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**Effects of Event-Sponsor Fit on Consumers' Attitude Toward
Corporate Sponsors and intention to purchase sponsored products in
Different Level of Sponsorship advertising; A Team Versus A League**

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by

Hwanjong Cho, B.S.Adv.

Thesis

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to the many individuals who have significantly influenced my life. Their lessons, guidance, support, encouragement, and, above all, unwavering belief in my abilities have empowered me. They were all, knowingly or unknowingly, with me during this journey and each of them will continue to be with me in all of my future endeavors.

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First, I would like to thank my advisor, Dr. Angeline Close, challenged me, inspired me, and empowered me to accomplish more than I ever thought possible. She was patient allowing me to grow, make mistakes, and find my way. Her belief in my abilities far surpassed my own and carried me during the many times I was unsure of my own ability to succeed. I will forever be grateful for her support and guidance. I would also like to thank my reader Dr. Minette Drumwright, for her guidance, friendship and patience. Her insights regarding my work were invaluable and I am extremely appreciative of the time her invested in me as a student. It was truly an honor to be able to work and learn from her.

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Abstract

Effects of Event-Sponsor Fit on Consumers' Attitude Toward Corporate Sponsors and intention to purchase sponsored products in Different Level of Sponsorship advertising; A Team Versus A League

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The University of Texas at Austin, 2016

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Given the intense interests by marketing practitioners in sponsoring sports events, an ability to determine the effectiveness of sponsorship as a means to increase sales and high return on investments is a primary concern of marketers and also homework left in the academic world to provide marketers compelling and insightful a guide for the implementation for market segmentation. In this study, this study examines the effects of target marketing in sport sponsorship advertising on audiences of corporate sponsors' intended target as well as unintended target in two event-sponsor fit conditions: High fit and low fit. 2 x 2 experimental design is used to test hypotheses. Subjects were people who reside in U.S. Subject age is above 15 years. In this study, a total of 232 people participated in the study and advertisements created for the experiments, contain two logos from existing brands as a corporate sponsor and a sponsee. A type of brands is for testing the effect of event-sponsor fit, and a type of sponsees represents sponsoring

companies' intended target market. More specifically, Gatorade represents a sponsored product which is high in event-sponsor fit while Raid represents the one is low in event-sponsor fit. National Football League and Dallas Cowboys represent two different sponsorship market segments. The main effects and the interaction effects of the variables are analyzed how the combination of consumers' assessments of event-sponsor fit and a different target marketing approach influences audiences' attitudes toward corporate sponsors and purchase intentions. The findings illustrate that high in event-sponsor fit leads to more favorable attitude toward a sponsoring brand and greater purchase intention than low in event-sponsor fit. However, no significant differences were found between a group exposed to an ad with league-level sponsorship and a group exposed to team-level sponsorship ad. Possible reasons for the lack of significance are discussed along with the implications of the findings and direction is provided for future research.

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CHAPTER 1: Introduction

1.1. Background

Over the years, there have been many changes and trends in the marketing mix that allows marketers to be able to reach their target. Especially, sponsorship is a growing communication forms in the marketing mix and it is defined by corporate sponsors providing compensation in exchange for access to a target's commercial potential (Cornwell et al., 2005). Sponsorship is a key aspect of integrated brand promotions and "as a primary communication vehicle for many thousands of corporations" (Howard & Crompton, 2005, p. 436) because corporations have tried to create a link with an event in order for influencing the audience by the connection. As a consequence, sponsorship has become an essential part of the funding for sporting, artistic, and social events. More specifically, annual worldwide sponsorship expenditures has grown rapidly from an estimated U.S. \$2 billion in 1984 to \$38 billion in 2007, up 12 percent from U.S. \$34 billion in 2006 (Meenaghan, 1998, Expo, 2007), due in part to such factors as increasing restrictions on advertising, widespread behavior when a viewer stop watching a commercial, higher advertising costs, and increased media coverage of sponsored events (Quester and Thompson, 2001; Speed and Thompson, 2000; Verity, 2002). The increased media coverage is another reason that more than half of all sponsorship spending directed at sporting events, leagues, teams, and players (Crompton, 2004; Verity, 2002). Furthermore, corporations began to focus more aggressively on the benefits gained via

sports sponsorship since the economic recession in 2002 (Stotlar, 2004). Sweet (2002) noted that “Many sport sponsors say they are taking a closer look at their return on investment, especially in light of the slow economy and a sport landscape that offers a wider variety of opportunities” (p. 27). Therefore, an ability to determine the effectiveness of sponsorship as a means to increase sales and high return on investments is a primary concern of sports organizations and marketers and this research focuses on a specific type of sponsorship called sports sponsorship.

To date, there are a considerable amount of literature on sponsorship effectiveness has been accumulated, but Cornwell et al. (2005) explained “Many investigations of sponsorship effects have not posited any theoretical explanation of how sponsorship works in the mind of the consumer, or have posited a theoretical process but have not directly investigated it per se” (p. 22). Brand attitudes, awareness, and purchase intentions have emerged as three of the most studied aspects of sponsorship involvement due to their importance to corporations. Brand attitudes are defined as consumers' evaluations of a brand (Wilkie 1986). Brand attitudes are important because they often form the basis for consumer behavior. Brand attitudes can be related to beliefs about product-related attributes and the functional and experiential benefits. O'Reilly and Madill (2009) and Lough and Irwin (2001) independently researched that purchase intention was the most important evaluation practice listed by business executives involved in sponsorship decisions. The sponsorship evaluation parallels the literature as several research agendas have sought to determine the likelihood of increased marketplace support of sponsors by fans of the sponsored team or event (Biscaia et al.,

2013, Madrigal, 2000). Professional leagues and teams sell sponsorships in order for their operations, At the same time, companies purchase sponsorship rights to reach their target to tap into the “emotional connection consumers have with a favorite property” (Madrigal, 2001, p. 146). O’Reilly and Madill (2009) and Lough and Irwin (2001) found that awareness was a key sponsorship evaluation to practitioners. Additionally, previous sponsorship literature has sought to determine factors that impact sponsorship awareness in various ways. For instance, there are ways by measuring the awareness differential achieved as a result of the level of sponsorship selected by the firm (Wakefield et al., 2007), by determining how awareness develops over time (Walraven et al., 2014), and by assessing the importance of the degree of fit with the sponsored property (Cornwell et al., 2006). Due to the importance of prediction and evaluation of the investment outcome, sponsorship effectiveness has gained considerable attentions in the sponsorship research (Cronwell and Maignan, 1998; Cuneen and Hannan, 1993; Higham, 1997; Ko et al., 2008; Meenaghan, 2001). Prior research has focused on sponsorship effectiveness via sponsor-event fit (Rifon et al., 2004; Close et al., 2006), image transfer (Gwinner, 1997), articulation (Cornwell et al., 2006), and media effects (Meenaghan and Shipley, 1999).

Finally, market segmentation and target marketing form the basis of marketing strategy (Smith and Cooper Martin, 1997) and targeting marketing strategy involves all aspects of the marketing mix in order to encourage consumers’ needs and drive them to purchase products (Jones and Middleton, 2007). Marketers target particular consumer segments with advertising geared towards the specific needs of customers. Goods and services can no longer be produced and sold without considering customer needs and

recognizing heterogeneity of those needs. Further, prior research suggests marketers need to consider the non-target market as well as the target market. Specifically, the marketers' intended meanings is not always the same as the meanings consumers understand. Thus, many consumer researchers have emphasized the necessity of understanding the subjective meanings of advertisements to consumers (Levy, 1986; McCracken, 1987; Mick, 1992; Sherry, 1987). Others have explored cultural expertise (Brumbaugh, 1997), social group membership (Park and Lessig, 1977), and personal experience (Mick, 1992) that affect the way consumers interpret the same advertisement.

However, effectiveness of sponsorship advertising through comparison of league level sponsorship and team level sponsorship has seen little consideration especially when event-sponsor fit is present. In other words, how is the effect of an ad with league level sponsorship different from the one with team level sponsorship? Therefore, the purpose of this research is to compare the effectiveness of an ad with team level sponsorship and league level sponsorship when event-sponsor fit is manipulated. The impact of the information on intentions to purchase sponsored products and attitudes toward sponsoring brand were measured. Considered in this study was the relationship between audiences and either team-level or league level, which was conceptualized in terms of team identification and based on social identity theory (Tajfel and Turner, 1986).

1.2. Purpose

The purpose here is to build a better understanding of sponsors by examining the effects of target marketing in sports sponsorship advertising reflected fan-specific characteristics that are illustrated in conjunction with sponsorship research. Prior study has pointed to a desire by fans to support firms in the marketplace (Gwinner and Swanson, 2003). A secondary purpose is to examine the impact of purchase intentions of corporate sponsors' products as well as how purchase intentions and attitudes are affected by sponsor-event fit and different target marketing strategies. Specifically in this study, a type of entity represents companies' intended target market. The National Football League (NFL) and Dallas Cowboys were used to represent two different sponsoring market segments. To sum, this study is to identify how the combination of consumers' assessments of event-sponsor congruence, the levels of fan identification and a different target marketing strategy influence their attitudes toward corporate sponsors and purchase intention as well.

The contribution of the study is to provide guidance for marketers, by finding more effective ways to affect firm's target audiences' attitudes and purchase intentions, especially when market strategy is weighted to sports fans. In the following section, a review of the relevant literature and the proposed hypotheses are presented, and data analysis and results are reported. The final section includes a discussion of the results, managerial implications, suggestions for further academic research, and an explanation of limitations associated with the study.

1.3. Overview of Chapters

This paper is organized as follows. An introduction gives a short overview of the topics to be discussed as well as the research questions. Next, the theoretical background focuses on some main topics within the field of sports sponsorship; it gives the reader main terminology, definitions, objectives, and important constructs. As a function of the theoretical development, research hypotheses derived from the literature will be then presented. Then, the methods and data analysis are presented. Following the reporting of results, managerial implications, limitations, and future research avenues are discussed.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The purpose of this section is to provide a literature review for the key components of the study. More specifically, this chapter will review the literature pertinent to sponsorship, congruence theory, social identity theory and team identification, and market segmentation as a means to support the hypotheses.

2.1. Sponsorship

Since sponsorship has evolved over the years, the definitions regarding the subject were changed. According to Meenaghan (1983), sponsorship is “the provision of assistance either financial or in-kind to an activity by a commercial organization for the purpose of achieving commercial objectives” (p. 9). Otker (1988) states the activities involved in the management of any sponsorship: “Commercial sponsorship is (1) buying and (2) exploiting an association with an event, a team, a group, etc. for specific marketing (communications) purpose” (p. 77). Cornwell and Maignan (1998) state that sponsorship involves two main activities: “(1) exchange between a sponsor and a sponsee whereby the latter receives a fee, and the former obtains the right to associate itself with the activity sponsored and (2) the marketing of the association by the sponsor”. Corporate sponsors associate their name or brand with an event or organization. Thus, the majority of current sporting events are filled with sponsors and logos of their company or brands.

Sponsorships aim at creating both short-term and long-term benefits to corporate sponsors. Sponsorships influence recall (Bennett, 1999; Hansen et al., 1995; Nicholls,

Roslow and Dubliss, 1999), awareness (Bennett, 1999; Bloxham, 1998; Pham et al., 2001), sponsor image (D'Astous and Bitz, 1995; Otker and Hayes, 1987), attitude toward the sponsor (McDaniel 1999; Speed and Thompson, 2000; Stipp, 1998), and purchase intentions (Madrigal 2001; McDaniel, 1999). The effectiveness of corporate sponsorship has been regarded to a link between a sponsor and a sponsee, resulting in the transfer of the spectators' positive perceptions of the event or organization to a brand and a corporation (Crimmins and Horns, 1996). However, equivalent transfer effects from the event are not guaranteed or produced because the event can be linked with several companies participating. The congruence between the sponsor and the event has been noted for its facilitating effects.

2.2. Congruence (Fit)

2.2.1. Definition of Congruence (Fit)

Since equivalent transfer effects from the event are not guaranteed or produced because the event can be linked with several companies, congruence effect between the sponsor and the event has been drawing more attentions and studied. In the advertising and marketing literature, several terms are used to describe the word congruence such as “compatibility” (Ruth and Simonin, 2003), “fit” (Bainbridge, 2001), and “relatedness” (Johar and Pham, 1999). All of these including congruence have been used to indicate consumer perceptions of similarity. Additionally, congruence is defined as the extent to

which a brand association shares content and meaning with another association.

Information that is consistent in meaning with existing brand association is more easily remembered than unrelated information (Keller, 1993). Consumers also may have expectations as to the likelihood that a product or service has a particular association given that it has some other association (Bettman, John, and Scott 1986; Sujan 1985).

2.2.2. Schema-based Theory

The effects of congruence in sponsorship have been explained by schema theory (Cornwell and Maignan, 1998; McDaniel, 1999). Solso (1989) proposed that a schema is a hypothetical memory structure that helps people relative to prior experience. The schema influences individuals' expectations on what he observes or experiences. Further, the information contained in schematic memory templates has been found to influence affective and behavioral responses (Fiske, 1982). Its effects of affective and behavioral responses have been identified by numerous schema-based studies, which have been employed to examine the effects of match-up hypotheses such as spokespersons and brands in celebrity endorser advertising, brands and event sponsorships. McDaniel (1999) states among the key finding in this area, attitude toward the ad (Kamins, 1990), brand attitude (Friedman and Friedman, 1979; Kahle and Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1990; Misra and Beatty, 1990; Petty et al., 1983) and purchase intentions (Friedman and Friedman, 1979; Kahle and Homer, 1985) have all been found to be significantly related to the perceived fit of an endorser's attributes (e.g., likability) with those of the brand (in low-

involvement conditions) (p. 168). In summary, schemas influence attention and perception through prior experience with a stimulus category (Fiske and Linville, 1980; Taylor and Croker, 1981). Additionally, previous exposure to advertising as well as product categories and brands forms a schematic memory that consumer use to interpret promotional stimuli (Braun, 1999; Goodstein, 1993).

2.2.3. Effects of Congruence between Sponsor and Event

Congruence between the conditioned and unconditioned stimuli has shown to have a direct impact on conditioned response. Mitchell et al.'s study (1995) provides that high in congruence between a schema and a stimulus can have a more positive impact than low in congruence. Additionally, source effects' research has emphasized the importance of source similarity as a dimension of attractiveness (Kamins 1990; Ohanian 1991). Thus, Sponsorship researchers have highlighted the importance of the link or the "fit" between the sponsor and the sponsored event (Crimmins and Horn 1996; Otker and Hayes 1987, Stipp and Schiavone 1996).

2.3.Fan Identification

2.3.1. Identity

Identity is a concept, as it is both an assertion of sameness and differences (Ashmore, Jussim, and Wilder, 2001). Research has described it as being elusive and intangible (Erikson, 1979; Gleason, 1983; Malesevic, 2006). Brubaker and Cooper (2000) argue the term “tends to mean too much (when understood in a strong sense), too little (when understood in a weak sense), or nothing at all (because of its sheer ambiguity)” (p. 1). Identity is used by people “in some everyday settings to make sense of themselves, of their activities, or what they share with, and how they differ from, others” (p. 4). Erikson (1979) proposed the following definition, “identity is a process located in the core of the individual and yet also in the core of his communal community” (p. 22). This definition implies identity is a process invoking a personal identity and a collective identity. Personal identity is the characteristics of the self that one believes, in isolation or combination, to be unique to the self, that which sets oneself apart from others (Sedikides and Brewer, 2001; Simon, 1997). Collective identity (also referred to as social identity) is explicitly connected to a group of people outside the self-sharing some characteristics that set them apart from other groups (Ashmore, Deaux, and McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004).

2.3.2. Social Identity Theory and Self-Categorization Theory

Tajfel (1978) defines the term as “that part of an individual’s self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership” (p. 63). Brewer (1991) defines the term as “categorizations of the self into more inclusive social units that depersonalize the self-concept, where I become ‘we’ (p.476). According to Tajfel and Turner (1986), a group is “a collection of individuals who perceive themselves to be members of the same social category, share some emotional involvement in this common definition, and achieve some degree of social consensus about evaluation of their group and of their membership in it” (p. 15). Collective identity is close to social identity in this manner, as “collective identification is first and foremost a statement about categorical membership (Ashmore et al., 2004, p. 81). As a consequence, an extension of social identity theory is a self-categorization theory (Turner et al., 1987). Self-categorization theory is “a theory of the nature of the self that recognizes that perceivers are both individuals and group member, explains how and when people will define themselves as individual and group entities and its implications, and examines the impact of this variability in self-perception (‘I’ to ‘We’) for understandings of mind and behavior” (p. 399).

2.3.3. Team Identity

Cialdini, Borden, Throne, Walker, Freeman and Sloan (1976) introduced team identification. They presented the concept of BIRGing (basking in reflected glory). Cialdini et al. (1976) used college students sample from seven universities with strong Division-I football in 1973. The author hypothesized that students would be more likely to wear clothes representing the school after a football team's victory. The results confirmed the hypothesis showing students wore clothing with their school's logo or name more on Monday following a victory than on Monday after a loss (Dalakas, Madrigal, & Anderson, 2004). In the second study, Cialdini et al. found the subjects would BIRG, as they used the pronoun 'we', to associate themselves with a positive source (Cialdini et al., 1976). In the third study, Cialdini et al. hypothesized students would use the pronoun 'we' describing an important victory and 'non-we' (they) when describing a non-victory. The findings provided additional support for the phenomenon of BIRGing (Dalakas, Madrigal, & Anderson, 2004). The findings provide the platform for research directed towards understanding team identification. This is the basis for understanding how individuals use a sport team to exhibit positive emotions and to associate with successful groups. On the other hand, Snyder, Lassegard, and Ford (1986) discussed the phenomenon of cutting off reflected failure (CORFing), where individuals distance themselves from unsuccessful groups. Recognition of the BIRGing and CORFing effects has led to more insight concerning team identity and the sport consumer (Trail, Robinson, Dick, & Gillentine, 2003; Wann & Branscombe, 1993 Wann, Tucker, & Schrader, 1996).

Wann, Melnick, Russell and Pease (2001) define team identification as “the extent to which a fan feels psychologically connected to a team” (p. 3). Trail, Anderson, and Fink (2000) define identification as “an orientation of the self in regard to other objects, including a person or group, which results in feelings or sentiments of close attachment” (p. 165-166). Sports fans feel a sense of belonging and attachment to a larger social structure by team identification (Wann and Branscombe, 1991). The term infers that an individual’s level of identification with a team will influence relationships with a larger social structure surrounding the team such as a league/association the team plays in or the states or cities the team belongs to. Thus, the team may give strong effect on relationships between sports fans and other communities they are in. Team identification has also been described as, “the spectator’s perceived connectedness to a team and the experience of the team’s failings and achievement’s as one’s own” (Gwinner and Swanson, 2003, p. 276). Additionally, team identification is defined as “the personal commitment and emotional involvement customers have with a sports organization” (Sutton, McDonald, Milne, and Cimperman, 1997, p. 15).

2.3.4. Team Identification and Consumption Behavior

Wann (2006) states that the levels of sports-team identification can be positively associated with social psychological connections as well as be related to affective and behavioral responses, once an individual has initiated a sense of identification with a team. In other words, team identification derives behavioral responses regarding consumption. As a proven example of the behavioral responses, Kwon and Armstrong

(2002) conducted a study using college students to determine the factors that contribute to the impulse purchases of sports team-licensed merchandise. There are four variables such as time availability, money availability, students' shopping enjoyment level, and the level of identification with the university's sports team. The results indicated that the level of students' identification with the team was the only significant factor that arouses impulse buying team-licensed merchandise.

2.4. Market Segmentation

Since the concept of market segmentation introduced by Smith (1956), it has become a central concept in both marketing theory and practice. Smith recognized the existence of heterogeneity in the demand of goods and services. He stated "market segmentation involves viewing a heterogeneous market (one characterized by divergent demand) as a number of smaller homogeneous market, in response to differing preference, attributable to the desires of consumers for the more precise satisfaction of their varying wants" (p. 4). Smith's concepts led to segmentation research that partitioned markets into homogeneous submarkets in terms of customer demand (Dickson and Ginter 1987), resulting in the identification of groups of consumers that respond similarly to the marketing mix. This view of segmentation reflects a market orientation rather than a product orientation where markets are partitioned on the bases of the products being

produced, regardless of consumer need. In shorts, market segmentation is the process of the classification of customers into groups. In the way of applying the term to the experiment, the investigator operationally defines that “a type of sponsees, especially their logos, represent sponsorship market segments”. National Football League and Dallas Cowboys were used in order to represent two different market segments

Chapter 3: Conceptual Development and Hypotheses

3.1. Sponsorship Market Classifications Based on Social Identity Theory

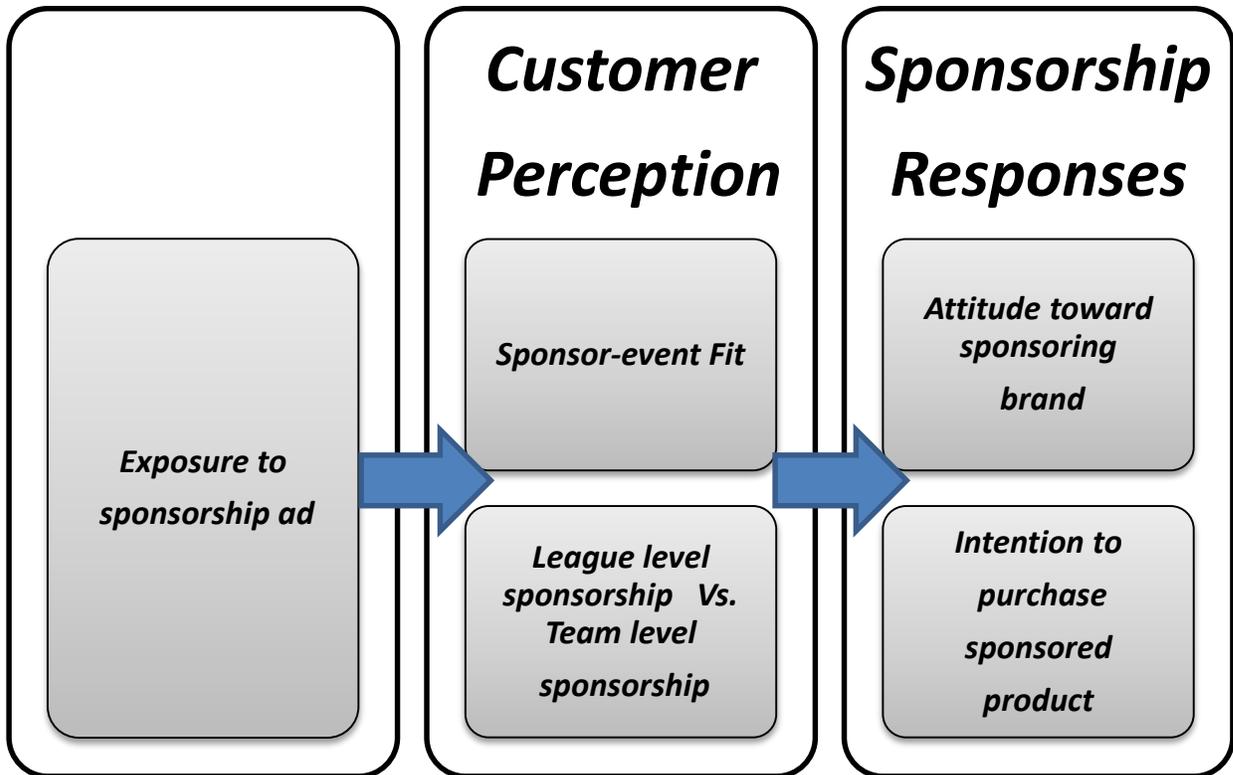


Figure 3.1: Conceptual Model

Sports sponsorship involves a wide range of activities whereby the marketer attempts to capitalize on an official relationship with an event, a team, a player, or some other sports organizations such as the International Olympic Committee, the National Collegiate Athletic Association. Sponsoring companies use the association, exposure, and ability to leverage their relationships with the team-level sponsorship or league-level

sponsorship or sports player endorsement to achieve their marketing goals. (Masteralexis, Barr, and Hums). These three sponsorship opportunities for companies divided by multiple reasons such as differences in region, sports spectatorship, beneficiaries of sponsorship fee, personal preference on a sports league, a team, and a player. These rationale behind why sponsorship market split into three groups are mainly supported by the existence of social alliances between audiences and each entity. For marketers, each entity or segment allows them to run different marketing strategies in order to meet specific target's needs. Presumably, the effectiveness of each sponsorship is different from each other. In this research, according to social identity theory, the author operationally divided sponsorship markets between league level sponsorship and team level sponsorship in order to compare the effectiveness of sponsorship ad on each level. As mentioned above, both league level and team level sponsorship give markets opportunities each strategy's specific target. Sponsorship literature's findings suggest that individual respondents who perceived the sporting event to be more favorable shows a stronger response on the sponsor's image. Crimmins and Horn (1996) suggest that sponsoring companies can benefit from appreciation that emerges among fans who are highly identified with the team. These findings suggest that sponsors can achieve their marketing goals to their sponsorship if they select events or teams which are liked by their target market. However, marketers realized that target marketing is not an all-round solution for addressing marketplace diversity. Practically, the management of multiple target markets creates strategic difficulties for marketers trying to attract different segments simultaneously. For instance, even though marketers are trying to reach and

appealing for the lesbian market, some concerns for doing so will alienate straight consumers (Miller 1995). Similarly, advertisers are concerned that using minorities in commercials will keep white consumers from connecting with such ads (Harris 1989). A backlash has resulted with non-target markets taking action against marketers who have created a product vulnerable target market (Brenkert 1998). In addition, competition is one of key factors of sports. There are many competitive relationships exist in sports, and these sorts of rivalries are prominent between individuals, groups, and organizations. Intergroup bias arose from competitive characteristic of sports is one of the strengths on using sports sponsorship. Intergroup bias refers to inclination people to recognize in-group more favorably and positively than out-groups, (Brewer, 1979; Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood, & Sherif, 1961, Hwestone, Rubin and Willis 2002). Besides, competitive sport foster negative sentiments toward gout groups (Lee, 1985) and derogation toward members of another group by in-group bias (Tajfel, 1978). Since target market is not completely in control, the purpose of sponsoring companies and the prospective outcomes of sponsorship do not always coincide. For instance, team level sponsorship activities are likely to be exposed to both the team's fans and nonfans. Thus, intergroup bias and negative sentiments arise from both fans and nonfans at the same time. Likewise, marketing efforts intended for one target segment might have an alternative meaning for consumers outside that segment (Kranhold 1997). Sonya and Brumbaugh (1999) state, "The marketer's intended meaning (the cognitive and affective responses the market tries to induce in target viewer of the ad) is not the same as consumers' actualized meaning (the cognitive and affective responses consumers create from their interpretation

of the ad). Thus, we predict that the effectiveness of team level sponsorship ad and league level sponsorship ad will be different from each other.

H1 : An ad with league level sponsorship will lead to (a) more favorable attitude toward a sponsoring brand and (b) greater purchase intention than an ad with team level sponsorship.

3.2. Event-Sponsor Fit (Congruence theory)

Perceived congruence or fit between the conditioned and unconditioned stimuli has been shown to have a direct impact on conditioned response. Sponsorship researchers have emphasized the importance of the fit between the sponsor and the sponsored event (Crimmins and Horn 1996; Otker and Hayes 1987; Stipp and Schiavone 1996). Although there are several bases on which fit can be established (e.g., functional characteristics, symbolic characteristics), the author proposes to examine model perceived fit between sponsor and event in terms of a single construct. To avoid any linkage between this construct and certain dimension of fit, the author conceptualize it as fit in a general sense. This construct is used for the respondent's attitude toward the pairing of event and sponsor, and the degree to which the pairing is perceived as well matched or a good fit. Accordingly, the author hypothesize the following:

H2 : An ad with high in event-sponsor fit product will lead to (a) more favorable attitude toward a sponsoring brand and (b) greater purchase intention than an ad with low in event-sponsor fit product.

3.3. Interaction Effect

Classical conditioning research suggests that fit not only has a main effect but that it also moderates the level of conditioning achieved. Conditioning is enhanced if participants perceive that the conditioned and unconditioned stimuli in some way belong together (Allen and Janiszewski 1989). Thus, fit is a moderator of the impact of attitude toward league level or team level sponsorship ad and attitude toward the sponsoring brand as well as intentions to purchase sponsored product. Therefore, the author suggests a possible extension of sponsorship research. In the case of sponsorship, increasing the sponsor-event fit will increase the response to the sponsorship arising from league level sponsorship ad.

H3: There will be an interaction effect between sponsorship level (League vs. Team) and event-sponsor fit of sponsored products (Fit vs. Unfit). For unfit condition, an ad with team level sponsorship will lead favorable attitude and greater purchase intention. However, this difference will be diminished in fit condition.

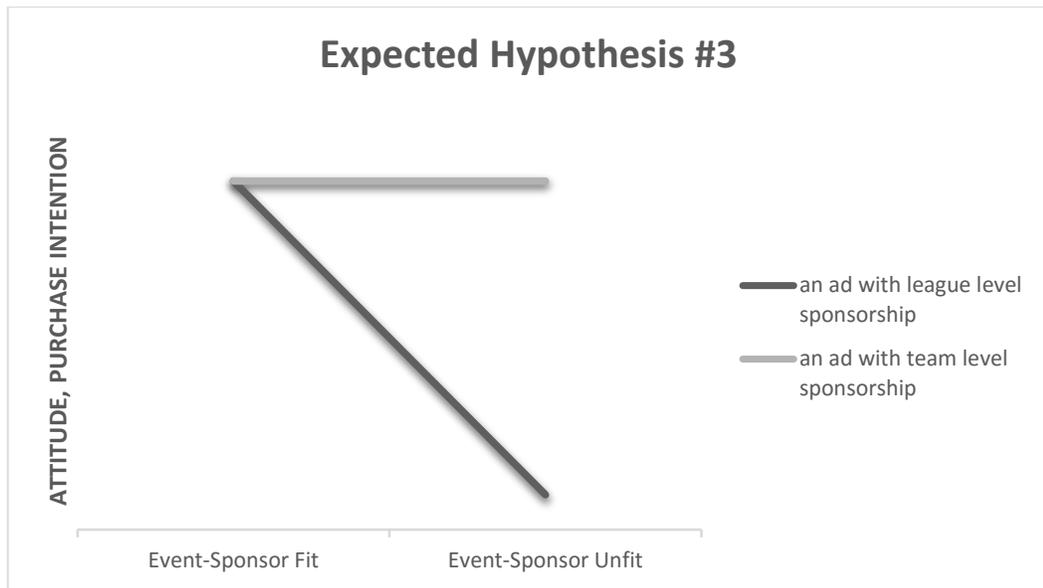


Figure 3.2: Expected sponsorship level x event-sponsor fit interaction on attitude and purchase intention

Chapter 4: Methods

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methodology used to test the research hypotheses. This chapter will be organized into the following sections: 1) subjects, 2) design, 3) creation of stimulus materials, 4) variables, 5) data collection procedures, 6) measures, 7) manipulation check, and 8) data analysis procedures.

4.1. Subjects

Subjects were people who reside in U.S. Subject age is above 15 years. A total of 232 people participated in the study. Among them, 147 (63.4%) were male and 122 (36.7%) were female. In terms of age, 42 (18.1%) respondents were 15 to 24 years old, 97 (41.8%) respondents were 25 to 34 years old, 52 (22.4%) respondents were 35 to 44 years old, 28 (12.1%) respondents were in 45 to 54 age group, 11 (4.7%) respondents were in 55-64 age group, and 2 (1%) respondents were in over 65 years age group. In terms of race, 176 (75.8%) respondents were Caucasian, 19 (8.1%) respondents were African-American, 10 (4.3%) respondents were Hispanic, and 18 (7.8%) respondents were Asian.

4.2. Design

The study employed a fixed factor, 2 x 2 between-subjects, posttest, and randomized experimental design. The design consisted of 2 factors; fit between sponsoring company's product offerings and the event; level of sponsorship depends on which logo used in an ad. The stimulus was a sponsor ad created specifically for the study, which had no affiliation with any company. Real companies were used as sponsors (Gatorade, Raid) and real professional football team and league were used (Dallas Cowboys, National Football League). The main dependent variable, attitude toward the sponsor, was measured after exposure to the stimulus ad. In addition to that, respondents were asked to answer two extra questions after exposure of an ad in order to run a manipulation check test on two logos were featured in the ad.

4.3. Creation of Stimulus Materials

The stimulus materials were created to resemble the conditions of natural exposure in the field. The four treatment conditions were created in the ad. To create a realistic ad, a scene from the past football game was modified. Gatorade was used to represent a company offering products with high level of congruence to the sporting event, and Raid, an insecticide product brand was chosen to represent a company offering products with low level of congruence. The choice of Gatorade and Raid allowed the creation of realistic ads; they produce products relevant to the audience and are

believable as advertisers. Since the message was not the study's independent variable, messages in the ads look similar with one another. However, due to differences of product itself, identical wording was not provided. ("It helps me win my battle, Thirst." Gatorade and "It helps me win my battle, Bugs." Raid).

Another stimulus was a logo from either Dallas Cowboys or National Football League. A sentence "Gatorade/Raid is a proud sponsor of" was placed in the ad above a logo. When a company sponsors a team, their intended target audience is the team's fan and any audience who have a good feeling for the team. However, when a company sponsors a league, their intended target audience is general football fan and anyone who likes football no matter what the degree of feeling is.

4.4. Variables

This study included two independent variables: sponsorship level and event-sponsor fit. Sponsorship level included two levels, league level sponsorship and team level sponsorship. A pretest was used to insure the manipulation of each level sponsorship worked.

Event-sponsor fit was the second independent variable and consisted of two levels, fit and unfit. A pretest was to insure the manipulation of event-sponsor fit was indeed perceived as intended. Event-sponsor fit was measured on five items, 7-point Likert scale in the pretest. Respondents were asked to indicate the level of agreement with each statement. Sponsor-event fit was measured the perceived congruence between

the sponsor and the event on a five-item ($\alpha = .95$), 7-point Likert-scale anchored by; there is a logical connection between the event and the sponsor; the image of the event and the image of the sponsor are similar; the sponsor and the event fit together well; the company and the event stand for similar things; it makes sense to me that this company sponsors this event (Speed and Thompson 2000). A τ test confirmed that congruence perceptions were significantly different, $\tau(248.56) = 20.50$, $\rho < .001$, between the high-congruence conditions (Gatorade, $\mu = 5.69$) and low-congruence conditions (Raid, $\mu = 2.73$), and relatively equidistant from the scale's midpoint.

There were two dependent variables in the study: attitude toward the sponsoring company and intention to purchase the sponsored product. Attitude refers to “a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to given object” (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 6). Attitude toward sponsor ($\alpha = .92$ Gatorade, $\alpha = .97$ Raid) was measured on a three-item seven-point semantic differential scale anchored by good/bad, pleasant/unpleasant, and favorable/unfavorable (MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). Purchase intention ($\alpha = .99$) was measured on a nine-point semantic differential scale anchored by likely/unlikely; definitely would/definitely would not; probable/improbable (Dodds et al. 1991).

4.5. Data Collection Procedure

The experiment was conducted through Amazon's Mechanical Turk. Participants were paid 25 cents for completing the survey. Each answer must be complete

in order to take following questions. Subjects were asked to choose their favorite professional football team out of all teams in NFL. The list includes “I don’t have any favorite teams” because they are also considered as unintended target audiences. Subjects were exposed to stimulus for 30 seconds by randomization order. Then, participants were asked to answer other questionnaire containing dependent measures: sponsor attitude, attitude toward the ad, purchase intention, sponsor-event congruence, two logos as manipulation check process, team identification scale toward Dallas Cowboys, attitude toward the ad, and demographics.

4.6. Measures

Attitude toward the sponsor ($\alpha = .92$ Gatorade, $\alpha = .97$ Raid) was measured on a three-item seven-point semantic differential scale anchored by good/bad, pleasant/unpleasant, and favorable/unfavorable (MacKenzie and Lutz 1989). In the study, Attitude toward the sponsor was asked after exposure of an ad as the post measure. Purchase intention ($\alpha = .99$) was measured on a nine-point semantic differential scale anchored by likely/unlikely; definitely would/definitely would not; probable/improbable (Dodds et al. 1991).

4.7. Manipulation Check

Survey was designed with two questions after exposure of an ad in order to maintain its validity and sort out respondents with incorrect answers. The author initially collected 232 participants and 28 respondents are dropped after manipulation check on both stimuli.

4.8. Data Analysis Procedures

The data for this experiment were analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Procedures were used which analyzed the data to determine if the following hypotheses were supported or unsupported:

Hypothesis #1: An ad with league level sponsorship will lead to (a) more favorable attitude toward a sponsoring brand and (b) greater purchase intention than an ad with team level sponsorship.

Hypothesis #2: An ad with high in event-sponsor fit product will lead to (a) more favorable attitude toward a sponsoring brand and (b) greater purchase intention than an ad with low in event-sponsor fit product.

Hypothesis #3: There will be an interaction effect between sponsorship level (League vs. Team) and event-sponsor fit of sponsored products (Fit vs. Unfit). For unfit condition, an ad with team level sponsorship will lead favorable attitude and greater purchase intention. However, this difference will be diminished in fit condition.

Hypothesis 1 predicted that, an ad with league level would lead to more favorable attitude toward a sponsoring brand and greater purchase intention than an ad with team level sponsorship, was tested using a two-way between groups multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with sponsorship level serving as the independent variable and attitude toward a sponsoring brand and intention to purchase a sponsored product serving as the dependent variables. MANOVA is used to compare means between groups when there is more than one dependent variable (Pallant, 2005).

Hypothesis 2 predicted that, an ad with high in event-sponsor fit product will lead to more favorable attitude toward a sponsoring brand and greater purchase intention than an ad with low in event-sponsor fit product, was also tested using a two-way between groups multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with event-sponsor fit serving as the independent variable and attitude toward a sponsoring brand and intention to purchase a sponsored product serving as the dependent variables.

Hypothesis 3 predicted an interaction effect between sponsorship level and event-sponsor fit on attitude toward a sponsoring brand and intention to purchase a sponsored product. This hypothesis were also tested using a two-way between groups multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). A 2 x 2 design was used with sponsorship level group (league, team) and event-sponsor fit group (fit, unfit) serving as the independent variables and attitude toward a sponsoring brand and intention to purchase a sponsored product serving as the dependent variables.

Chapter 5: Results

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the results of the study. The first section will describe the sample characteristics. The second section will provide the results of analyses used to test the hypotheses.

5.1. General Sample and Statistical Information

Data were collected from 232 people who reside in U.S. Subject age is above 15 years. 28 respondents who failed to answer correctly on manipulation check questions are dropped. There were a total of 52 participants in treatment group one (an ad with league level sponsorship and event-sponsor fit product brand), 50 participants in treatment group two (an ad with league level sponsorship and event-sponsor unfit product brand), 52 participants in treatment group three (an ad with team level sponsorship and event-sponsor fit product brand), and 50 participants in treatment group four (an ad with team level sponsorship and event-sponsor unfit product brand).

The total mean score for the attitude toward a sponsoring brand measure for an ad with league level sponsorship and team level sponsorship was 5.35 (league level sponsorship $M=5.42$, team level sponsorship $M=5.27$). The total mean score for intention to purchase a sponsored product measure for an ad with league level sponsorship and team level sponsorship was 6.78 (league level sponsorship $M=6.90$, team level

sponsorship $M=6.67$). The means and standard deviations of all variables of interest can be seen in Table 5.1.

In addition, preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for normality, homogeneity of variance, linearity, and multivariate outliers. There were no violations were noted. Thus, it was determined that statistical tests performed to test the hypotheses would be valid.

Variable	An Ad with League Level Sponsorship		An Ad with Team Level Sponsorship	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Attitude	5.42	1.34	5.27	1.58
Purchase Intention	6.90	1.87	6.67	2.27

Table 5.1: Means and standard deviations of variables by sponsorship level in ad

5.2. Hypothesis Test

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 predicted that, an ad with league level would lead to more favorable attitude toward a sponsoring brand and greater purchase intention than an ad with team level sponsorship. To test this hypothesis a two-way between groups multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with sponsorship level serving as the independent variable and attitude toward a sponsoring brand and intention to purchase a sponsored product serving

as the dependent variables. As shown in Table 5.2., test of between-subjects indicated that there is not a significant sponsorship level group difference for attitude toward a sponsoring brand ($F_{(1, 200)} = 0.633, p = 0.427, \eta = .003$) and intention to purchase a sponsored product ($F_{(1,200)} = 0.682, p = 0.682, \eta = .003$). In other words, unexpectedly, there were no significant differences between an ad with league level sponsorship and team level sponsorship on attitude toward a sponsoring brand and intention to purchase a sponsored product. Therefore, hypothesis 1 was not supported.

	Dependent Variable	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Sponsorship Level in Ad (League Vs. Team)	Attitude	.633	.427	.003
	Purchase Intention	.682	.410	.003
Event-sponsor Fit (Fit Vs. Unfit)	Attitude	48.865	.000	.196
	Purchase Intention	15.867	.000	.074
Interaction effect	Attitude	.030	.862	.000
Sponsorship Level x Event-sponsor fit	Purchase Intention	.028	.868	.000

Table 5.2: Multivariate tests of the variables sponsorship level, Fit, sponsorship level x fit interaction computed using $\alpha=.05$.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 predicted that, an ad with high in event-sponsor fit product will lead to more favorable attitude toward a sponsoring brand and greater purchase intention than an ad with low in event-sponsor fit product, was also tested using a two-way between groups multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with event-sponsor fit serving as

the independent variable and attitude toward a sponsoring brand and intention to purchase a sponsored product serving as the dependent variables. Test of between-subjects indicated significant event-sponsor fit group differences for attitude toward a sponsoring brand ($F_{(1, 200)} = 48,865, p = 0.000, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .196$) and intention to purchase a sponsored brand ($F_{(1, 200)} = 15.867, p = 0.000, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .074$). (See Table 5.2.). Follow-up analyses revealed significant differences ($p < .000$) of attitude toward a sponsoring brand (event-sponsor fit $M=5.99, SD = 1.16$ event-sponsor unfit $M=4.69, SD = 1.47$) between event-sponsor fit product groups and event-sponsor unfit product groups as well as significant differences of intention to purchase a sponsored product (event-sponsor fit $M=7.34, SD = 2.02$ event-sponsor unfit $M=6.21, SD = 1.99$) between event-sponsor fit product groups and event-sponsor-unfit product groups. In other words, as expected, an ad with high in event-sponsor fit product leads to more favorable attitude toward a sponsoring brand and greater purchase intention than an ad with low in event-sponsor fit product, no matter what treatment group they were in. (See Table 5.3). Thus, hypothesis 2 was supported.

Dependent Variable	Event-sponsor Fit	Mean	SD
Attitude	Fit	5.99	1.16
	Unfit	4.69	1.47
Purchase Intention	Fit	7.34	2.02
	Unfit	6.21	1.99

Table 5.3: Means and standard deviations of variables by event-sponsor fit in ad

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 predicted an interaction effect between sponsorship level and event-sponsor fit on attitude toward a sponsoring brand and intention to purchase a sponsored product. This hypothesis were also tested using a two-way between groups multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). A 2 x 2 design was used with sponsorship level group (league, team) and event-sponsor fit group (fit, unfit) serving as the independent variables and attitude toward a sponsoring brand and intention to purchase a sponsored product serving as the dependent variables. Test of between-subjects indicated that there is no significant sponsorship level group x event-sponsor fit group interaction for attitude toward a sponsoring brand ($F_{(1, 200)} = 0.030, p = 0.862, \textit{partial } \eta^2 = .000$) and intention to purchase a sponsored product ($F_{(1, 200)} = 0.028, p = 0.868, \textit{partial } \eta^2 = .000$). Therefore, hypothesis 3 was not supported. Figure 5.1. and figure 5.2. visually depicts that there is no interaction between event-sponsor fit group x sponsorship level group on attitude toward a sponsoring brand and intention to purchase a sponsored product.

In sum, data analysis supported one of three proposed hypotheses. Hypothesis one was not supported and analysis revealed that an ad with league level did not lead to more favorable attitude toward a sponsoring brand and greater purchase intention than an ad with team level sponsorship. Hypothesis two was supported and analysis reveal that, in general, participants who are exposed to an ad with high in event-sponsor fit product feel more favorable attitude toward a sponsoring brand and greater purchase intention than an ad with low in event-sponsor fit product. Additionally, hypothesis three was not

supported as sponsorship level group (league, team) x event-sponsor fit group (fit, unfit) interaction was not discovered for both attitude toward a sponsoring brand and intention to purchase a sponsored product. The results and implications will be discussed in detail in chapter 6.

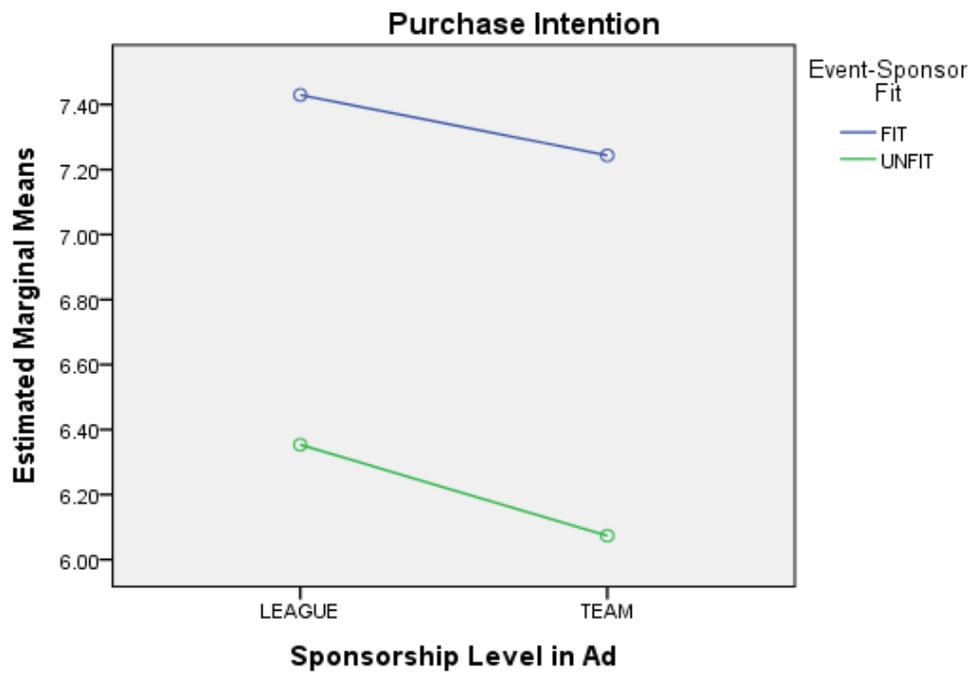


Figure 5.1: Interaction effect on Purchase Intention

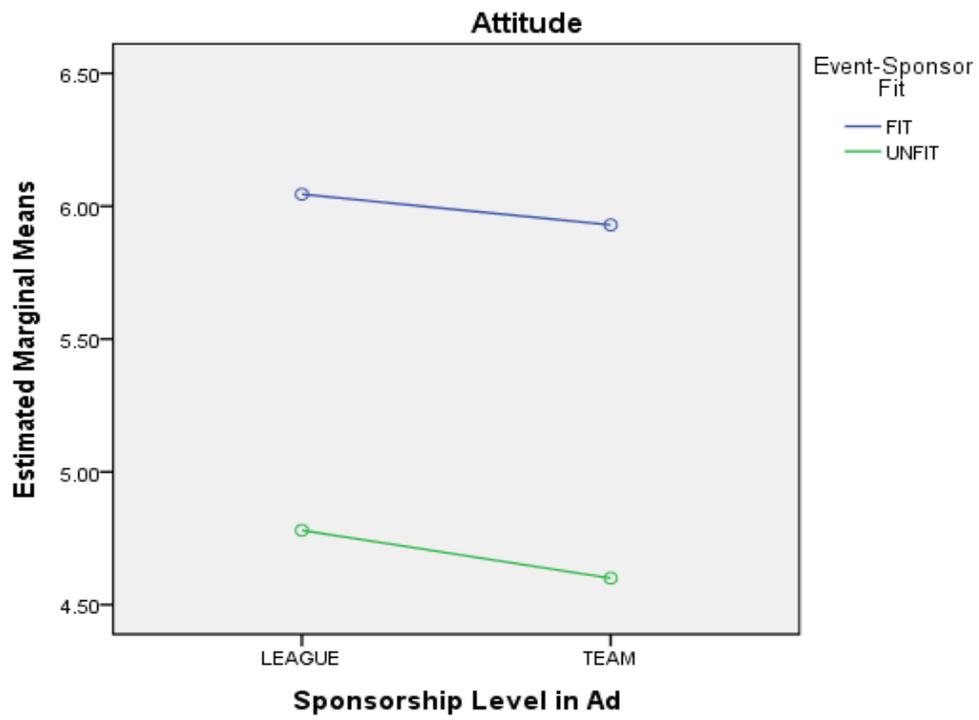


Figure 5.2. Interaction effect on Attitude

Chapter 6: Discussion

Social identity theory accentuates individuals' tendency to attach themselves with certain social groups. For marketers, if a social group consists of the considerable number of highly identified individuals, the group will be targeted to sell goods and services. Especially in sport industry, marketing approaches based on social identity are widely accepted and used. There is also substantial literature which has focused on the effects of individuals' degree of social alliance with a sport team on consumer attitude and purchase intention. In addition, consumers' perception of a fit between an event and a sponsor is regarded as one of key characteristics in sport marketing areas. This study begins with these literature bases. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the present findings relevant to each hypothesis as well as detail the limitations and both theoretical and industrial implications of this study.

6.1. Discussion

As there are varying levels of sponsorship, it is not feasible for researcher to compare the effect of each level one by one. The author operational approaches the current classification of sponsorship advertising markets in sports industry in terms of social identity theory. While there are a few sponsorship activities can be controlled and limit the exposures to designated target audiences, advertising cannot be fully controlled

in case advertiser's intended target is team's fans. For instance, even if readers of sports magazine are more likely to selectively expose themselves to sports-oriented ads, advertisers cannot control over audiences of team level sponsorship advertising in real world. One of the primary objectives of this research is to identify difference in consumers' responses to an ad with both league level sponsorship and team level sponsorship. Previous researches have reported that relationships between the team and fans affect fans' attitude toward a team sponsor and purchase behavior (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Madrigal, 2000). Besides, the affiliation with a sport team has been linked to in-group favoritism and out-group ostracism (Turner, 1978; Tajfel, 1978). The results of MANOVA indicated that no significant differences were found between a group exposed to an ad with league-level sponsorship and a group exposed to team-level sponsorship ad. One reason that significant differences were not found could be similarity in shape between NFL and Raid. Manipulation on both sponsorship level advertising and event-sponsorship worked, but we didn't expect possible compounding effects from two different independent variables. Additionally, size of sample was not big enough to conclude its generalizability and the survey was not restricted in specific region such as Dallas area.

However, this study revealed mixed results as it pertains to the success of sponsors obtaining their goal, arouse the consumption behavior from target audiences, as a result of utilizing fan characteristics the results of this study reaffirm previous findings from Simmons and Becker-Olsen (2006) and effect of event-sponsor fit on attitude toward a sponsoring company and purchase intention were found. In other words, as

expected, an ad with high in event-sponsor fit product leads to more favorable attitude toward a sponsoring brand and greater purchase intention than an ad with low in event-sponsor fit product, no matter what treatment group they were in.

Lastly, interaction effect were not found between event-sponsor fit and level of sponsorship advertising, league and team. A few reasons that significant differences were not found could be brands in stimuli. Gatorade and Raid were used to stimulate participants with the degree of event-sponsor fit. Even though pretest were conducted to confirm whether manipulation of event-sponsor fit works or not, Gatorade sounds phonetically similar to the pronunciation of Raid. Additionally, we have not ruled out the possibility that brand recognition of Raid may be lower than we anticipated compare to Gatorade. Another reason explain the lack of significance in its expected interaction, in terms of participants' preexisting surroundings including attitude and purchase intention, the score of both attitude and purchase intention on Gatorade is too high on average and also both are not in controllable manner. Rationale behind using existing brands instead of fictitious brands was that theoretical bases of the study is social identity theory. Although fictitious brands may work, it may not be performed as existing brands in this study because social identity cannot be made initially and artificially. Also, McDaniel(1999) asserted that studying sponsorship with fictitious brands has little value due to its applicability and relevance.

6.2.Limitations

The researcher acknowledges the following limitations for the study.

The research study concentrated on National Football League, especially Dallas Cowboys. There are other types of sports league or association that could have been applicable to the current design (i.e., Major League Baseball and New York Yankees). The data was collected only from people who currently reside in U.S.

The survey questionnaire was administered in person and through an online survey platform, Amazon Mturk. There are monetary compensations on each participant who complete the survey and it is assumed that the responses reflect participants' true feelings and opinions on each question. Nonetheless, given the nature of survey research, there is possibility that the information collected is not entirely accurate.

A convenience sampling approach was used, which will limit the generalizability to the target population. More specifically, since Dallas Cowboys is one of 32 teams in the National Football League (NFL), in order to ease imbalance of the number of fans and nonfans, 132 participants were collected through unrestricted survey and 100 participants were collected through an restricted survey. Both surveys are identical in terms of questionnaires and stimuli, but in the restricted survey, if a participant is turned out not a fan of the team, the system automatically leads him/her to the end of the survey.

This study relied solely on quantitative data to explain how perceived sponsor-event fit affect consumers' attitudes and intentions to purchase a sponsoring brand in different target marketing settings. Ultimately, the study is to investigate interactions

among those factors. It can be assumed that the results may contain dissimilar findings from those discovered through qualitative methods. Despite these limitations, there are important avenues to build on for future research.

6.3. Future research

The conceptual model of this study was tested using well-known brands such as Gatorade and Raid. As the results of this study indicated, the score from participants' attitude toward Gatorade and purchase intention was high. Thus, in future research, preexisting attitude and intention to purchase of brands, which will be conditioned stimuli, has to go through a thoroughgoing examination. In this study, posttest was used to measure participants' attitude and purchase intention. However, analysis of difference between pretest and posttest of exposure of an ad could provide more precise effect on stimuli.

Moreover, NFL and Dallas Cowboys were used in this research to test hypotheses. The survey was conducted between March and April. However, the football season starts in September and ends in February. In regards to audience's interest, it may lead to more effective results if we conduct the research in time for the football season or use different stimuli such as Major League Baseball and New York Yankees. Thus, future research should be gearing up with ongoing event.

Methodologically, this study used a single-item measure for attitude toward a sponsoring company and intention to purchase a sponsored product. Future research

should include multiple indicator measures to test changes in consumers' responses. Furthermore, instead of using experimental design, longitudinal study may allow us to examine the change of attitude and purchase intention before and after the sports sponsorship ad. While change of feeling toward a sponsoring company could be measured, it is hard to prove that the change actually lead to behavioral change in short period of time.

To summarize, the present research attempts to find that effects of sponsorship level in advertising differ by its level with the results of that consumers' responses to sports sponsorship advertising are varied by social groups they belong to. Although significant difference between groups were not found, the classification of current sponsorship advertising market presented herein gives rise potentially interesting research topics related to measurement of effectiveness on sports sponsorship. Sponsorship is currently a key aspect of integrated brand promotions as well as an ability to determine the effectiveness of sponsorship as a means to increase sales and high return on investments. Therefore, further research on the effectiveness of sponsorship will fulfill primary concern and needs of sports organizations and marketers.

Appendix A

Survey Questions

Survey Items

1. The following is a list of professional teams in National Football League. Which of the following teams is your favorite team?

Baltimore Ravens	Denver Broncos	New Orleans Saints	Miami Dolphins	Seattle Seahawks	New York Jets	St. Louis Rams
Tampa Bay Buccaneers	Washington Redskins	Cleveland Browns	Jacksonville Jaguars	Minnesota Vikings	Detroit Lions	Arizona Cardinals
San Francisco 49ers	Green Bay Packers	Indianapolis Colts	New England Patriots	Pittsburgh Steelers	New York Giants	I don't have any favorite team in National Football League
Carolina Panthers	Dallas Cowboys	Kansas City Chiefs	Cincinnati Bengals	Buffalo Bills	Chicago Bears	
Atlanta Falcons	Houston Texans	San Diego Chargers	Philadelphia Eagles	Oakland Raiders	Tennessee Titans	

You will see a print advertisement for 30 seconds. After you observe the ad, a few questions regarding to the ad will be asked. Please answer the questions based on what you have observed in the ad.

2. Please indicate the level of agreement with each of the following statements by clicking on the appropriate button.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat Disagree (3)	Neither Agree nor Disagree (4)	Somewhat Agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
There is a logical connection between the event and the sponsor. (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The image of the event and the image of the sponsor are similar. (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The sponsor and the event fit together well. (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company and the event stand for similar things. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It makes sense to me that this company sponsors this event. (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

3. The page exposed to you contains two logos. Please choose the one you remember.
- National Football League Logo Design
 - Dallas Cowboys Logo Design
4. Please rate the extent to which you feel toward each of the following statements by clicking on the appropriate button. Rate each on a scale from 1-7 (1=Low Identification/Commitment, 7=High Identification/Commitment).

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)
How important to You is it that the Dallas Cowboys wins? (1)	<input type="radio"/>						
How strongly do You see yourself as a fan of the Dallas Cowboys? (2)	<input type="radio"/>						
How strongly do your Friends see You as a fan of the Dallas Cowboys? (3)	<input type="radio"/>						
During the season, how closely do you follow the Dallas Cowboys via ANY of the following: a) in person or on television, b) on the radio, c) television news or a newspaper, or d) on the internet? (4)	<input type="radio"/>						
How important is being a fan of the Dallas Cowboys to You? (5)	<input type="radio"/>						
How much do You dislike Dallas Cowboys' greatest rivals? (6)	<input type="radio"/>						
How often do You display the Dallas Cowboys' name or insignia at your place of work, where you live, or on your clothing? (7)	<input type="radio"/>						

5. Please indicate your attitude toward the advertisement, by clicking on the appropriate button.

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Bad	<input type="radio"/>	Good						
Unpleasant	<input type="radio"/>	Pleasant						
Unfavorable	<input type="radio"/>	Favorable						

6. Understanding: Please rate the ad by telling us how much you agree with each statement.

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat Disagree (3)	Neither Disagree nor Agree (4)	Somewhat Agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly Agree (7)
I clearly understood the ad (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The ad was too complex (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I was not sure what was going on in the ad (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The ad did not make an impression on me. (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It required a lot of effort to follow the ad (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

*Display Logic. Answer if a Stimulus A is Displayed Or a Stimulus AA is Displayed

7. Please indicate your attitude toward the sponsor, Gatorade, by clicking on the appropriate button.

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Bad	<input type="radio"/>	Good						
Unpleasant	<input type="radio"/>	Pleasant						
Unfavorable	<input type="radio"/>	Favorable						

*Display Logic. Answer if a Stimulus A is Displayed Or a Stimulus AA is Displayed

8. If Gatorade were made available in your area at a reasonable price, how likely is it that you would consider purchasing Gatorade?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	8 (8)	9 (9)	
Unlikely	<input type="radio"/>	Likely								
Improbable	<input type="radio"/>	Probable								
Definitely would not	<input type="radio"/>	Definitely would								

*Answer if a Stimulus B is Displayed Or a Stimulus BB is Displayed

9. Please indicate your attitude toward the sponsor, Raid, by clicking on the appropriate button.

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Bad	<input type="radio"/>	Good						
Unpleasant	<input type="radio"/>	Pleasant						
Unfavorable	<input type="radio"/>	Favorable						

*Answer if a Stimulus B is Displayed Or a Stimulus BB is Displayed

10. If Raid were made available in your area at a reasonable price, to what extent would you consider purchasing?

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	
Bad	<input type="radio"/>	Good						
Unpleasant	<input type="radio"/>	Pleasant						
Unfavorable	<input type="radio"/>	Favorable						

Note: Now, just a few demographic questions left. They are asked for statistical purposes only. Please be assured that the information you provide will remain strictly confidential and will only be used in an aggregate manner for analysis purpose.

[Demographic Factors]

1. Gender
 - a. Male
 - b. Female

2. In what year were you born?
 ()

3. What is the highest level of education you have completed thus far?
 - a. Less than high school
 - b. High school / GED
 - c. Some college
 - d. 2-year college degree
 - e. 4-year college degree
 - f. Masters degree
 - g. Doctoral degree
 - h. Professional degree (JD, MD)
 - i. Others; specify _____

4. Please specify your ethnicity.
 - a. White
 - b. Hispanic or Latino origin
 - c. African American
 - d. Asian or Pacific Islander
 - e. Native American or Alaskan Native
 - f. Other; specify _____

5. Please indicate your household income before tax in 2013.
- a. Less than \$20,000
 - b. \$20,000 - \$39,999
 - c. \$40,000 - \$59,999
 - d. \$60,000 - \$79,999
 - e. \$80,000 - \$99,999
 - f. \$100,000 or more
 - g. Prefer not to say

Thank you for participating in this study.

Appendix B

Stimuli

- ❖ A stimulus with a brand sponsoring overall league/association and a sport related product



It helps me
win my battle, Thirst.

Gatorade is a proud sponsor of



- ❖ A stimulus with a brand sponsoring a professional sport team and a sport related product



It helps me
win my battle, Thirst.

Gatorade is a proud sponsor of



- ❖ A stimulus with a brand sponsoring overall league/association and a sport unrelated product



It helps me
win my battle, Bugs.

Raid is a proud sponsor of



- ❖ A stimulus with a brand sponsoring a professional sport team and a sport unrelated product



It helps me
win my battle, Bugs.

Raid is a proud sponsor of



Appendix C
Informed Consent Form

Title: Sports event sponsorship and marketing communication

IRB PROTOCOL #: 2015-11-0048

Conducted By:

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As a panel of Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk), you are being asked to participate in a research study. This form provides you with information about the study. Please read the information below and ask any questions you might have before deciding whether or not to take part. You may e-mail Hwanjong Cho, at hwan20204@utexas.edu with questions. Your participation is entirely voluntary. You can refuse to participate without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You can stop your participation at any time and your refusal will not impact current or future relationships with UT Austin. To do so simply close the online survey. You may print this consent for your records.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of social alliances with a sports team, spectators' perceptions of sponsor-event congruence, the level of market segmentation in sponsorship, and how these factors relate to spectators' attitude toward corporate sponsors explained by interactions.

If you agree to be in this study, we will ask you to do the following things:

- Share information such as your age and gender.
- Report the opinions and thoughts regarding the print advertisement.
- Report the attitude toward a sponsor.

Total estimated time to participate in study is between 5 and 10 minutes.

Total participants of this study are a panel of 300 people from MTurk.

Risks/Benefits

There are no known risks. There will be no costs for participating, nor will you benefit from participating. The potential risks of being in the study are no greater than everyday life. This survey may involve risks that are currently unforeseeable. If you wish to discuss the information above or any other risks you may experience, you may ask questions now or call the Principal Investigator listed on the front page of this form.

Confidentiality and Privacy Protections:

- Personal information about your participation will be destroyed once data is collected. Any identifying information but IDs will not be collected. Your ID will only be used for compensation and be removed from the final data set. Therefore,

there is no potential risk of re-identification of study participants. All results will be kept anonymity of individual respondents.

- The data resulting from your participation may be made available to other researchers in the future for research purposes not detailed within this consent form. In these cases, the data will contain no identifying information that could associate you with it, or with your participation in any study.
- MTurk worker IDs will not be shared with anyone outside of the research team and will not be linked to survey response.

The records of this study will be stored securely and kept confidential on a password protected computer. Authorized persons from The University of Texas at Austin, members of the Institutional Review Board have the legal right to review your research records and will protect the confidentiality of those records to the extent permitted by law. All publications will exclude any information that will make it possible to identify you as a subject. Throughout the study, the researchers will notify you of new information that may become available and that might affect your decision to remain in the study.

Contacts and Questions:

If you have any questions about the study please e-mail Hwanjong Cho at hwan20204@utexas.edu. If you have questions later, want additional information, or wish to withdraw your participation call the researchers conducting the study. Their names, phone numbers, and e-mail addresses are at the top of this page. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, complaints, concerns, or questions about the research please contact the Office of Research Support at (512) 471-8871 or email: orosc@uts.cc.utexas.edu.

You will be given a copy of this information to keep for your records.

If you agree to participate in this study, please click CONTINUE at this time.

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