses on advertising embedded within the live play footage supplied to broadcasters internationally. This provides a global picture of the advertising built into the tournament itself, rather than advertising added by individual broadcasters.

Our overall aim was to establish the scale and nature of harmful commodity marketing across the tournament. The study addressed three research questions:

1

How much harmful commodity advertising appeared during the tournament?

We measure the prevalence of advertising from harmful commodity brands shown during the 104 live broadcasts of the 2026 Men's World Cup, including number of logos, how long they remained visible on-screen, and statistical comparisons between the five harmful commodity categories.

2

How were harmful commodities promoted during the tournament?

We take a deep dive into each harmful commodity category, examining the brands and products advertised, notable marketing patterns and the policy issues raised.

3

How large was the potential population exposure?

We use UK viewing figures as a case study to estimate how much harmful commodity advertising UK viewers could have been exposed to. This analysis is specific to the UK and is separate from the global analysis of the shared live play footage.

4 | METHODS

STUDY DESIGN AND OVERVIEW

Over the years, our research team has carried out various studies of harmful commodity marketing in televised sports across a number of countries including Canada, the US, Germany and the UK - all using manual frequency analysis (Rossi et al., 2023, 2024b, 2025; Torrance et al., 2023; Wheaton et al., 2025; Singer et al., 2026). Together, these studies helped us build and refine a detailed knowledge base whilst creating a large, robust and unique dataset of hundreds of hours of manually coded footage. But manual analysis has a clear practical limit: coding every logo manually takes a great deal of time (and thus, financial resources), making it difficult to cover more than a handful of matches. For example, counting all ads in one hour of live play of match footage takes a trained research assistant around 4-6 hours to analyse manually.

Recent developments in artificial intelligence (AI) have offered a way past this limit. Rather than coding every appearance by hand, we used computer vision: the model was trained on human-coded examples of harmful commodity advertising and then identified them in unseen footage automatically. We then validated the model against new footage coded independently by human researchers. This allowed us, for the first time ever, to analyse all 104 matches in a FIFA Men's World Cup, resulting in an analysis of 172.6 hours of footage, more footage than all our previous studies combined.

The scale of the analysis was not the only new contribution. This study also takes a global perspective. Our main analysis focuses on live play, including added time, extra time and penalty shootouts, excluding the periods before kick-off, hydration breaks, half-time and after the final whistle. Our understanding is that, during live play, broadcasters around the world received the same centrally produced international match footage from FIFA. Viewers in different countries therefore saw the same match footage and the same marketing (especially in the stadium structure) embedded within it. To check this, members of the research team spot-checked live play from matches broadcast in France, Germany and Iran, and confirmed the in-stadium advertising matched our UK recordings.

The following sections explain how we selected the footage, identified and categorised brands, developed and tested the AI model, and measured exposure. We then describe the three analyses used to examine overall prevalence, differences between harmful commodities and potential population exposure in the UK.

BROADCAST FOOTAGE AND ANALYSED PERIODS

We recorded all 104 matches of the FIFA World Cup

2026, broadcast between 11 June and 19 July 2026. In the UK, the BBC broadcast 54 matches and ITV broadcast 51, with the final shown by both. After removing the duplicate recording of the final, our dataset contained all 104 matches. We recorded the matches via Box of Broadcasts, an on-demand service for the UK education sector, that formed the basis for the analysis.

Our analysis (see details on the AI computer vision model below) focused on the live play. FIFA controls the venue advertising included in the shared match footage (FIFA, 2026g). Focusing on live play therefore allowed us to measure marketing built into the tournament and shown internationally, the exposure any global viewer received. Live play is also the most watched part of the broadcast and the focus of a growing number of marketing restrictions (Marionneau et al., 2026).

We used FFmpeg to extract one frame per second from each recording (e.g. 60 frames per minute or 5,400 frames for 90 minutes). As camera shots in football broadcasts last approximately nine seconds on average, this sampling rate was unlikely to miss logos visible for a meaningful length of time (Deliège et al., 2021).

In total, the 104 raw broadcast recordings covered 13,495.6 minutes, or 224.9 hours. We read each recording's match clock using text detection tools to retain live play only, excluding half-time, hydration breaks and other periods when broadcasters could show different content. This left 10,353.4 minutes, or 172.6 hours, of live-play footage for the main analysis.

WHAT WE COUNTED AND HOW WE CATEGORISED IT

As mentioned earlier, in this study, we focused on marketing by harmful commodity brands. Following Ireland et al. (2024), we classified a brand as harmful if the brand's core product has health harms at the population level. These were: alcohol, gambling, crypto currencies, prediction markets, and unhealthy food and beverages. These categories and the rules used to identify advertising were developed and refined through previous work (e.g. Purves et al., 2017; Torrance et al., 2023; Ireland et al., 2024; Rossi et al., 2025).

To identify which brands advertised during the live games of the World Cup, we created a list of brands that was based on what actually appeared during the games, rather than FIFA's published list of sponsors. We built and extended the list in various ways, including by recording logos noticed by multiple researchers whilst watching the game, as well as using EasyOCR (an automated text detection tool) to search the footage for further brand names.

To account for potential variation of marketing across the tournament (e.g. that some brands were only visible at the group stage; or that some brands had agreements only in certain stadia), we repeated this process using random matches from the group stage through to the final. The research team then reviewed the resulting list, confirmed the identity of each brand and assigned it to a product category.

Next, to decide whether brands should be classified as harmful (and therefore to be included in our study), we categorised them according to their core products. To determine a food/beverage brand's core product (according to which the brand would be classified as healthy/unhealthy) we consulted sales reports where available or used the most prominent products on brands' own websites. For example, for McDonald's, the core products are burgers and fries – this is evident from their website. We defined products (and accordingly the brand) as unhealthy if they do not pass the WHO's regional nutrient profiling model for Europe (WHO, 2023a). Alcohol, gambling, cryptocurrency and prediction market brands were included on the basis of their product category alone, since the harms are established at product level and no further assessment was needed. On the rationale behind decisions to code individual brands as 'unhealthy' or 'not unhealthy'. (Request the [technical appendix](#) from the team.)

Products sharing the identity of a parent brand were placed in the parent brand's category, even when the product being promoted was a reduced or reformulated version. For example, Budweiser 0.0 and Michelob Ultra Zero were categorised as alcohol marketing, while Coca-Cola Zero Sugar was categorised as unhealthy food and beverage marketing. These variants were also identified separately so that their use could be examined. Indeed, promoting such variants can serve a strategic purpose. For example, alcohol brands are increasingly marketing non-alcoholic variants that share the identity of the parent brand to maintain brand positioning in jurisdictions where alcohol advertising is restricted, and young audiences cannot reliably distinguish these from full-strength product advertising (Purves et al., 2026).

DEVELOPING THE AI LOGO DETECTION MODEL

At this point, we had collected the live-play footage to be analysed and built a list of the harmful commodity brands appearing within it. The next step was to find these brands' marketing across all 104 matches.

There are two main computer vision approaches to identifying brands in broadcast footage. The first uses text recognition, in which the model searches the extracted frames for brand names as text. This works well when logos are large, clear, shown face-on and

written in plain text. However, football broadcasts are more challenging. The camera moves quickly, while logos may be small, stylised, partly hidden, shown at an angle or written using non-Latin characters (Chen et al., 2021). Therefore, we chose object detection and in particular the YOLO family detectors, which have been shown to perform well under these conditions (Paleček and Chaloupka, 2021; Jocher and Qiu, 2024). Rather than searching for plain text, an object detection model is trained on labelled examples of each logo until it can identify them in unseen footage.

We used Ultralytics YOLO11s with PyTorch, while the labelled frames used to train the model were managed in Roboflow. Model training and application were carried out using the University of Bristol's high-performance computing facility. For every logo it identified, the model recorded which brand it belonged to, the match and second at which it appeared, how long it remained visible, and how many copies of that brand were on screen at the same time.

Once we had identified the logos within scope, we needed examples showing how each logo appeared under different broadcast conditions. This was the purpose of selecting frames for the training dataset. We began by choosing matches at random and extracting one frame every 20 seconds. We then used automated text recognition to locate more appearances of the identified brands across the tournament. Researchers also recorded the match and time when they saw a known logo presented in a way not yet captured well in the training data, for example when it was small, angled or partly obscured. This process also provided a further check for brands that had been overlooked. Every logo that belonged to a harmful product was labelled, sometimes multiple logos in a frame, and classes of brands were built from a large number of fixtures. Those logos outside the scope were left unlabelled as negative examples for training the model, so the model learned to distinguish them from the brands we were counting.

The final model contained 41 detector classes (27 brands, since some brands were detected in more than one form) and used 7,590 labelled and negative frames. 70% of these frames were used to train the model, 20% to validate, and 10% to test its performance on unseen images. The model was trained for a maximum of 150 rounds, with training ending early if its performance did not improve for 50 rounds. We also used a fixed random seed to make the process reproducible.

The final model achieved a mean average precision score of 0.975 (mAP@50). This is a standard measure of how accurately an object-detection model locates and identifies objects. However, we did not rely on this overall score alone. An earlier version of the model achieved a slightly higher score of 0.976, despite missing some large and clearly visible logos. This

showed that a strong overall score could still hide problems affecting individual brands.

We therefore visually inspected random samples of the model's results and added further labelled and negative examples where necessary. Using this visual inspection, we also set a separate confidence threshold for each brand, ranging from 0.25 to 0.80. This reflected the fact that some logos were easier to identify reliably than others. Additional rules removed small geometric fragments, required supporting evidence for rare brands, corrected some brand identities when related logos appeared together, and excluded interview backdrops from the live-play analysis. For full details of these thresholds and processing rules please request the [technical appendix](#) from the team.

TESTING THE AI MODEL AGAINST HUMAN CODERS

Our AI model's codebook was built using the manually coded data, coding rules and practical knowledge accumulated through our previous studies (e.g. Rossi et al., 2023, 2024a, 2024b, 2025; Wheaton et al., 2025). We also trained it using examples from the World Cup footage so that it could recognise the identified brands across different stadiums, camera angles and broadcast conditions. However, a model can perform well on the footage used to develop it and less well on new footage. We therefore tested how closely the model reproduced human judgement when analysing footage that it had not encountered during training.

To do so, we selected ten minutes from each of ten matches, giving a total of 100 minutes. The sample included different broadcasters, stadiums, times of day and camera angles. Two researchers coded the footage manually using the same definitions and categorisation rules applied by the model. Agreement statistics were calculated in Python using SciPy and scikit-learn. Agreement between the two researchers was very high. Krippendorff's alpha was 0.982 for duration. On the number of logos and the number of instances the two coders agreed exactly (alpha = 1.000), as did their identification of the same instances (F1 = 1.000). These ceiling values should be read with caution: the single entry on which the coders disagreed about whether an instance existed at all was for a brand subsequently excluded from the study, so on the final brand set the two codings differ only in four one-second duration calls. The duration alpha of 0.982 is the more informative figure. Nine of the ten windows were single-coded.

We then ran the AI model on the same 100 minutes of footage and compared its results with the manual coding. The model achieved a recall of 0.939, meaning that it identified most of the logos found by the researchers. Its precision was 0.836, and it

also recorded some logos that the researchers had not. Its overall F1 score was 0.885. The model rarely confused one brand with another, although it recorded more additional logos than it missed. Some of these additional detections may have been logos overlooked by the human coders.

When the model and researchers identified the same instance, their measurements were almost identical. Krippendorff's alpha was 0.978 for the maximum number of identical logos visible and 0.999 for duration. Bland-Altman analysis found no systematic difference between the model and human measurements. However, the model under counted slightly when many identical logos were visible at the same time (slope = -0.023, $p = 0.008$). Estimates from footage containing particularly large numbers of logos may therefore be conservative.

HOW WE MEASURED ADVERTISING PREVALENCE

In line with previous research, we counted every visible representation of an included brand, whether it appeared as a brand logo, standalone symbol or written brand name. For simplicity, we refer to all of these as logos or ads throughout the report. First, we counted **instances**, meaning the number of separate times each brand appeared. Second, we counted the **number of logos**, calculated using the maximum number of identical logos visible during each instance. This distinguishes between a logo appearing once across 20 advertising boards and a logo appearing across 20 separate instances (e.g. different camera shots). Third, we measured **duration**, meaning the total time each brand was visible on screen. Together, these measures capture how often brands appeared, how many logos viewers saw and how long they were exposed to them. All three measures were calculated using the global live-play footage.

For the UK viewership analysis, we combined these results with UK audience figures to estimate potential population exposure. The UK figures also exclude advertising shown during commercial breaks. Our measures assume a logo held in place across successive frames, as on a pitchside board. Television advertisements are edited, animated and cut between shots, so instances and durations measured within them would not be comparable with the pitchside figures, and combining the two would produce a misleading total.

ANALYTICAL APPROACH

Our statistical analysis had three main components:

1 | Prevalence of harmful commodity advertising

First, we described the overall prevalence of harmful commodity advertising during live play. We report the number of instances, number of logos and total duration for each product category and brand. Raw totals show the full scale of logos viewers are exposed to across the tournament.

2 | Statistical differences between harmful commodity categories

Next, we compare statistically how ad prevalence (number and duration of logos) differed across the five harmful commodities: alcohol, gambling, cryptocurrencies, prediction markets, and unhealthy food and beverages. For this, we used statistical models (i.e., Poisson models for numbers of logos and linear models for durations of logos) to compare how often, and for how long, marketing messages from different harmful commodities appeared during matches. Again, we restricted the analyses to only live-play. Because matches varied slightly in length, all results were standardised to a 90-minute match so that comparisons were fair. We also carried out additional analyses to make sure that the findings were not being driven by similarities between observations from the same match, or by the stage of the tournament (i.e., sensitivity analyses using mixed-effects models and adjustment for tournament stage). Where we made multiple comparisons between harmful commodities, the statistical significance of these comparisons was adjusted to reduce the chance of false-positive findings

(i.e., p values were adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure). For more details on analyses used, please request the [technical appendix](#) from the team.

3 | UK viewership and population exposure

Finally, we used the UK as an example to estimate the potential scale of population exposure via the ads found in Part 1. Viewership data were available for 53 matches from Barb (<https://www.barb.co.uk/>). Barb measures identified viewing across television broadcasts, video-on-demand services and video-sharing platforms in the UK, combining population-based panel data with device-based data for online viewing. These matches were among the most-watched 50 programmes across all channels and broadcasters for that week.

For each harmful commodity, we estimated gross impressions by multiplying the frequency and duration of marketing messages for each match by the total UK viewership number for that match. This allowed us to estimate both the total number of times viewers may have been exposed to harmful commodity marketing messages, and the total amount of minutes the harmful commodity marketing messages were potentially seen across the UK. These estimates use the live-play figures reported above, so they capture UK exposure to the shared international feed rather than to the full broadcast, which also includes half-time and the periods either side of the match. Advertising shown during commercial breaks is excluded throughout.

5 | FINDINGS

The findings first establish the overall scale and composition of harmful commodity advertising across the tournament. We then examine the individual product categories and the brands that drove this exposure. Finally, we use UK viewing figures to illustrate the potential scale of population exposure in one national market.

PART 1: PREVALENCE OF HARMFUL COMMODITY ADVERTISING

Across all 104 matches, we identified 93,409 logos from harmful commodity brands across 23,380 separate instances. A single instance could contain more than one logo from the same brand, for example when a pitchside board displayed the same logo several times at once. This equated to an average of 9.02 harmful commodity brand logos for every minute of live play. Indeed, advertising from harmful commodity brands was present in every match. The number of logos ranged from 6.17 to 15.68 per minute of live play across the 104 matches. See Table 1 for more details.

We also measured how long these logos remained visible. When we added together the screen time for each brand, we recorded 51.7 hours of harmful commodity advertising, equivalent to 30% of the 172.6 hours of live play analysed. However, several brands could be visible at the same time. We therefore also calculated how much footage contained at least one harmful commodity logo. At least one was visible for 39.3 hours, or 22.8% of live play. The two measures differ because the first adds together the screen time of every brand, while the second counts each second of footage only once.

Most of the advertising came from unhealthy food and beverage brands. We identified 65,722 logos in this

Table 1. Prevalence of harmful commodity brand advertising during live play across all 104 World Cup matches.

Product category	Number of different brands	Total number of instances	Total number of logos	Share of all harmful commodity logos identified	Total screen time of logos for harmful brands	Logo screen time as % of the total World Cup live play
Unhealthy food and beverages	9	12,426	65,722	70.4%	28.1h	16.3%
Prediction markets	3	4,341	9,360	10.0%	8.8h	5.2%
Alcohol	9	3,621	9,266	9.9%	8.2h	4.8%
Gambling	5	2,002	6,429	6.9%	4.2h	2.4%
Cryptocurrencies	1	990	2,632	2.8%	2.4h	1.4%
Total	27	23,380	93,409	100%	51.7h	30.1%

category, accounting for 70.4% of all harmful commodity logos. Their combined screen time was 28.1 hours, equivalent to 16.3% of all live play. Prediction markets were the second-largest category, with 9,360 logos and 8.8 hours of screen time, equivalent to 5.2% of live play. Alcohol accounted for 9,266 logos and 8.2 hours of screen time, equivalent to 4.8% of live play. We identified 6,429 gambling logos, with 4.2 hours of screen time, and 2,632 cryptocurrency logos, with 2.4 hours of screen time.

A small number of brands accounted for most of this exposure. Coca-Cola had the highest number, with 21,893 logos, followed by McDonald's with 13,915, Powerade with 12,777, and Lay's with 12,087. Together, these four brands accounted for 65.0% of all harmful commodity logos. This order changed when we looked at screen time of individual brands. McDonald's had the longest total screen time, accounting for 19% of all logo screen time. ADI PredictStreet was the second longest advertised brand, accounting for 13.9%, followed by Coca-Cola at 12.3%. This shows why we measured both the number of logos and how long they remained visible.

Whilst viewers in every country saw the same feed for each match, the advertising changed across the tournament. Pitchside advertising differed between matches played in the United States, Canada and Mexico, with the clearest

differences seen in Mexico. Some brands also appeared only during the knockout rounds. A viewer's overall exposure therefore depended on which matches they watched.

Comparing product categories on a common 90-minute basis

The variation between matches is important when interpreting the tournament totals. The figures in the table above show exactly how much advertising we recorded across all 104 matches, but they do not show whether the differences between product categories were consistent across the tournament or influenced by the particular matches in which the branding was shown. Matches also differed slightly in their duration of live play.

We therefore carried out an analysis using statistical models. This analysis used the same complete set of 104 matches. It did not estimate advertising for matches that we had not analysed. Instead, it placed the observed number of logos and their screen time on a common 90-minute basis and tested whether the differences between product categories remained after accounting for variation between matches and stages of the tournament. The model therefore provides a like for like statistical comparison that complements, rather than replaces, the tournament totals presented in Table 1.

On this common basis, the model estimated 576 unhealthy food and beverage logos per 90 minutes of live play (see Figure 1). This compared with 82 prediction market logos, 81 alcohol logos, 56 gambling logos and 23 cryptocurrency logos. Unhealthy food and beverage logos were therefore recorded around seven times as often as alcohol or prediction market logos, ten times as often as gambling logos and almost 25 times as often as cryptocurrency logos (all Benjamini-Hochberg, BH-adjusted $p < .001$).

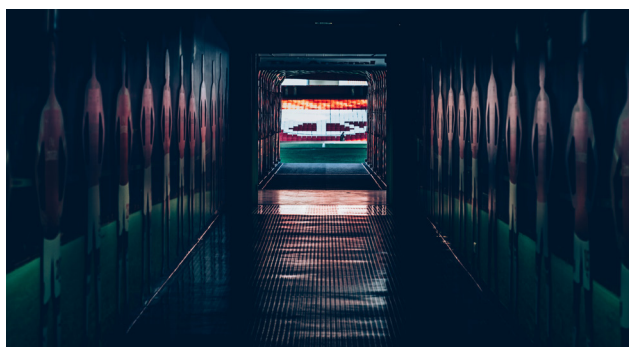
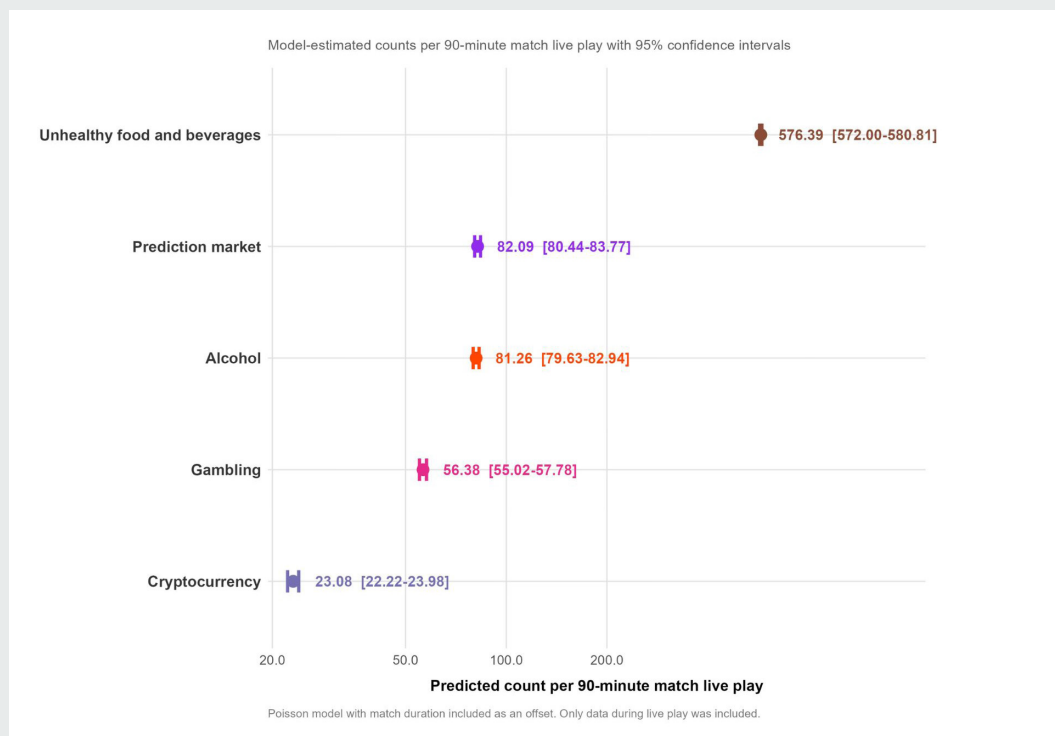
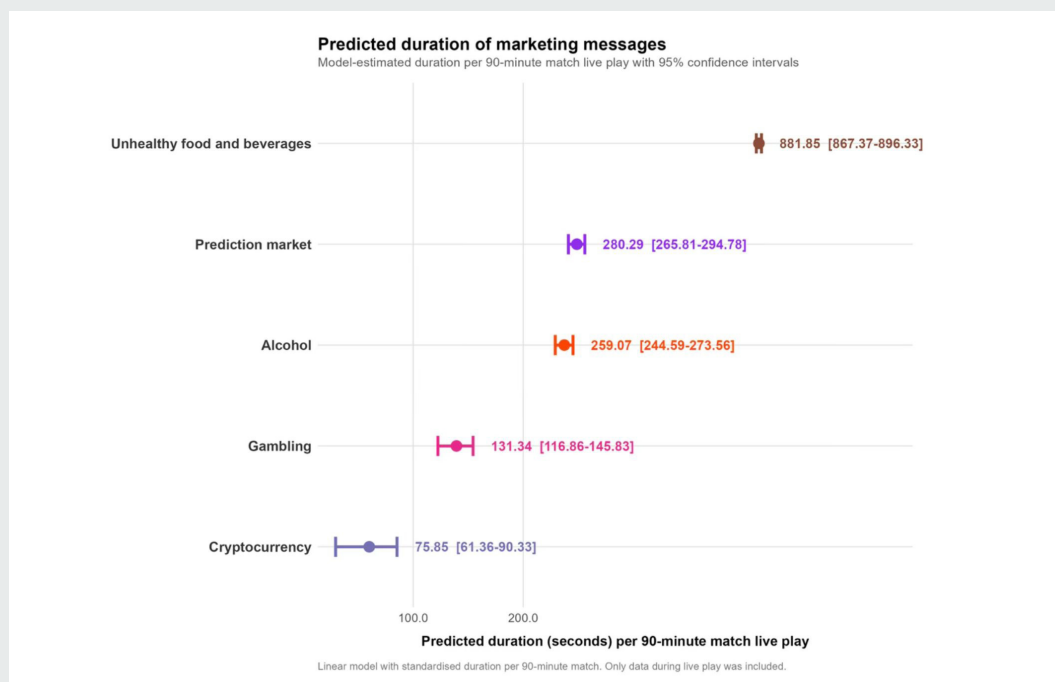


Figure 1. Modelled number of logos per 90 minutes of live play, based on all 104 matches

Unhealthy food and beverage advertising was also visible for far longer than any other harmful commodity. Our model showed that, during a typical 90-minute match, these logos were visible for an estimated 882 seconds, or almost 15 minutes in total (see Figure 2). In other words, more than 16% of the average match footage contained unhealthy food or beverage advertising messages. By comparison, prediction market messages were visible for around 280 seconds (just under five minutes), alcohol messages for 259 seconds (just over four minutes), gambling messages for 131 seconds (just over two minutes), and cryptocurrency messages for 76 seconds (just over one minute per 90-minute broadcast).

Figure 2. Modelled logo screen time per 90 minutes of live play, based on all 104 matches

This means unhealthy food and beverage advertising was visible for around 10 minutes longer than prediction market or alcohol advertising, and about 13 minutes longer than gambling advertising and cryptocurrency advertising per 90-minute match. These differences were statistically significant (all BH-adjusted $p < .001$), and this pattern remained even after taking account of differences between matches and tournament stages.

PART 2: A DEEP DIVE INTO EACH HARMFUL COMMODITY CATEGORY

Unhealthy food and beverages: Dominating the advertising space

Unhealthy food and drink dominated the advertising we recorded, accounting for 70.4% of all harmful commodity logos, and the four most advertised brands in the tournament.

For viewers, this amounted to a constant bombardment of unhealthy food and drink marketing. We recorded an average of 6.35 logos for every minute of live play, equivalent to one logo every 9.4 seconds. This advertising was built directly into the match footage. Viewers could not avoid it by skipping an advertising break without also missing the game.



Figure 3. An example of a FIFA World Cup match, showing 31 Coca-Cola logos in one shot.

Repeatedly connecting unhealthy food and drink brands with football, excitement and national identity can make these brands familiar and normalise their consumption. This is especially concerning for children watching the World Cup. The World Health Organization concludes that food marketing influences children's food choices, dietary intake, purchase requests and expectations about food (WHO, 2023b).

The advertising shown ranged from company logos (see Figure 3) to recognisable products, including McDonald's Big Mac and Lay's crisps packages. Reformulated products were also promoted. Coca-Cola Zero Sugar accounted for 3,550 logos. This reformulated product may be seen as less harmful (while still categorised as unhealthy under the WHO Europe Nutrient Profile Model (WHO, 2023a)) but such products continue to promote the identity of the unhealthy parent brand and it is not clear if consumers' associations with a reformulated product can be strictly separated from associations with the parent brand.

Prediction markets: high exposure despite legal uncertainty

Prediction markets were the second-largest category in our analysis. We identified 9,360 logos, accounting for 10% of all logos of harmful brands. Their combined screen time was almost 9 hours, equivalent to 5.2% of live play.

Most of this advertising came from ADI PredictStreet (see Figure 4), FIFA's first official prediction market partner (FIFA, 2026a). ADI PredictStreet appeared in every match and accounted for 7,384 logos, or 78.9% of prediction market advertising. Kalshi accounted for 1,582 logos across 41 matches, while Fanatics Markets accounted for 394 logos across 39 matches.

Our findings are particularly important because the legal status of prediction markets remains unclear and differs between countries. During the World Cup, European gambling regulators warned that prediction markets are associated



Figure 4. An example of a FIFA World Cup match, showing six ADI PredictStreet logos in one shot.

with addiction, fraud, insider information and limited consumer safeguards (Gambling Regulators of Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Spain and Switzerland, 2026).

In Germany, ADI PredictStreet blocked access to its platform after intervention by the gambling regulator because it did not hold a German licence. Yet German viewers continued to see its branding within the shared World Cup footage (Killeen, 2026). In the US, a federal judge recently ruled that Utah could enforce its gambling laws against prediction market company Kalshi. Utah's Attorney General responded that "Gambling is gambling, no matter what any company calls it" (Schoenbaum, 2026).

The presence of Kalshi and Fanatics Markets, that appeared as partnerships with ADI on the hoardings, reflects ADI PredictStreet's reliance on established partners. Its chief executive described Fanatics as a brand that fans already "know and trust" (Fanatics, 2026). We believe that these collaborations are used to help ADI PredictStreet to build recognition and connect its new brand with established sports audiences across different markets.

Kalshi's logos appeared almost entirely in the knockout rounds. They were shown in all 32 knockout matches and in only nine of the 72 group-stage matches. Fanatics Markets, the other partner brand appearing alongside ADI PredictStreet, showed no such pattern, so the two partnerships were structured differently.

Alcohol: branding across legal and cultural boundaries

Our analysis identified 9,266 alcohol logos, accounting for 9.9% of logos of harmful brands. Their combined screen time was 8.2 hours, equivalent to 4.8% of live play. Michelob Ultra dominated, accounting for 5,038 logos, or 54.4% of alcohol advertising, and appearing in every match. Budweiser accounted for another 2,237 logos, or 24.1%. Together, these two brands accounted for 78.5% of all alcohol logos.

Zero-alcohol branding accounted for 10.3% of all count and 9.4% of all duration of alcohol advertising messages. There were two zero-alcohol brands, Budweiser 0.0 and Michelob Ultra Zero, recorded. Michelob Ultra Zero (see Figure 5) appeared in 67 matches and accounted for 598 logos and Budweiser 0.0 appeared in 6 matches and accounted for 359 logos. The 0.0 mark appeared in only six matches, all in the United States and all between 16 and 23 June. Five of the six carried it on every instance and one was mixed, suggesting the choice was made per fixture rather than per board. No match played in Mexico carried Budweiser advertising at all.

Brand-sharing advertising, where a zero-alcohol or low-alcohol version (e.g., Michelob Ultra Zero) of an alcohol product (e.g., Michelob Ultra) is advertised, can keep the parent alcohol brand (e.g., Michelob Ultra) visible and can allow



Figure 5. An example of a FIFA World Cup match, showing eight Michelob Ultra Zero logos around two different structures in the stadium.

alcohol companies to maintain their presence where alcohol advertising would otherwise be restricted (Critchlow et al., 2023).

For consumers, brand-sharing zero-alcohol adverts might not be different from alcohol adverts. In a study of UK regular alcohol consumers, 44% of participants who were exposed to brand-sharing alcohol-free adverts reported seeing an advert for the alcoholic version of the product (Jia et al., 2026). In another study, young people were more likely to associate brand-sharing zero-alcohol adverts with alcohol, compared with soft drinks adverts (Bartram et al., 2025). Meanwhile, young people also recognise such brand-sharing advertising as marketing for alcohol (Purves et al., 2026).

The global reach of alcohol advertising via the FIFA broadcast is concerning because it allowed advertising to cross national legal and cultural boundaries. First, in addition to several countries (such as Scotland, South Africa, Australia) currently considering tighter restrictions on alcohol marketing and sports sponsorship, multiple countries have done so already. Norway has maintained a complete ban on alcohol marketing since 1975 (Rossow, 2021). France's Loi Évin prohibits alcohol marketing and sports sponsorship (Friant-Perrot & Garde, 2022), whilst Ireland prohibits alcohol advertising in or on a sports area during sports events (Government of Ireland, 2018). Nevertheless, the shared World Cup footage carried alcohol brand advertising across these national restrictions. Brand-shared zero-alcohol advertising (e.g. Budweiser 0.0) adds another layer of complexity, raising questions about whether such advertising should be explicitly covered by these restrictions.

Second, some countries legally prohibit alcohol itself, often for religious or cultural reasons. WHO lists ten countries with a total ban on alcoholic beverages: Afghanistan, Brunei Darussalam, Iran, Libya, Maldives, Mauritania, Saudi Arabia, Somalia, Sudan and Yemen (WHO, 2024b, p. 164). FIFA's official list of World Cup media partners shows that all ten countries were covered by television rights arrangements for the tournament (FIFA, 2026f). The shared footage therefore carried alcohol advertising not only into countries where its marketing was restricted, but also into countries where WHO records the advertised product itself as prohibited.

Gambling: global exposure beyond national legislation

Our analysis counted 6,429 gambling logos, accounting for 6.9% of logos of harmful brands. Their combined screen time was 4.2 hours, equivalent to 2.4% of live play. Betano dominated this category (see Figure 6), appearing in every match and accounting for 5,859 logos, or 91.1% of all gambling advertising. The remaining logos came from Caliente, Matchbook, Winner. mx and Confia. This level of exposure adds to wider evidence showing how heavily football is saturated with gambling marketing (e.g. Rossi et al., 2025).



Figure 6. An example of a FIFA World Cup match, showing 18 Betano logos in one shot.

Our findings also highlight a global regulatory challenge. Betano was FIFA's official tournament sponsor for Europe and South America (FIFA, 2026b). However, its logos were embedded within the shared match footage and were therefore shown internationally. FIFA reported broadcast agreements covering over 220 territories, while Betano states that it operates in 20 markets (FIFA, 2026e; Kaizen Gaming, 2026). Although markets and broadcast territories are not perfectly equivalent, this means that Betano's branding potentially reached up to 200 territories beyond the company's stated operating footprint.

From the perspective of these territories (many of which are member-states of FIFA), viewers were therefore exposed to marketing for an operator that was not locally licensed at best and, in countries where commercial online gambling is prohibited, marketing for an illegal product at worst. This included countries such as China and Qatar (Embassy of the People's Republic of China, 2026; State of Qatar, 2004). This does not suggest that Betano accepted bets illegally in these countries. It shows that its marketing crossed borders without regard to whether the promoted product was locally licensed, available or legal.

Crucially, this cross-border exposure to a gambling brand that is not licensed in the majority of countries receiving the live-feed was avoidable. The technology to prevent it already existed. During UEFA EURO 2024, virtual board replacement technology allowed sponsors to display different pitchside advertising to viewers in Germany, China and the US (UEFA, 2024). The same technology could have removed or replaced Betano branding in territories where the operator was not licensed, did not operate, or where gambling advertising was prohibited.

Cryptocurrencies

Cryptocurrency was the smallest category in our analysis. We identified 2,632 cryptocurrency logos, accounting for 2.8% of all harmful commodity logos. Their combined screen time was 2.4 hours, equivalent to 1.4% of live play. All came from Kraken, which appeared in every match. FIFA appointed Kraken as its official crypto exchange supporter for North America and Europe (FIFA, 2026d). However, because the branding appeared within the shared match footage, it was shown to viewers internationally.

Cryptocurrency trading is usually presented as investing rather than gambling. However, it shares several gambling-like characteristics, including highly volatile and uncertain outcomes, round the clock access and opportunities for rapid, repeated trading (Delfabbro et al., 2021). Some traders also report behaviours associated with gambling harm, such as chasing losses and trading compulsively. Andrade and Newall describe cryptocurrency as a "gamblified" financial asset, while studies have found associations between problem gambling and more frequent or intensive cryptocurrency trading (Andrade and Newall, 2023; Mills and Nower, 2019).

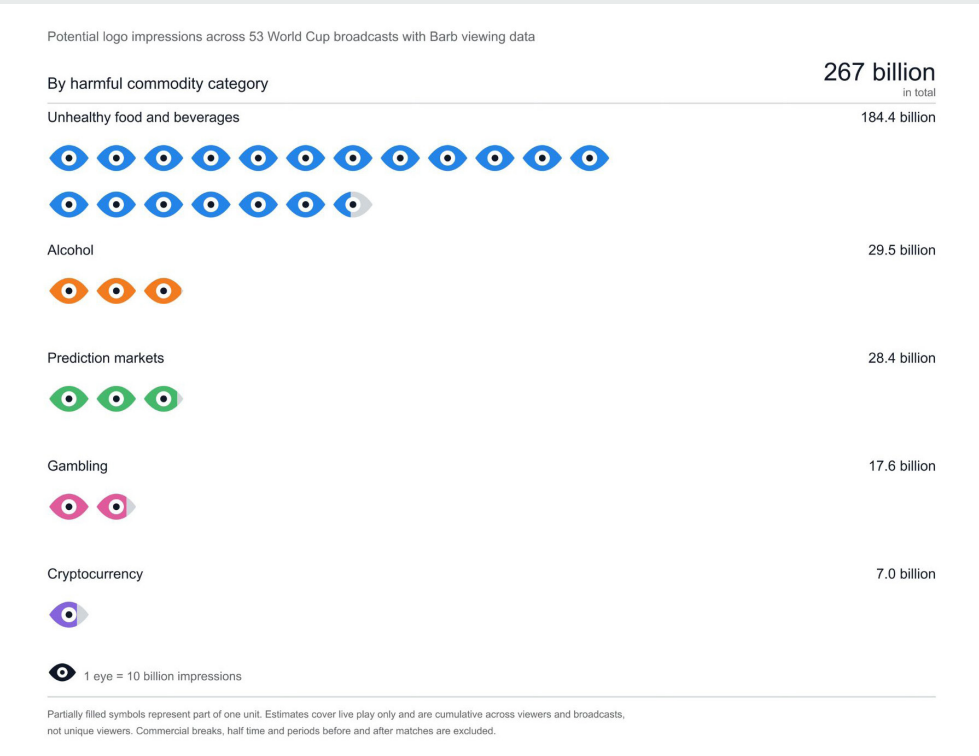
PART 3: UK VIEWERSHIP AND POPULATION EXPOSURE

As mentioned earlier, the FIFA World Cup tends to attract a substantial global audience. FIFA projected that approximately six billion people would engage with the 2026 tournament across television, streaming, digital and social media platforms (Danziger, 2026). However, this is a broad engagement projection rather than reliable match-by-match viewing data. Whilst no global, reliable viewership data is available, we used robust UK audience data from Barb to estimate the potential gross impressions generated by the harmful commodity logos we identified. Viewing figures were available for 53 broadcasts, allowing us to combine the audience for each broadcast with the advertising recorded during that match and estimate potential population exposure in the UK.

For each match with available viewership figures, we multiplied the number of harmful commodity logos by its UK audience to estimate gross logo impressions. We also multiplied the time for which the logos were visible by the audience to estimate viewer-hours. These estimates capture potential UK exposure during live play in the shared international feed. They exclude advertising shown during commercial breaks, half-time and the periods before and after the match.

Across the 53 broadcasts, harmful commodity advertising generated an estimated 267 billion gross logo impressions (see Figure 7). This represents potential logo exposures accumulated across all viewers and broadcasts, rather than 267 billion individual viewers. Unhealthy food and beverage advertising accounted for around 184.4 billion gross impressions. This was followed by alcohol at 29.5 billion, prediction markets at 28.4 billion, gambling at 17.6 billion and cryptocurrency at 7.0 billion.

Figure 7. Gross impressions of harmful commodities to UK viewership



When measured by time visible on screen, unhealthy food and beverage advertising accounted for an estimated 77.3 million viewer-hours of exposure across the 53 broadcasts. In comparison, prediction markets messages were visible for 27.3 million viewer-hours, alcohol for 22.3 million, gambling for 11.4 million and cryptocurrency for 6.7 million viewer-hours across 53 broadcasts. Because viewership likely differs strongly between different matches it was not possible to safely extrapolate these numbers to population exposure across the entire tournament.

6 | DISCUSSION & POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

This research – through novel, AI-assisted methods – has shown that advertising for products associated with health and financial harms was deeply embedded throughout the 2026 World Cup. Across all 104 matches, we recorded 93,409 harmful commodity brand logos, equivalent to around nine logos per minute of live play. At least one was visible during 39.3 hours of live play, equivalent to 22.8% of the total tournament footage. These findings highlight two key areas of discussion, specifically the implications of harmful commodity advertising during the World Cup, in addition to the broader commercialisation of the World Cup itself.

First, our findings demonstrate that the Men's World Cup provides a global platform through which harmful commodities are advertised, adding to the evidence base generated by previous research (Alfayad et al., 2022; Ireland et al., 2024). Harmful commodity advertising was pervasive throughout the tournament and embedded directly within live play, leaving viewers with no practical way to avoid it. Most of this advertising promoted unhealthy food and beverage brands, despite unhealthy diets being a major preventable driver of noncommunicable diseases, the world's leading cause of death and disability (WHO, 2025; Murray, 2024). Other ads promoted alcohol, the consumption of which contributes to cancer, liver disease, heart disease and mental health conditions, and caused an estimated 2.6 million deaths globally in 2019 (WHO, 2024a). Gambling (including gambling-like products such as prediction markets) can cause serious financial,

physical, emotional and social harms (Langham et al., 2016), while similar harms have been associated with cryptocurrency trading (Mosbey et al., 2026; Mills & Nower, 2019). and promotion of all three was frequently visible during the FIFA world cup broadcast. Evidence linking exposure to unhealthy food, alcohol and gambling advertising with consumption or behaviour makes this omnipresence especially concerning for children and young people (Boyland et al., 2016; Stautz et al., 2016; McGrane et al., 2025). Our findings also provide the first evidence base of prediction markets-based advertising, a product that shares structural characteristics with gambling (Johnson & Chan, 2026).

The findings also highlight the tensions of FIFA's approach to the commercialisation of the World Cup, and the implications for the regulations of individual countries. Indeed, in addition to the harms this extensive advertising poses to consumers, our findings suggest FIFA's commercial model did not adequately account for differences in national laws and cultural norms governing harmful commodity advertising. The shared match feed carried alcohol branding into countries where alcohol advertising, or alcohol itself, was prohibited. It carried gambling brands into countries where the promoted operator was not licensed, or where sports betting was illegal. It also carried prediction market advertising into jurisdictions where these products faced legal uncertainty or where providers did not hold the required local licence. Viewers could not avoid this marketing without also missing the match.





Technology to avoid this issue already exists: UEFA had already used virtual board replacement technology at EURO 2024 that allowed different pitchside advertising to be shown to viewers in Germany, China and the United States (UEFA, 2024). Our findings suggest that in 2026 – with the biggest World Cup ever – FIFA chose to distribute match footage containing embedded branding to broadcasters in countries where some promoted products or services could not lawfully be advertised or offered. This poses a major regulatory challenge: global exposure increases the commercial value of FIFA's sponsorship agreements. It is therefore unrealistic to rely on FIFA voluntarily adopting measures that could reduce sponsor visibility and revenue. We therefore believe that governments and regulators must establish enforceable requirements, supported by meaningful penalties.

We propose three policy changes; one directed at legislators and two at FIFA:

1

Ensure live sport advertising is covered by marketing regulation

Advertising embedded within live sport often falls outside rules applying to conventional advertisements because sponsor branding is treated as incidental to editorial coverage. This distinction is outdated because technology allows in real time to amend advertising in footage. Governments should explicitly regulate commercially selected branding within live sport as advertising. Domestic broadcasters, streaming platforms and media rights holders should be legally responsible for any non-compliant advertising they transmit, even when it originates within an international feed.

2

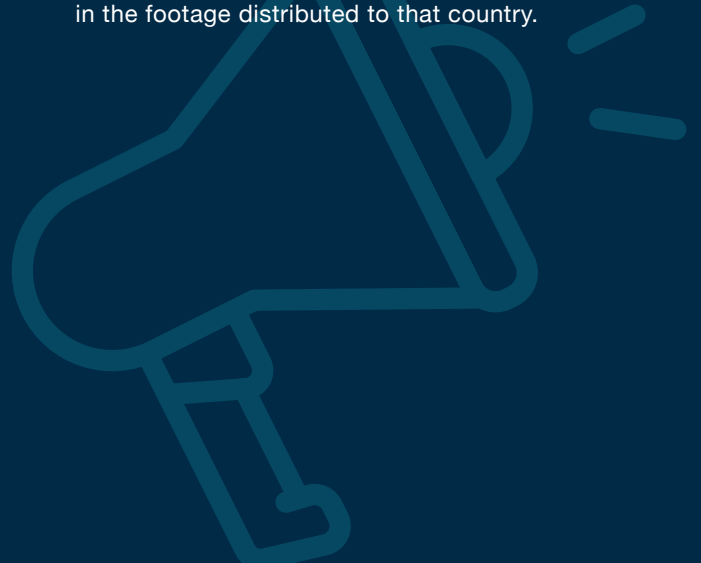
Adopt an independent public interest standard for FIFA partnerships

FIFA should adopt transparent and independently developed criteria for selecting commercial partners. These criteria should exclude partnerships involving products or services associated with substantial health or financial harms, particularly during tournaments watched by large numbers of children. The assessment should involve public health, consumer protection and child welfare experts who are independent of FIFA and its commercial partners.

3

Use technology to ensure that only lawful advertising is shown

FIFA should conduct a country-by-country assessment of whether each sponsor can legally be promoted and operate in every territory receiving the tournament footage. Existing virtual board replacement and feed localisation technology should then be used to remove or replace branding for prohibited or restricted products and unlicensed operators. Where FIFA cannot guarantee that advertising will comply with national law, it should not include that advertising in the footage distributed to that country.



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