

Corporate Sponsorship vs. Traditional Advertising in Sports: An Empirical Comparison

Jeremy Ungerman-Sears

A Thesis
in
The John Molson School of Business

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Science (Administration) at
Concordia University
Montreal, Quebec, Canada

April 2015

© Jeremy Ungerman-Sears, 2015

CONCORDIA UNIVERSITY
School of Graduate Studies

This is to certify that the thesis prepared

By: Jeremy Ungerman-Sears

Entitled: Corporate Sponsorship vs. Traditional Advertising in Sports:
 An Empirical Comparison

and submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Administration (Marketing)

complies with the regulations of the University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

Signed by the final examining committee:

Dr. Harjeet S. Bhabra	_____	Chair
Dr. Bryan Barbieri	_____	Examiner
Dr. Bianca Grohmann	_____	Examiner
Dr. H. Onur Bodur	_____	Supervisor

Approved by Dr. Harjeet S. Bhabra _____
 Chair of Department

Date: _____, 2015

ABSTRACT

Corporate Sponsorship vs. Traditional Advertising in Sports: An Empirical Comparison

Jeremy Ungerman-Sears

With the growth of corporate sport sponsorship as a widely-used marketing tool allowing brands to reach vast audiences, it has become a threat to traditional advertising practices like television advertising. Sponsorship's perceived benefits over advertising operate via a transfer of "goodwill" from the favored sports property (e.g., an iconic hockey franchise like the Toronto Maple Leafs) to the sponsoring brand. Numerous streams of sponsorship research have emerged over the years, yet none have directly compared the performance of corporate sponsorship in professional sport with any type of traditional advertising, on the same set of consumer outcomes. Here, we address this gap by manipulating television (TV) and event sponsorship activations across five conditions, in order to explore significant differences in consumer attitudes and purchase intentions arising from exposure to varying degrees of sponsorship. Our ultimate goal was to conclusively identify whether or not sponsorship is superior to traditional TV advertising for brands.

While our results were not enough to definitively address this question, we did find numerous benefits of TV and event sponsorship over traditional TV advertising that offer promising prospects for future research; namely we saw marked improvements in attitude towards the target brand, aided recall of the sponsoring brand, and sponsor recognition of consumers exposed to TV sponsorship. Further, we found additional benefits of integrating event sponsorship with both types of TV communications, suggesting a synergy effect between the two methods. Individuals' sport involvement and team loyalty were found to partially moderate consumer responses to TV and event sponsorship, while self-construal was not.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would first like to thank my supervisor, Professor Onur Bodur, for his constant guidance on this project, from start to finish. Having never been involved in a project of such magnitude, I felt like a deer in the headlights when I first began. His assistance allowed me to move past this phase, with his patient style of supervision often pushing me to find answers to my own questions. This has no doubt helped my personal growth, and I am grateful to him for his patience and support.

I also wish to express my sincere thanks to the rest of the committee, Professors Bryan Barbieri and Bianca Grohmann, for their valuable support and advice. Professor Barbieri was very helpful when trying to generate sport marketing-related ideas for my thesis at the beginning of the project, and I am grateful for his acting on my committee at its end. I learned much about branding and consumer-brand relationships from Professor Grohmann in her seminar, and this knowledge has certainly influenced this research.

In addition, I am grateful to Maple Leafs Sports and Entertainment (MLSE) for being open-minded about aligning my research with their practical goals. I would like to thank them for giving me the chance to demonstrate that the value of an MSc. thesis goes beyond simply theory.

I would also like to thank my parents for their unwavering support and encouragement throughout my studies at both McGill University and John Molson School of Business. Last, but definitely not least, I would like to thank Hallie, who has helped keep me grounded (and sane) throughout the past several months.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES & TABLES	vii
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	3
2.1 Corporate Sport Sponsorship	3
2.1.1 Introduction to sponsorship	
2.1.2 Relevance of sponsorship	
2.1.3 Goals of sponsorship	
2.1.4 Types of sponsorship (TV and Event)	
2.1.5 The effects of involvement on sponsorship	
2.1.6 Sponsorship as a threat to traditional advertising	
2.1.7 Integrating sponsorship and traditional advertising	
2.2 Comparing Corporate Sponsorship and Traditional Advertising.....	8
2.2.1 Consumer perceptions	
2.2.2 Different routes to persuasion	
2.2.3 Alternative hierarchy of effects model	
2.2.4 Psychological element in sports: Fan loyalty	
2.2.5 Cultural differences: self-construal	
2.3 Evaluating Effectiveness of Sponsorships vs. Traditional Advertising	15
2.3.1 Evaluating sponsorships versus traditional advertising	
2.3.2 Evaluating sponsorships	
2.3.3 Metrics for comparison (dependent variables)	
2.4 Hypotheses	18
3. METHODOLOGY	19
3.1 Participants.....	19
3.2 Design	19
3.3 Procedures	19
3.4 Stimulus Materials	20
3.5 Measures.....	22

4. RESULTS.....	25
4.1 Sample	25
4.2 Measures.....	25
4.3 Manipulation Check	26
4.4 Hypothesis Testing	28
4.4.1 Addressing ANOVA's Assumptions	
4.4.2 One-Way ANOVA	
4.4.3 Two-Way ANOVA	
4.4.4 Two-Way ANCOVA (with Control Variables)	
4.4.5 Moderation Analysis	
5. CONCLUSION	36
5.1 General Discussion	36
5.2 Limitations	39
5.3 Future Research.....	41
REFERENCES.....	43
APPENDICES	50
Appendix A – TV and Event Sponsorship in the National Hockey League	50
Appendix B – Web Links to Video Stimuli	51
Appendix C – Replicated Analyses with Reduced Dataset	52

LIST OF FIGURES & TABLES

Figure 1. Attitude Toward Target Brand – Results	28
Figure 2. Purchase Intention – Results	28
Figure 3. Event Sponsorship x Sport Involvement Interaction – Model	35
Figure 4. Event Sponsorship x Team Loyalty Interaction – Model	35
Table 1. Stimulus Video Content	21
Table 2. Reliability Summary	26
Table 3. One-Way ANOVA Results – Hypotheses.....	30
Table 4. Moderation Regression Results: Sport Involvement	33
Table 5. Moderation Regression Results: Team Loyalty.....	34
Table 6. Moderation Regression Results: Self-Construal.....	34
Table 7. Moderation Regression Results – Hypotheses	35

1. INTRODUCTION

Corporate sponsorship, a practice that has been growing for decades, is a vital marketing tool for many organizations around the world. Within the sponsorship field, sports sponsorship is by far the most popular type (Ngan, Prendergast, & Tsang, 2009); in 2002, more than 70% of sponsorship dollars were invested in sport and sports events (Crompton, 2004). Corporate sponsorship of a sports team can be activated through two mediums: television (TV) spots which leverage the partnership between the sports property and the sponsoring brand, and/or event signage, the branding of sponsors that can be seen around the area of play. The growth of both methods within the marketing landscape has made sponsorship an important marketing tool given its flexibility, broad reach, and the high level of brand exposure it offers (Kropp, Lavack, Holden, & Dalakas, 1999). Yet in spite of its growth, and the benefits corporate sponsorship offers, television remains the base medium for most major advertisers (Harvey, Gray & Despain, 2006). However, with the growing media fragmentation experienced by consumers today (Porter & Golan, 2006), the dominance of traditional TV advertising in the advertising marketplace appears to be nearing its end. In this competitive environment, findings that indicate the relative superiority of one marketing action over another are highly valuable. Hence, the ultimate goal of this research is to compare corporate sponsorship (TV and event) with traditional TV advertising, on two consumer outcomes, attitude and purchase intention toward the brand, in order to determine if sponsorship offers more benefits to brands than traditional advertising.

As such, this study attempts to answer the following research questions: (1) *Does TV sponsorship produce more positive consumer outcomes than traditional TV advertising?* (2) *Does integrated event sponsorship improve the performance of either TV sponsorship or traditional TV advertising?* and (3) *Do sport involvement, team loyalty or self-construal moderate consumer responses to TV and event sponsorship?* In exploring these questions, this research makes a valuable contribution to the literature's collective body of knowledge by offering the first direct empirical comparison of corporate sponsorship and traditional television advertising. While the evaluation of sponsorship effects has become a primary concern of academics, sponsors and sports organizations alike (Ko, Kim, Claussen, & Kim, 2008), many believe that sponsorship has not received appropriate attention in the marketing literature (Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Madrigal, 2001; Gwinner & Bennet, 2008). Few scholars have studied the actual influence of sponsorship on consumer behavior (Roy & Cornwell, 2004; Gwinner & Bennet, 2008), and Meenaghan's (2001) conceptual work has yet to be empirically tested. Although research has looked at the individual effectiveness of both corporate sponsorship and traditional TV

advertising on a number of performance metrics, none has yet empirically compared and contrasted the two directly, on the same set of outcomes.

This study analyzes the relative effectiveness of these methods in the context of televised professional sports; specifically, the National Hockey League (NHL). It incorporates Alexandris and Tsiotsou's (2012) alternative three-stage hierarchy of effects model (affect, cognition, conation) and Meenaghan's (2001) "transfer of goodwill" phenomenon to explain the differential effects of the two methods, and uses two well-established performance metrics as the study's dependent variables. The sports property (sponsee) in question is the Toronto Maple Leafs, while the target brand (sponsor) tested is beer company Molson Canadian. As with other recent studies in this area (e.g., Bauer, Stokburger-Sauer, & Exler, 2008) this study focuses only on fans of the Maple Leafs, rather than casual spectators, because fans represent the most important customer segment for sport teams. Sport involvement, team loyalty to the Maple Leafs, and self-construal are all proposed as moderator variables in the relationship between TV/event sponsorship and consumer outcomes; Canadian identification (nationalism), number of years spent in Canada, skepticism towards advertising, and gender are each tested as potential control variables.

This paper breaks down as follows. First, it explores the extant literature on corporate sponsorship and traditional advertising, with particular emphasis on a theoretical comparison of the two methods and their corresponding consumer perceptions, routes to persuasion, and evaluation metrics. This review leads to an identification of the aforementioned gap in the marketing literature that this study intends to fill, outlined in the above research questions. The paper will then describe the research methodology chosen to attempt to answer these questions, and conclude with a discussion of the results, implications, and limitations of this research.

2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Overview of Research

The purpose of this research is to compare two widely-used brand communication methods – corporate sponsorship and traditional television advertising – in terms of two different consumer outcomes: attitude and purchase intention towards the brand. The objective of this section is to provide a review of the literature on both corporate sponsorship and traditional television advertising, compare and contrast these two areas, in terms of consumer and their differing routes to persuasion, and conclude with an overview of the evaluation metrics (dependent variables) used in this study. It will culminate with a series of hypotheses to be experimentally tested. Ultimately, this review aims to demonstrate where the current study fits into the general marketing literature on sponsorship, and explain the gap it intends to fill in the relevant body of knowledge.

2.1 CORPORATE SPORT SPONSORSHIP

2.1.1 Introduction to Corporate Sponsorship

Sponsorship activities in the sports context represent an important stream of research in the marketing literature. Sponsorship can be defined as “an investment, in cash or in kind, in an activity, in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with that activity” (Meenaghan, 1991, p.36). Sponsorship occurs when a corporation funds a program (e.g., television or radio) or event whereby the sponsoring corporation has promotional material included into the program (Mason, 2005). In essence, corporate sport sponsorship demonstrates the alliance and relationship between the sponsoring brand and the commercial sports property (team) or event (Stipp, 1988). This association of event and sponsor is essential for successful sponsorship – without it, the sponsor cannot hope to gain any benefit in terms of brand awareness or positive consumer attitudes (Masterson, 2005). Sponsorship is commonly viewed by researchers as a business-to-business relationship between a sponsor and a sport entity for mutual benefits (Farrelly & Quester, 2005). While the sports property gains financial support as well as other in-kind resources that can help support the team, the sponsoring brand obtains both tangible and intangible benefits of being associated with the sport entity (Chen & Zhang, 2011; Yang, Sparks & Li, 2008). Not only does sport sponsorship represent an important marketing tool for corporate sponsors, but it has also become a valuable income stream for professional sports teams (Buhler, Heffernan, & Hewson, 2007).

2.1.2 Growth/Relevance of Sponsorship

Investments in corporate sport sponsorship have been rapidly growing worldwide over the past several decades (Henseler, Wilson, & Westberg, 2011). Global expenditures reached \$44 billion in 2009 (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012) and grew to an estimated \$48.6 billion in 2011 (Henseler et al., 2011). Of this total global investment, roughly 68% was spent on sports properties, and a total of \$14.4 billion was spent on corporate sport sponsorship in North America alone during this period (Henseler et al., 2011). A recent report by PricewaterhouseCoopers LLP suggests that North American sports industry's revenue is projected to reach \$67.7 billion by 2017 (Bloomberg Research, 2013). Given the booming growth of the industry, corporate sponsorship in sports figures to remain a highly prominent marketing practice for years to come.

2.1.3 Sponsorship Goals

The increased expenditures in sponsorship indicate the perceived effectiveness of sponsorship as a marketing communication tool (Crompton, 2004; Dolphin, 2003; Seguin, Teed, & O'Reilly, 2005). Indeed, sponsorship has been the element with the largest development in comparison with the rest of the communication tools (Tripodi, 2001). Corporate sponsorship has evolved into a core element of marketing strategies used by major corporations, generally used to create brand value and obtain a competitive advantage in the marketplace (Henseler et al., 2011). It has become a powerful marketing strategy, for it allows brands to communicate with vast external and internal audiences to differentiate themselves from their competitors (Cornwell, 2008). According to Gwinner (1997), marketers use sponsorship to achieve two main objectives. First, to increase brand awareness by exposing the brand to as many potential consumers as possible through the use of on-site signage, identification on printed promotional materials, and media coverage (Madrigal, 2000). Second, marketers seek to establish, enhance or change a brand image by linking their brands to a favorite cause, event or sports property (Madrigal, 2000). Regardless of the specifics of a company's sponsorship program, the ultimate goal of any sponsorship is to orient consumer preferences toward sponsors' products (Barros & Silvestre, 2006).

2.1.4 Types of Sponsorship (TV & Event)

The two most prominent methods for brands to communicate their sponsorship of a professional sports team to consumers are television sponsorship and event (on-site) sponsorship (Lardinoit & Quester, 2001). TV sponsorship is a common practice by advertisers

who want their name associated with a specific TV program (e.g., game broadcast) or its promotion (Lardinoit & Quester, 2001). TV sponsorships are the 10 to 15-second announcements (or “underwriting spots”) made just prior and/or just after programming breaks in the broadcast, indicating the brand’s partnership with the sports team. They typically show a brand logo in conjunction with a very simple message such as “this program is sponsored by [...]” (Olson & Thjomoe, 2010). Event sponsorship refers to the placement of a logo on sports equipment or billboards at the scene of the event (Lardinoit & Derbaix, 2001). With event sponsorship, there is the potential for distraction by other sponsors and the event itself (Lardinoit & Derbaix, 2001) given its placement within the game. The present study will refer to televised broadcast sponsorship as “TV sponsorship” and on-site sponsorship signage as “event sponsorship”. See Appendix A for examples of TV and event sponsorship activations in sport.

2.1.5 The Effects of Involvement on Sponsorship

Involvement corresponds to a kind of genuine enthusiasm, a strong and solid interest that comes from the relevance of a subject for the individual (Lardioit & Derbaix, 2001). A consumer’s sports involvement is defined as “the perceived interest in and personal importance of sports to an individual” (Shank & Beasley, 1998, p.436). In sports, involvement leads the individual to watch events on television, and consequently, increases the exposure of the viewer to the sponsor’s stimuli. In fact, research shows that highly involved fans will pick up on event sponsorship better than those less involved, because highly involved fans are more knowledgeable and thus more sensitive to the environment around the event as they strive to know everything related to it (Lardinoit & Derbaix, 2001). Interestingly, Lardinoit and Derbaix (2001) found a significant effect on unaided recall arising from exposure to event sponsorship; however this was only present among subjects with high involvement. This suggests that to be effective, event sponsorship has to be seen by television viewers who are characterized by high levels of involvement in sporting events (Lardinoit & Derbaix, 2001). In contrast, the effects of TV sponsorship on unaided recall were not found to be influenced by involvement (Lardinoit & Derbaix, 2001). TV sponsorships are less affected by the type of emotions generated by an event and experience no distractions caused by the event (Lardinoit & Quester, 2001). Lardinoit and Derbaix (2001) also found that TV and event sponsorship do not interact positively, except in the case of highly involved viewers. They note that “the contrast between the results achieved in the low-involvement situation and the high-involvement situation is striking” (Lardinoit & Derbaix, 2001, p.179). Collectively, these findings suggest that sports involvement should be included in this study as a moderating variable.

2.1.6 Sponsorship as a Threat to Traditional TV Advertising

Advertising is a major decision variable for marketing managers, affecting millions of dollars of brand support in many firms (Olson & Thjomoe, 2010). It can be defined as “the non-personal communication of information, usually paid for and usually persuasive in nature about products, services, or ideas by identified sponsors through the various media” (Bovee, 1992, p.7). The most popular choice among all media vehicles for advertisers is television (Chithra & Kothai, 2014), which has long been the dominant method for mass communications. Television advertising consists of short spans of programming, which generally employ attention-capturing elements such as catchy and pleasing music, lyrics, jingles, visuals and humor (Chithra & Kothai, 2014). The vast majority of TV advertisements today consist of brief advertising “spots” or “commercials”, ranging in length from a few seconds to several minutes, although 30 seconds is the standard duration. These spots offer some sort of advertising message detailing brand attributes and benefits, and sometimes provide a toll-free number for immediate response (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005). Unlike sponsorship, whose message is delivered by association with the sponsored event, TV advertising uses a mixture of ‘visuals, vocals and context’ to convey its message to the audience (Meenaghan, 2001). This study will refer to television advertising as “traditional advertising” or “traditional TV advertising” given its long-standing use as a conventional form of mass media.

However, despite – or perhaps because of – its vast integration into our daily lives in the past several decades, some believe that TV advertising is nearing its end (Porter & Golan, 2006). The New York Times and Wall Street Journal both declared that the future of the 30-second spot is in doubt (Manly, 2005). A 2004 survey found that 65 percent of consumers feel bombarded with too many advertising messages, and 60 percent have a more negative opinion of advertising than they did a few years prior (Porter & Golan, 2006). The same study found that almost 60 percent of consumers felt that TV advertising had nothing relevant to offer them (Porter & Golan, 2006). Traditional TV advertising provides an abundant display of persuasion attempts; by age 20, Americans have seen over a half million TV ads (Friestad & Wright, 1995). However, recent research (Thinkbox, 2014) has found that TV advertising remains the most effective form of advertising and creates the most profit for businesses pound-for-pound. According to this study, TV remains the lead effectiveness channel across many different categories, particularly driven by its ability to optimize the impact of other media (Thinkbox, 2014).

While traditional TV advertising is still quite prominent, there is no doubt that media fragmentation is on the rise, with consumers having an ever-increasing number of mediums from

which to choose (Porter & Golan, 2006). The vast growth of corporate sponsorship (both TV and event) have made it a key competitor for marketing budget resources (Brennan, 2009; Olson & Thjomoe, 2009). While global marketing spends grew by 41 percent between 2003 and 2011, growth in global media spends on sponsorship grew by 88 percent during the same period (MediaCom Research, 2013). The fact that corporate sponsorship is indeed growing at a faster rate than the other communication tools suggests that it must be taken seriously as a key competitive threat to traditional TV advertising. Further, sponsorship provides a reasonable basis for comparison with traditional TV advertising because the communication goals for both are similar (Harvey, 2001).

2.1.7 Integrating Sponsorship and TV Advertising

In examining and comparing sponsorship with traditional TV advertising, it is easy to forget another option: integrating them. Numerous authors have suggested that the best practice for advertising through sport is to integrate event sponsorship with TV advertising, linking advertising and sponsorship messages. The unique properties of the two media offer synergistic opportunities that are not available when employed separately (Smolianov & Shilbury, 2005). Traditional advertising is often used to announce the sponsorship and all its benefits to audiences who otherwise might not know about it at all (Crimmins & Horn, 1996), and sponsorship can generate valuable publicity as well as offering opportunities for corporate hospitality (Masterson, 2005). In fact, Walliser (2003) found that sponsorship's impact upon brand recall and image is largely dependent on its integration with other promotional tools, such as TV advertising.

In pursuing event sponsorship and TV advertising synergy, many firms attempt to “activate” the sponsorship through 1) increased exposure intensity (Lardinoit & Derbaix, 2001), 2) increased ability to explain the fit between sponsor and object in cases where there is no “natural fit” (Cornwell et al., 2006; Simmons & Becker-Olson, 2006), and 3) preventing marketers from buying advertising during the sponsored event and thereby stealing recognition as the official sponsor (Meenaghan, 1996; Olson & Thjomoe, 2009). Olson & Thjomoe (2009) found a significant synergy effect from combining TV advertising with moderate amounts of event sponsorship exposure, on three out of four communication effects. Sponsor recognition and positive purchase intention all increased when the event sponsorship program was activated through traditional TV advertising, while sponsor brand liking remained unchanged (Olson & Thjomoe, 2009). Unknown brands were found to benefit the most with the addition of TV advertising, since they require the highest amount of sponsor exposure to equal the “synergy”

condition (312 s on average; Olson & Thjomoe, 2009). These findings indicate that the use of both mediums together provides synergistic benefits to brands over using either alone. This study aims to extend these empirical findings by exploring the synergistic effects of TV advertising and sponsorship on attitude and purchase intention towards the brand. Further, it will attempt to add external validity to the findings by testing the relative effectiveness of event sponsorship in a different sports context; the placement and intensity of signage in Norwegian Handball (the setting for Olson & Thjomoe, 2009) differs significantly from that of a North American ice hockey arena.

2.2 COMPARING CORPORATE SPONSORSHIP AND TRADITIONAL ADVERTISING

2.2.1 Consumer Perceptions

Although corporate sponsorship and traditional advertising often share communication goals, they tend to be perceived differently by consumers. In short, sponsorship is more accepted by the public than traditional advertising (Lardinoit & Quester, 2001). Mason (2005) suggests that this may be because people know many events would not exist without sponsorship; however, there is no empirical evidence for this. In terms of comparing consumer perceptions, Meenaghan's (2001) conceptual work represents the seminal research in this area, although his qualitative research methods (e.g., in-depth interviews and focus groups) have yet to be empirically verified.

Meenaghan (2001) found that consumers perceive sponsorship as "subtle and indirect, involving a disguised attempt to persuade resulting in a lowering of consumer defense mechanisms" (p.101). Because of this, sponsorship is not seen as promoting commercialization. Meenaghan (2001) further found that consumers generally appreciate the benefits of sponsorship for activities in which they are involved, and subsequently develop positive attitudes toward sponsorship (Madrigal, 2001). By bestowing benefit on an activity which the consumer has an intense emotional response to, sponsorship engages the consumer and generates feelings of "goodwill", which influence their attitudes and subsequent behaviors toward brands (Meenaghan, 2001). These factors combine to make a consumer's defense mechanisms low when perceiving sponsorship (Mason, 2005). Consumers aware of a company's sponsorship activities have reported more favourable images of the associated brand, perceptions of the company and its products/services, and opinions of its community relations (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Dean 1999). In one study, consumers perceived a company to be a better corporate citizen when an ad informed them that it sponsored a favorable event (Dean, 1999). Although most consumers understand the commercial interests behind sponsorship, it is generally

believed that companies participating in sponsorship are supporters of worthwhile causes and events that would not be possible without such support (Stipp & Schiavone, 1996).

In contrast to sponsorship, attitudes toward traditional advertising can be described as more negative. According to Meenaghan (2001) “in the case of advertising the company was seen as being selfish, in that advertising served no interests other than that of the advertiser... there was a general feeling that advertising was an omnipresent force from which escape was difficult” (p.201). Since TV advertising is a more direct form of communication than sponsorship, consumer defense mechanisms are higher when watching traditional TV commercials (Mason, 2005). In effect, respondents claimed to be on a higher state of alert when confronted by advertising than when confronted by sponsorship (Meenaghan, 2001). In Meenaghan’s (2001) study, one of the most important distinguishing factors between sponsorship and traditional advertising centered on perceived commercial intent; essentially, advertising was seen as being much more overt in terms of greater intent to persuade than sponsorship. A common theme was that advertising was seen as “blatant”, “coercive”, and “forceful” (p.203). Interestingly, this perception seemed to engender negative reactions in respondents, and encourage their sense of wariness in their relationships with the advertising brand. In light of these findings, it appears that an individual’s overall attitude towards advertising itself will bear a significant influence on their evaluation of the advertising brand. This suggests the potential importance of including a control variable to measure an individual’s general tendency to disbelieve advertising claims, such as Obermiller and Spangenberg’s (1998) ‘skepticism toward advertising’ scale. Theoretical tests may be improved by controlling for the main effects of individual differences, and skepticism towards advertising appears to capture the relevant discrepancies across consumers.

Olson and Thjomoe (2009) suggest three differences in the audience experience between traditional TV advertising and event sponsorship specifically. First, the movement of the TV camera often chops up audience exposure to the sponsoring brand during the event as it follows the live action in the arena; in contrast, traditional advertising is concentrated within one or more 30-second TV spots (Olson & Thjomoe, 2009). Second, advertising tends to include a “message” of some type that typically requires some level of cognition and comprehension in the process (Olson & Thjomoe, 2009). Research shows that the message’s persuasiveness is typically highest in situations where the audience has little previous knowledge about the advertised brand or product (Cornwell et al., 2005; Crompton, 2004). In contrast, event sponsor exposure is typically passive with simple perimeter boards around the playing surface, and persuasion is indirect through “mere exposure effect” and image and affect transfer from object to sponsor (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Olson & Thjomoe, 2003). Third, relative to advertising that

is likely most persuasive for new brands, research has found the persuasive ability of sponsorship likely to be hampered for lesser known brands, as they are less likely to be identified as the sponsor (Johar, Pham, & Wakefield, 2006). Although sponsorship literature has noted how the mediums differ regarding audience experience, cognition requirements, and persuasion processes, no previous research has empirically verified the relative effectiveness of event sponsorship versus traditional TV advertising.

2.2.2 Routes to Persuasion

In line with existing findings, Harvey (2001) found that there are several benefits of sponsorship over mass advertising, in large part because sponsorship operates through different cognitive processes than advertising (Mason, 2005). Specifically, what causes persuasion in the sponsorship context appears to be logically different from what causes persuasion in the advertising context (Harvey, Gray, & Despain, 2006).

The strength of a conventional TV advertisement is in its propensity to send a direct and specific message (Smolianov & Shilbury, 2005), hence traditional advertising appears to work by causing improvements directly in brand perception. With traditional advertising, the medium and the message are controlled by the advertiser and can be explicitly linked to the relevant organization or brand (Javalgi, Raishekhar, Traylor, Gross, & Lampman, 1994). TV and event sponsorship, on the other hand, facilitate an opportunity to indirectly deliver a message (e.g., increase brand awareness and enhance brand image, which could lead to increased sales; Smolianov & Shilbury, 2005). While traditional advertising is able to communicate complex messages, both in terms of information and imagery (Hastings, 1984), sponsorship instead persuades indirectly by linking the sponsor's message to an event or organization (Pham, 1992). Fundamentally, the persuasive strength of sponsorship lies in its ability to convey the commercial message and influence the consumer in a more voluntary fashion than traditional advertising (Smolianov & Shilbury, 2005). It appears to work by causing improvements directly in the perception of the sponsoring company and often indirectly by "halo effect" in the brand perception (Harvey et al., 2006). This halo effect operates to maintain perceived self-consistency, and thereby minimize cognitive dissonance (Beckwith & Lehmann, 1975). However, even when brand perception is not affected, sponsorship can increase purchase intent, apparently as result of gratitude toward the sponsor. Sponsorship increases the consumer's willingness to do business with a sponsor to whom they have gratitude, and this generally lifts brand perception via the halo effect (Harvey et al., 2006). While they did not operationalize the concept of gratitude/appreciation, Harvey et al (2006) use it theoretically to explain the process

of persuasion via sponsorship. Regardless of the persuasive differences between traditional advertising and sponsorship, it is clear that both media can contribute to changing the attitudes and behavior of sports viewers (Smolianov & Shilbury, 2005).

2.2.3 Alternative Hierarchy of Effects Model

Much of advertising theory, research and managerial concern has focused on variations of hierarchy of effects models that typically begin with awareness and end with a purchase (Olson & Thjomoe, 2009). Poon and Prendergast (2006) argued that the traditional hierarchy of effects model (cognition, affect and conation) can be applied in the context of sponsorship, and while this sequence is feasible for consumer behavior in general, Alexandris and Tsiotsou (2012) suggest that it fails to consider the psychological connection that individuals develop with sports teams and its role in guiding sport consumer behavior (Funk & James, 2006).

Research shows that with hedonic products, affect plays an important role in sport consumer behavior (Funk & James, 2006), as consumers develop psychological connections with their favorite teams and use the team as a means to express their self-concept and self-identity (Funk & James, 2006). Sport consumption by highly identified fans is likely not guided primarily by cognitive evaluations related to the quality of the sponsors' brands, which the traditional hierarchy of effects model suggests (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012). The traditional model also does not fit with Meenaghan's (2001) "transfer of goodwill" phenomenon associated with sponsorship.

In their research, Alexandris and Tsiotsou (2012) test the applicability of the alternative three-stage hierarchy of effects model (affect, cognition, conation), and find that team attachment (affective stage) influences consumer perceptions of sponsor image and attitudes toward sponsorship (cognitive stage), which in turn influence behavioral intentions (conation stage). This line leads them to adopt the development of positive sport consumer behavioral intentions (conation stage) as the metric of sponsorship effectiveness (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012). Specifically, Alexandris and Tsiotsou (2012) demonstrate that a consumer's attachment with a sports team represents the affective stage of their alternative model. Sport team attachment has been defined as a consumer's psychological connection to a sport team (Funk, Haugtvedt & Howard, 2000), which is developed based on fans' feelings and emotions. They further proposed that sport team attachment is driven by an individual's involvement with a particular sports team (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012). It has been suggested that in the case of sport and leisure, involvement has a psychological element (Funk & James, 2006) related to an individual's affective attitude toward the object in question (e.g., favorite sports team). This

psychological element involves the ability of a product (sports team) to provide pleasure (attraction dimension of involvement) and position the product in a central role in an individual's life (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012). These findings are in line with Lardinoit and Derbaix (2001), as discussed earlier, and support the relevance of sport involvement in evaluating sponsorships.

2.2.4 The Psychological Connection in Sports: Fan Loyalty

The psychological connection of consumers to their favorite sports team has been researched and written about using various titles, including team identification (Wann & Branscombe, 1993), attraction (Hansen & Gauthier, 1989), association (Gladden et al., 1998), attachment (Funk, Haugtvedt, & Howard, 2000), involvement (Kerstetter & Kovich, 1997), importance (Funk & Pastore, 2000) and psychological connection to a team (Funk & James, 2006). In the sports literature, the concept of psychological attachment has often been discussed as a means to capture the attitudinal component of team loyalty (Bauer et al., 2008; Neale & Funk, 2006).

In the sports context, a fan can be defined as someone who perceives themselves as a fan of a certain team or a sport in general (Dietz-Uhler, Harrick, End, & Jaquemotte, 2000). Aside from their behaviors, fans can be differentiated by their degree of attachment to a team – their attitudinal loyalty – a concept which has only recently been examined (Bauer et al., 2008). The research landscapes of sport management and psychology have tended to emphasize behavioral indicators of team loyalty such as attendance figures and merchandise sales (e.g. Funk, Mahony & Ridinger, 2002; Hansen & Gauthier, 1989). The attitudinal dimension of team loyalty comprises the inner relatedness of fans to their team and distinguishes between spurious loyalty (one who does not possess a strong positive attitude but who nevertheless watches games on an ongoing basis; Backman & Crompton, 1991) and “true” loyalty (Bauer et al., 2008). As Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) note, neither behavioral nor psychological relatedness alone can sufficiently explain consumer loyalty. To fully understand the concept of team loyalty it is important to measure both the attitudinal and behavior components (Kaynak, Salman, & Tatoglu, 2008).

Bauer et al (2008) suggest that the attitudinal dimension of fan loyalty is represented by the psychological commitment of a fan to a team, with commitment generally defined as the emotional or psychological attachment to a brand (Beatty & Kahle, 1988). Fans show a high level of psychological commitment if they feel a deep inner attachment to their favorite team, and if their commitment persists over time and is able to resist criticism (Gladden & Funk, 2001; Mahony, Madrigal & Howard, 2000). The behavioral component of loyalty represents past

behavior (e.g., purchasing behavior and word-of-mouth) as well as purchase intentions for the future (Bauer et al., 2008). Past loyal behaviors in the team sport context include attending team games live in the stadium, watching games on television, consuming other team-related media, purchasing team merchandise, wearing the team's colors or logo, and convincing others to support the team (Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2003; Funk & Pastore, 2000; Gladden & Funk, 2001; Mahony et al., 2000).

This review suggests the potential importance of the consumer's psychological attachment to the team as a moderating variable to their response to sponsorship. To build a composite (behavior + attitude) measure of fan loyalty, Bauer et al (2008) adapted numerous items from existing scales and developed additional items from the literature for inclusion. Attitudinal loyalty was measured by items adapted from the Psychological Commitment to a Team (PCT) scale (Mahony et al., 2000) and from the Team Association Model (TAM; Gladden & Funk, 2001). Several items regarding the notion of committed fans caring deeply about the future welfare of the team were drawn from Garbarino and Johnson's (1999) commitment scale and included in the attitudinal dimension of the scale. To formulate the behavioral items of the scale, they used both general measures of brand loyalty (Homburg & Giering, 1999) and sport-specific measures (e.g., Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2003). Such a comprehensive measure of fan loyalty offers somewhat of a catch-all metric which roughly encompasses team identification, attachment, commitment and association, all relevant measures according to the literature. The inclusion of items from a broad range of theoretical scales, and the incorporation of a behavioral element allows it to fully capture the essence of fan loyalty as a construct (Bauer et al., 2008), and will thus be tested in this research as a moderator variable.

2.2.5 Cultural Differences: Self-Construct

One dimension that has yet to be explored in the literature is the potential moderating role of culture and ethnicity on consumer responses to corporate sponsorship programs. Markus and Kitayama (1991) argue that self-construals play a major role in regulating various psychological processes (e.g., cognition, emotion and motivation), which will vary according to the exact form or organization of self inherent in a given construal. They illustrate that Western cultures prioritize the individual over the group, and individuals seek independence, autonomy, and separateness from others (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). In East Asian cultures, however, the group is prioritized over the individual, and individuals seek to fit into the group and maintain harmony in the group. They coined the term *self-construal* to describe the ways that Americans and Japanese define and make meaning of the self. While they note that many construals of the

self can exist, the two self-construals they identify (and which have since become synonymous with the idea of self-construal) are independent and interdependent (Markus & Kitayama, 1991). They proposed that Europeans and Americans construe the self as fundamentally individual and separate from others, labeling this the *independent self-construal* (IndSC). In contrast, they showed that the Japanese tend to construe the self as fundamentally connected to others and defined by relationships with others, labeling this the *interdependent self-construal* (InterSC; Cross, Hardin, & Gercek-Swing, 2011). Social psychology research supports that individuals fall along a continuum on both dimensions, but do possess a predominant self-view that is more easily accessible and exerts more influence on an individual's thoughts and behaviors (Singelis, 1994). Given that the psychological processes are considered to vary across the two types of self-construal, it follows that different methods of brand communication (sponsorship and traditional advertising) may have a differential impact on the two types of individuals.

As Singelis and Brown (1995) describe, the focus on harmonious relationships and the definition of the self in terms of close relationships and in-groups among those with high InterSC should result in a preference for indirect communication (e.g., corporate sponsorship), sensitivity to the context in social interaction, attention to others' thoughts and feelings, and non-confrontational conflict resolution styles. In contrast, for those with high IndSC, the goal of communication is to express the person's unique goals, wishes, thoughts, feelings, and abilities. As a result, independents should be associated with direct communication styles (e.g., traditional TV advertising), little attention to contextual aspects of social interaction, attention to one's own thoughts and feelings during social interaction, and willingness to engage in confrontational dispute resolution styles. In addition, sports teams (the sponsored entity) are generally highly identifiable socially, and have a great deal of symbolic value to large groups of individuals. The fact that sponsorship relies on the positive feelings associated with group membership, and communicates in a more indirect manner, likely makes it a more suitable advertising method for interdependent self-construals. Independents are thus likely to evaluate traditional advertising more favorably, since it accords with their preference for direct communication, and the lesser degree of importance they place on group-related goals. Given the influence of self-construal on the aforementioned cognitive processes that ultimately lead to consumer attitude formation and behavior, it can logically be tested as a moderator to the proposed relationship of study.

2.3 EVALUATING SPONSORSHIP VS. ADVERTISING EFFECTIVENESS

2.3.1 Direct Comparisons of Sponsorship and Traditional Advertising

In terms of a direct comparison, there is very little knowledge about the relative effectiveness of TV sponsorship and traditional TV advertising (Olson & Thjomoe, 2010). Meenaghan (2001) represents the only attempt to compare the two methods directly in terms of consumer outcomes, and this research utilized only qualitative research methods (e.g., in-depth interviews and focus groups). Olson and Thjomoe (2009) represents the most comprehensive empirical comparison between event sponsorship and TV advertising to date. They found that in general, relatively short exposure to event sponsorship can provide comparable recognition, liking, and intention effects of TV advertising (Olson & Thjomoe, 2009). Olson and Thjomoe (2009) found that it took 127 s of logo exposure during a sponsored game to equal the effects created by the same brands using a traditional 30-second TV advertisement. This led to the suggestion that each 30-second TV commercial equivalent of event sponsorship exposure should be valued at the financial cost of a 30-second spot to reach the same audience (e.g., running the ad during the sponsored event). However, in spite of the findings of Olson and Thjomoe (2009), it is clear that research directly comparing the actual effectiveness of corporate sponsorship (TV and event) and traditional television advertising is at an early stage.

2.3.2 Evaluating Sponsorships

Despite the growth of sponsorship-related research in recent years, marketers still face the problems of how to assess the effects of sport sponsorship on consumer behaviors, and how to determine its business value (Harvey, 2001; Meenaghan, 2001). As such, the research undertaken in order to examine sponsorship effectiveness is in a rather premature stage. It is still questionable whether the use of sponsorship as a strategic tool gives a firm a competitive advantage or has an influence on consumers' purchasing intentions (Theofilou & Ventoura-Neokosmidi, 2008). Little is known about TV sponsorships in general (Brennan, 2009; Masterson, 2005), although determining the value received from marketing investments like communication campaigns is a growing focus of academic research (Lardinoit & Derbaix, 2001; Mizik & Jacobson, 2008; Olson & Thjomoe, 2009).

Although marketers tend to rely on product sales-related indicators when evaluating sponsorship effectiveness (Carrillat, Lafferty, & Hards, 2005), other research has demonstrated the importance of attitude in examining these outcomes (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012). Numerous attitudinal and behavioral indicators have been explored as sponsorship outcomes, such as brand awareness, media exposure, stock prices, recognition and recall rates, sponsor

image, purchase intentions, and word-of-mouth communications (Miloch & Lambrecht, 2006; Crompton, 2004; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Harvey, 2001; Meenaghan, 2001; Pope & Voges, 2000; Cornwell & Maignan, 1998). An increasing number of studies measuring these outcomes in different sport settings have come about in recent years (e.g. Alexandris, Tsaousi, & James, 2007; Christensen, 2006; Miloch & Lambrecht, 2006). However, Alexandris & Tsiotsou (2012) suggest that the use of variables to assess sponsorship effectiveness is still at an early stage. Few studies of sponsorship activity have sound theoretical frameworks to explain how it truly works, and the conceptual works of Meenaghan (2001) and Poon and Prendergast (2006) have yet to be empirically tested.

In light of this discussion and in line with Alexandris and Tsiotsou's (2012) alternative hierarchy of effects model, the present study includes 'attitude toward the brand' (attitudinal) and 'purchase intention' (behavioral) as its two dependent variables. The use of each of these variables (and their measures) has been well-established in the marketing literature, and together they represent a relevant set of consumer responses to brands. Improving consumer attitudes and behavioral intentions towards a brand are common goals of both corporate sponsorship (TV and event) and traditional TV advertising programs, and hence the two methods can be objectively compared across them.

2.3.3 Metrics for Comparison (Dependent Variables)

Sponsors frequently have very similar communication goals revolving around cognitive, affective and behavioral outcomes (Cornwell et al., 2005; Rifon, Choi, Trimble, & Li, 2004; Thjomoe, Olson, & Bronn, 2002; Verity, 2002). Specifically, Olson and Thjomoe (2009) found that the communication goals of brand awareness, brand image, and purchase intent are commonly used for both traditional and sponsored TV commercials (Brennan, 2009; Harvey, 2001; Olson & Thjomoe, 2009). Marketing Evolution, a leading market research firm specializing in measuring advertising effects, generally employ the same three metrics of success for all types of marketing communications (Briggs, Krishnan, & Borin, 2005). These findings corroborate the other relevant research in terms of the importance of capturing both attitudinal and behavioral dimensions of consumers. This study incorporates both dimensions, using consumer attitudes and purchase intentions towards the brand to compare the relative effectiveness of corporate sponsorship and traditional advertising.

Brand image refers to the set of associations linked to the brand that consumers hold in memory (Keller, 1993). Given its crucial contribution to the widely accepted conceptualization of customer-based brand equity suggested by Keller (defined as "the differential effect of brand

knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand"; 1993, p.2), and its prominent role as an objective of sponsorship activities (Cornwell et al., 2001; Meenaghan, 2001b), brand image appears to be a necessary evaluation construct. Today, the predominant approach to understand and academically investigate brand image is by interpreting the construct as the *attitude toward a brand* (Gross, 2014). Brand attitudes are defined as "a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a given object" (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975, p.6). They represent summary judgments and representations of the consumer's overall evaluation of a brand, typically dependent on the beliefs about the attributes and benefits (Bauer et al., 2008). Numerous empirical studies have operationalized brand image from this attitude-based perspective, in order to measure constructs like brand attitude (e.g., Ruth & Simonin, 2006), brand liking (e.g., Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006), attitude towards brand extensions (e.g., Boush & Loken, 1991), or corporate image (e.g., Javalgi et al., 1994). The attitude-based perspective has been widely applied in sponsorship research (Gross, 2014), and as such was selected for inclusion in this research. Gross (2014) modified an original scale (adopted from Lardinoit & Quester, 2001) and selected four items in correspondence with existing empirical work in sponsorship research (Lardinoit & Quester, 2001; Carrillat et al., 2010; Cornwell & Roy, 2004). This measure represents the attitudinal dependent variable in this study.

On the behavioral side, *purchase intention* has become one of the most important measures for the conative stage of consumer behavior (Ngan, Prendergast & Tsang, 2009). It is extensively used by researchers as a proxy measure for purchase behavior (Schlosser, 2003). From a sponsor's perspective, consumer purchase intention is the most useful indicator of sponsorship effectiveness, given its impact on future sales (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013). Several studies have used purchase intentions as the final indicator to evaluate sponsorship effectiveness (e.g., Alexandris et al., 2007; Madrigal, 2001). It is important to get such a measure, especially given the emphasis placed on marketing productivity (i.e. how effective or ineffective marketing spending is) and the need to adequately justify marketing investments (Ngan et al., 2009). In addition, the intent to purchase a sponsor's products is a key indicator for sport entities to legitimize their relationships with actual sponsors and to negotiate future sponsorship contracts (Hong, 2011). Ultimately, the goal of both sponsorship and traditional TV advertising is to induce positive attitudinal feelings and behavioral tendencies from consumers.

2.4 HYPOTHESES

H1: Exposure to TV sponsorship alone will lead to more favorable **(a)** consumer attitudes and **(b)** purchase intentions, as compared to no exposure to brand communication of any kind

H2: Exposure to TV sponsorship alone will lead to more favorable **(a)** consumer attitudes and **(b)** purchase intentions, as compared to exposure to traditional TV advertising alone

H3: Exposure to TV sponsorship, when coupled with exposure to event sponsorship, will lead to more favorable **(a)** consumer attitudes and **(b)** purchase intentions as compared to exposure to TV sponsorship alone

H4: Exposure to traditional TV advertising, when coupled with exposure to event sponsorship, will lead to more favorable **(a)** consumer attitudes and **(b)** purchase intentions as compared to exposure to traditional TV advertising alone

H5: Sport involvement will moderate consumer responses to both TV and event sponsorship. Specifically, **(a)** consumer attitudes and **(b)** purchase intentions will be more favorable for higher involvement individuals than for lower involvement individuals, after exposure to one or both types of sponsorship.

H6: Team loyalty will moderate consumer responses to both TV and event sponsorship. Specifically, **(a)** consumer attitudes and **(b)** purchase intentions will be more favorable for higher loyalty individuals than for lower loyalty individuals, after exposure to one or both types of sponsorship.

H7: Self-construal will moderate consumer responses to both TV and event sponsorship. Specifically, **(a)** consumer attitudes and **(b)** purchase intentions will be more favorable for more interdependent individuals than for more independent individuals, after exposure to one or both types of sponsorship.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 PARTICIPANTS

A total of 223 Canadian fans of the Toronto Maple Leafs participated in this study (*110 males, 113 females; 75% between ages of 18-64*). All participants were (1) fans of the Toronto Maple Leafs and (2) living in Canada, and all were proficient in spoken and written English. Participants for the study were recruited from the online access-panel of the market research company Qualtrics. Given its presentation as an online questionnaire, participants were free to complete the survey anywhere they chose.

3.2 DESIGN

This research explores whether (1) TV sponsorship produces more positive consumer outcomes towards a brand than traditional TV advertising, (2) event sponsorship improves the performance of either method, and (3) sport involvement, team loyalty or self-construal moderate these responses to either type of sponsorship. The study employed a 2 (TV Sponsorship: absent vs. present) x 2 (Event Sponsorship: absent in context vs. present in context) between-subjects design, with an additional control group, to observe differences in brand evaluations across five different conditions.

TV sponsorship comprised of two levels: 'absent' and 'present'. A traditional 30-second TV commercial represented the 'absent' condition. In contrast, a 15-second sponsored TV commercial was used for the 'present' condition of the study. Event sponsorship also comprised of two levels: 'absent in context' and 'present in context'. For the 'absent in context' condition, the on-site signage of the target brand was made invisible to participants, while those in the 'present in context' condition viewed the signage normally. A fifth condition represented the control group, which did not include any type of brand communications from the target brand; the purpose for this condition was simply to serve as a benchmark for comparison to the others.

3.3 PROCEDURES

Prior to beginning the survey, participants had to confirm that they were indeed (a) fans of the Toronto Maple Leafs NHL team, and (b) currently living in Canada, via screen-out questions. Participants were then randomly assigned to one of the five experimental conditions (control group or 2 TV sponsorship x 2 event sponsorship), and then exposed to their corresponding four-minute stimulus video, which was embedded directly into the survey. They then completed scales assessing their attitudes and purchase intentions towards three brands

(two neutral and one target). Finally, participants completed scales assessing their level of sports involvement, loyalty to the Toronto Maple Leafs, self-construal, Canadian identification (nationalism), and skepticism towards advertising.

3.4 STIMULUS MATERIALS

In order to test the hypotheses contained in the proposed research model, a shortened clip of an NHL game broadcast was chosen to serve as the experimental stimulus. For content validity, the video was edited so participants would feel as if they were watching a portion of an NHL game under normal conditions, with all broadcast elements (e.g., gameplay, commentary, commercial breaks) present. The video was created to reflect a short segment of a regular NHL broadcast, as opposed to a summary, or highlight package, to ensure ecological validity. The game in question (Toronto Maple Leafs vs. New Jersey Devils) occurred only two months prior to the launch of the questionnaire, so many team-related elements (e.g., jerseys, players) were current and thus accurately portrayed a standard game.

Canadian beer company Molson Canadian was chosen as the target brand because of their current sponsorship of the Toronto Maple Leafs. As a primary sponsor of the team, Molson activates numerous sponsorship communications, including both TV and event sponsorship. At every Toronto Maple Leafs home game, Molson branding is present on a prominent section of the rink-boards. In addition, all regional team broadcasts (53 per season) are officially sponsored by Molson; several times per broadcast a TV sponsorship spot leverages this partnership. This 15-second spot consist of a static graphic with the Molson Canadian and Toronto Maple Leafs brands side-by-side, while the announcer proclaims *“Molson Canadian Leafs Hockey is brought to you by Molson Canadian: die-hard fan and proud partner of the Toronto Maple Leafs”*. Molson Canadian’s active use of both types of sponsorship, in addition to traditional TV advertising, made it a well-suited target brand for this research.

For the ‘absent’ condition, Traditional TV commercials for two other (neutral) brands were used in order to make up the commercial break in the middle: Home Hardware and Royal Bank of Canada (RBC). These 30-second brand spots were chosen via researcher judgment for their relative lack of viewer memorability, enjoyment and excitement, so as to minimize their distraction from the target Molson commercial. The order of the commercials during the break was Home Hardware – RBC – Molson, for all conditions.

Five versions of the video were created, each identical in every way except for the manipulations of TV Sponsorship (absent vs. present) and Event Sponsorship (absent in context vs. present in context) across the five conditions. The video for the control condition excluded all

Molson communications (e.g., TV sponsorship, traditional TV advertising, and event sponsorship) completely. Each video breaks down into the same sequence of three distinct phases: (i) gameplay, (ii) commercial break, and (iii) return to gameplay. Hence the only variation across videos was the exposure to these two types of sponsorship by Molson; see Table 1 for details of these differences, and Appendix B for web links to each video.

Table 1. Stimulus Video Content

Stimulus Video Content					
	Control	TV Sponsorship Absent	TV Sponsorship Present	Event Sponsorship Absent in Context	Event Sponsorship Present in Context
Gameplay	2:20	2:20	2:20	2:20	2:20
Commercial Break	1. Home Hardware 2. RBC	1. Home Hardware 2. RBC 3. Molson (Traditional)	1. Home Hardware 2. RBC 3. Molson (Sponsorship)	1. Home Hardware 2. RBC 3. Molson (Traditional)	1. Home Hardware 2. RBC 3. Molson (Sponsorship)
Molson Branding on Rink-Boards	No	No	No	Yes	Yes

The only difference for participants in the two TV sponsorship conditions was the third and final TV advertisement within the commercial break; the ‘absent’ condition was exposed to a traditional 30-second Molson TV commercial, while the ‘present’ condition instead saw the 15-second Molson TV sponsorship spot described above. Two different Molson Canadian commercials were used for the ‘absent’ condition, to control for the potential impacts of the commercials’ thematic content. While the first commercial uses humor, the second employs emotional music and video stimuli to deliver Molson’s nationalistic messaging. Data from the two groups were split in half, and scores were averaged across them.

For the event sponsorship variable, the only difference between conditions was the absence (presence) of the Molson Canadian rink-board signage. The videos for the TV sponsorship ‘absent’ and ‘present’ conditions were both edited to remove the Molson branding from the rink-boards during gameplay. Instead of the prominent Molson logo on the rink-boards, these conditions only saw an empty white space. In contrast, the Event Sponsorship ‘absent in context’ and ‘present in context’ both viewed the normal rink-board arrangement, without any editing. This type of manipulation allowed for the impact of event sponsorship to be explored

both in isolation and in conjunction with TV sponsorship. By the completion of the four-minute video, participants had seen roughly 2 minutes and 20 seconds of standard game action, with the Molson rink-boards noticeable throughout most of it. This timing is in line with Olson and Thjomoe's (2009) finding that it takes approximately 127 s of logo exposure to equal the effects created using a traditional 30-second TV advertisement.

3.5 MEASURES

Dependent variables

For *attitude towards target brand*, the selected measurement approach uses a reverse-coded (e.g., a higher score indicates a more favorable rating) 7-point semantic differential scale with four items: Bad – good, Unappealing – appealing, Dislikeable – likeable, and Unfavorable – favorable. Participants rated Molson Canadian and two neutral brands, Home Hardware and RBC, which were used to disguise the true nature of this research. This item was adopted from Gross (2014) and had high internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .97$).

For *purchase intentions (PI)*, respondents evaluated two items on a 7-point scale (anchored 1 = Strongly disagree to 7 = Strongly agree). Included items were "*I would buy [brand]'s products*" and "*The next time I need to buy a [product type] product, I would consider buying from [brand]*". Participants again rated the Molson Canadian brand in addition to the same two neutral brands. This item was adopted from Gwinner and Bennett (2008) and had high internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .95$).

Moderator variables

Sport involvement was measured using Shank and Beasley's (1998) Sports Involvement Scale (SIS), which includes cognitive and affective dimensions of sports involvement. Both dimensions were related to viewing sport on television, reading about sport in magazines and newspapers, attending sporting events and participating in sport (Ko et al., 2008). The SIS uses a reverse-coded 7-point semantic differential scale with eight items, and responses were scored from 1 (low involvement) to 7 (high involvement) for each item. The eight items include: "to me, watching hockey is" (1) Boring – exciting, (2) Interesting – uninteresting, (3) Valuable – Worthless, (4) Appealing – Unappealing, (5) Useful – useless, (6) Not needed – needed, (7) Irrelevant – Relevant, and (8) Important – Unimportant. The total scores of subjects on the eight items ranged from 8 to 56 (Shank & Beasley, 1998) and the scale had high internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .95$).

To measure *team loyalty*, participants answered questions relating to their level of loyalty to the Toronto Maple Leafs on a modified 11-item scale (Bauer et al, 2008). This composite measure of team loyalty incorporates both attitudinal (seven items) and behavioral (four items) criteria in order to capture the full content of the team loyalty concept. The attitudinal component included statements like *“I am very committed to the Toronto Maple Leafs”* and *“I would defend the Toronto Maple Leafs in public even if this caused problems”*, evaluated on a 7-point scale (anchored 1 = Strongly disagree to 7 = Strongly agree). The behavioral component included statements like *“I have often watched Toronto Maple Leafs games live on TV”* and *“I have often followed reports about Toronto Maple Leafs players, coaches, management, etc. in the media”*, evaluated on the same 7-point scale. The total scores of subjects on the eleven items ranged from 11 to 77, and the scale high internal consistency (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .87$)

To provide a measure of *self-construal*, participants completed a modified Twenty-Statements Test (TST; Kuhn and McPartland, 1954) to measure independent and interdependent self-construal. In this study, the test was modified so that participants had to write at least ten different statements to the question “Who am I?” Responses were then coded in terms of the number of idiocentric (e.g., “I am smart”), group (e.g., “I am a sister”), and allocentric statements (e.g., “People think I am smart”). A ratio score was calculated of the number of idiocentric statements out of the number of total statements provided, for each participant (Trafimow, Triandis, & Goto, 1991). Hence, each participant was assigned a score from 0 – 1, with 0 being completely interdependent and 1 being completely independent. Participants were then classified as having a more independent or interdependent construal of the self, accordingly. This measure of self-construal was adopted from Bodur, Duval, and Grohmann (2013).

Control variables and demographics

In-group (Canadian) identification was assessed using four items on a 5-point Likert scale (anchored from 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree). Items included *“I identify with Canadians”*, *“It is important to me to be Canadian”*, *“I regard myself as a typical Canadian”*, and *“I feel a strong sense of belonging to Canada”*. The decision to include this variable as a control was based on the highly nationalistic messaging of the target brand, Molson Canadian, since those with higher levels of identification with Canadians may plausibly evaluate the brand more favorably. The scale was adopted from Mummendey, Klink, and Brown (2001) and had high internal consistency (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .91$).

Skepticism Toward Advertising was also included as a control variable. It was measured using Obermiller and Spangenberg's (1998) Skepticism Toward Advertising (SKEP) scale, which includes nine items on a 5-point Likert scale (anchored 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree). The scale included items like *"Advertising's aim is to inform the consumer"*, *"I feel I've been accurately informed after viewing most advertisements"*, and *"Advertising is generally truthful"* (Obermiller & Spangenberg, 1998), and had high internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .95$).

The final questions in the survey pertained to demographic information (sex, age, income, marital status and ethnicity).

4. RESULTS

In this section, we report the results of the statistical processes conducted to organize and analyze the data. First, descriptive information (e.g., demographic results) is provided about the data, along with an explanation of how the original dataset was prepared for analysis. Next, the reliability and internal validity of the measures used in the questionnaire are assessed, followed by a report on its manipulation checks. The study's hypotheses are then tested with one-way and two-way ANOVAs (H1 – H4) and moderation analyses (H5 – H7). Covariates are introduced subsequently as part of our post-hoc testing, and the initial interpretation of results are reported.

4.1 SAMPLE

A total of 242 people participated in the study. First, the dataset was organized and screened for poor respondents. These included participants who (1) failed the attention-check question, (2) had non-variant responses, and/or (3) did not follow instructions. In addition, a timing mechanism was implemented for each of the survey's dependent variables, so any participants who consistently answered questions in an unrealistic amount of time (e.g., less than five seconds for a three-item scale) were also screened out. After the screening of poor respondents (7.9%), the remaining sample had 223 valid respondents (110 males and 113 females). The following analyses were conducted with 223 participants.

4.2 MEASURES

All scales had a high level of internal consistency, as determined by the Cronbach's alphas (Table 2). Follow-up exploratory factor analyses (EFA) were conducted (extraction method: Principal Components Analysis with rotation; PCA) to examine the latent factor structure of some of the multi-item constructs. Having been well-established in the literature, scales for attitude and purchase intention towards the brand were not explored. Since each construct had Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measures greater than .74 and statistically significant Bartlett's tests ($p < .05$), PCA was performed. Correlation matrices for each construct revealed that virtually each construct had highly correlated items ($r \geq 0.40$). Upon examining the factor loadings (via initial Eigenvalues and Scree plots), we saw that the scales for sport involvement, team loyalty, Canadian identification and skepticism towards advertising all worked as originally intended. In contrast to its original two-factor structure in the literature, Shank and Beasley's (1998) Sport Involvement Scale (SIS) first loaded onto a single component in our study, capturing 76.1% of the total variance. When re-run with a fixed two-factor structure, the second

factor only captured an additional 9.73% of the variance, but the item loadings on each component (e.g., items 5 – 8 on first factor) exactly mirrored those of the original study. Bauer et al (2008) present their Team Loyalty scale as comprising two dimensions, psychological commitment (attitudinal) and behavioral loyalty, and our analysis naturally loaded this construct onto two components, cumulatively explaining 64.4% of the total variance. In line with Mummendey et al (2001), our Canadian identification scale loaded onto a single component, capturing 81.4% of the total variance explained. Lastly, our findings were in line with Obermiller and Spangenberg's (1998) original factor loadings for Skepticism Towards Advertising (SKEP), which indicated a single dominant factor with 9 items, explaining 46% of the total variance. We also found a single-factor structure, explaining 71.2% of the total variance. Since each scale appears to have worked as intended, we proceeded with analysis.

Table 2. Reliability Summary

CONSTRUCT	ITEMS (N)	CRONBACH'S α
Attitude towards target brand	4	.973
Purchase intention	2	.947
Sport involvement	8	.954
Team loyalty	11	.870
Canadian identification (nationalism)	4	.913
Skepticism towards advertising	9	.953

4.3 MANIPULATION CHECK

Respondents provided answers to three manipulation check questions. First they indicated which TV advertisement they saw from summary images of three different Molson Canadian ads (the TV sponsorship spot and the two traditional TV commercials). This measure served as a manipulation check for the type of TV advertising viewed by each respondent. As expected, of the 92 respondents in the traditional TV advertising condition, 79.3% correctly identified the ad they viewed. Only 8.7% instead identified the TV sponsorship spot, and 12% answered that they had not seen any of them. Of the 88 respondents who viewed the TV sponsorship, 92% identified the proper graphic, while the remaining 8% identified one of the traditional TV commercials. This is a promising sign that TV sponsorship may indeed be more memorable to viewers than traditional TV advertising, as 100% of the respondents who viewed the Molson TV sponsorship remembered having seen an advertisement by the Molson

Canadian brand, versus 88% of those who viewed a traditional TV commercial. This represents an improvement in aided recall, a common measure of brand awareness, indicating one possible benefit of sponsorship. We replicated our analyses after removing the 44 individuals (20% of the original sample of 223) who failed to properly identify their graphic, but this ultimately did not yield significantly different results; see Appendix C for details.

Next, participants responded to the statement *“the Molson advertisement I just viewed demonstrates that Molson is a sponsor of the Toronto Maple Leafs”* on a 5-point scale (anchored 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree), used as a manipulation check of respondents’ recognition of Molson as a team sponsor. Interestingly, most of those who viewed a traditional TV commercial either ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ that the commercial demonstrates Molson’s sponsorship of the Maple Leafs ($M = 3.85$, $SD = 0.96$), suggesting that traditional TV advertising during a game may actually be perceived as sponsorship by some consumers. In line with what we would expect, almost all of those exposed to the true TV sponsorship recognized the Maple Leafs as a sponsor ($M = 4.35$, $SD = 0.80$), with only two individuals disagreeing. An independent-samples t-test was run for these two means, finding a highly significant difference between them, $t = 3.815$, $df = 178$, $p < .05$. This discrepancy suggests that viewers are significantly more likely to identify the Maple Leafs as a team sponsor after watching a TV sponsorship commercial, as opposed to a traditional TV commercial. Since most of the benefits of sponsorship depend on sponsor recognition, we can consider this to be another benefit of sponsorship, and ultimately conclude that this manipulation likely worked as planned.

The final manipulation check had participants respond to the statement *“while I was watching the broadcast video, I noticed Molson branding on the rink-boards surrounding the ice”* (on the same 5-point scale) in order to test the perceptibility and memorability of event sponsorship. Most respondents were unsure of whether or not Molson branding was present on the rink-boards, regardless of which condition they were part of. The data within both groups (those who viewed the rink-boards and those who did not) follows a similar distribution, with roughly half of the respondents in both groups indicating that they noticed the branding. An independent-samples t-test was run to compare the first group (with the rink-boards; $M = 3.53$, $SD = 1.09$) against the second (without the rink-boards; $M = 3.35$, $SD = 1.19$). This was not a statistically significant difference, $t = 1.105$, $df = 178$, $p = .270$ ($p < .05$). Collectively, these findings may indicate that event sponsorship is not truly noticeable – and therefore effective – on its own; other potential implications of this finding are discussed in the Conclusion. In the two-way ANOVA carried out below, we test whether or not an interaction effect exists between TV sponsorship/advertising and event sponsorship. Results are discussed below.

4.4 HYPOTHESIS TESTING

The methods used to test our hypotheses include one-way ANOVA with post hoc testing and planned contrasts, two-way ANOVA, and moderation analysis (multiple regression with interaction terms). Following the initial results, we introduce several possible control variables as covariates in the two-way ANCOVA to test whether they may significantly influence the observed relationships. Figures 1 and 2 below offer an overview of the mean scores for attitude and purchase intentions towards Molson Canadian, across all five conditions.

Figure 1. Attitude Towards Target Brand – Results

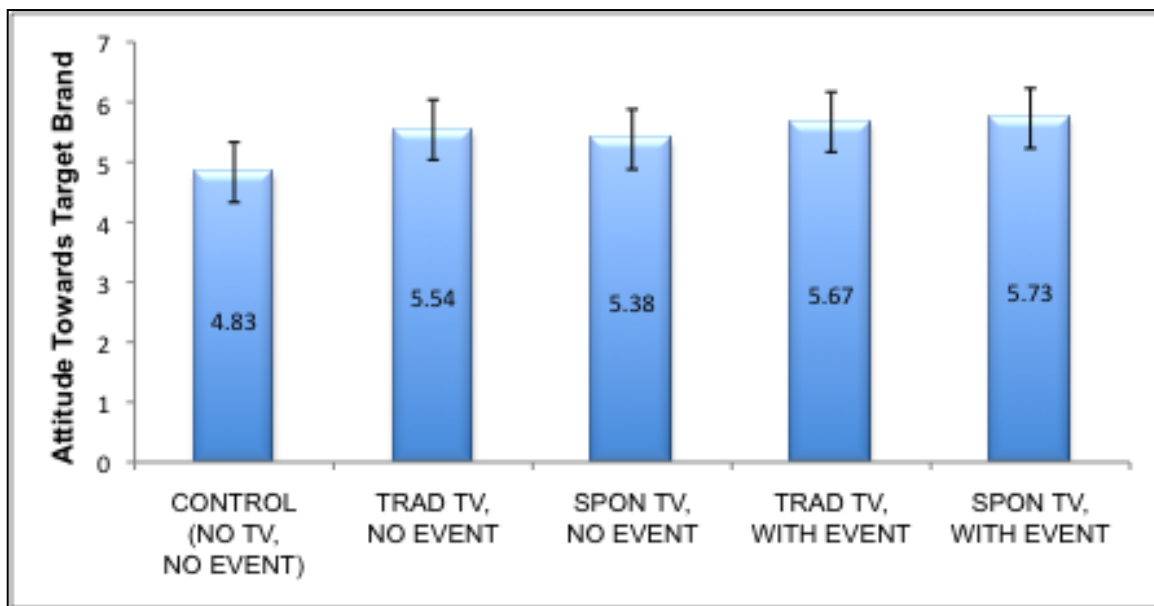
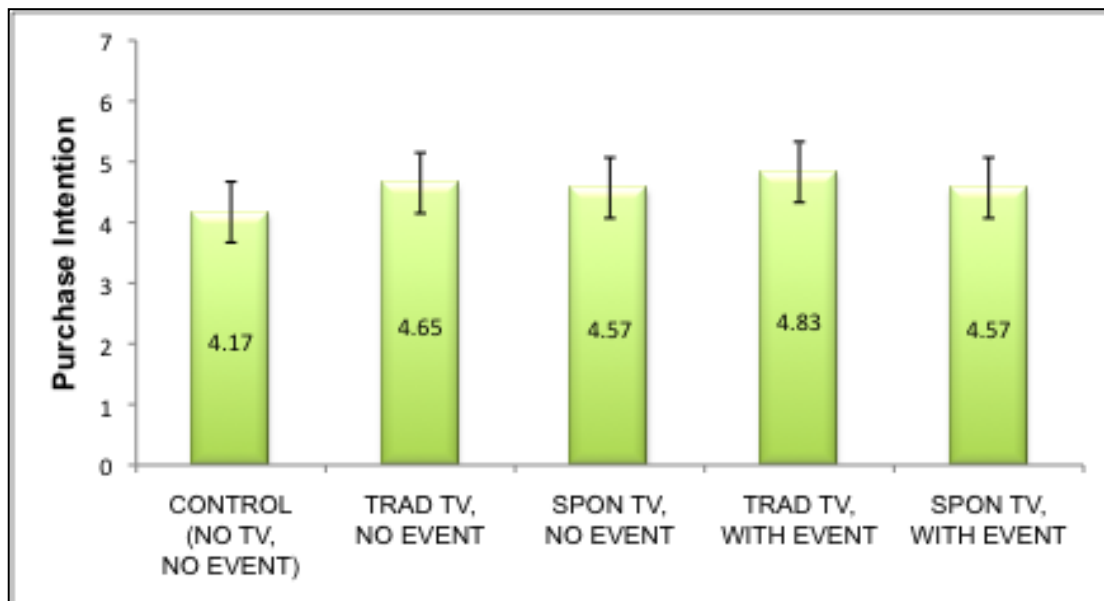


Figure 2. Purchase Intention – Results



4.4.1 Addressing ANOVA's Assumptions

First, a residual analysis was performed to test for the assumptions of both one and two-way ANOVA separately for both dependent variables, and ultimately the dataset was kept intact. Since we were conducting between-subjects comparisons, we had to assess outliers, normality of distribution and homogeneity of variances of the data. Outliers were assessed by inspection of a boxplot, normality was assessed using Shapiro-Wilk's normality test for each cell of the design, and homogeneity of variances was assessed by Levene's test. Data are mean \pm standard error, unless otherwise stated. For both attitude toward target brand and purchase intention, there were two outliers, as assessed as being greater than 1.5 standard deviations from the edge of the box. Since they were neither the result of data entry or measurement errors, they are likely genuinely unusual data points, and were not excluded from the analysis given their infrequency and lack of severity. Residuals were not normally distributed ($p < 0.05$) for each group combination of TV and event sponsorship; however, since all four groups are similarly skewed, and ANOVAs are considered to be fairly robust to deviations from normality, we chose to leave the original data whole. There was homogeneity of variances for both variables ($p = .783$, $p = .915$ respectively).

4.4.2 One-Way ANOVA

Planned contrasts were run to test for significant differences in mean attitude and purchase intention scores across the five conditions. Overall, attitude toward target brand was statistically significant across the different conditions, $F(4,218) = 3.788$, $p < .01$. Attitude in each of the four conditions was significantly higher than in the control group; TV sponsorship alone ($p < .05$), traditional TV advertising alone ($p < .01$), integrated TV and event sponsorship ($p < .01$), integrated traditional TV and event sponsorship ($p < .01$) each resulted in significant increases in attitude. This provided support for H1a, namely that TV sponsorship alone would outperform no advertising (control group). In contrasting TV sponsorship alone with traditional TV advertising alone, there were no significant differences in attitude ($p = .540$), hence H2a was not supported. There was also no significant difference in attitude across integrated TV and event sponsorship and TV sponsorship alone ($p = .182$), although this value was approaching significance at the $p < .10$ level; regardless, H3a was not supported. In line with this, integrated traditional TV advertising and event sponsorship did not significantly outperform traditional TV advertising alone ($p = .615$), so H4a was not supported. While these findings are not what we expected, at the very least they reaffirm the ability of advertising to improve consumer attitudes towards brands, regardless of which type is used (sponsorship or traditional advertising).

Running the same contrasts for purchase intention, we found almost no statistically significant differences across the five conditions, $F(4,218) = .747$, $p = .561$. Relative to the control, none of TV sponsorship alone ($p = .316$), traditional TV advertising alone ($p = .220$), nor integrated TV and event sponsorship ($p = .315$) were statistically different. However, there was a significant difference in purchase intention between the control group and the integrated TV advertising and event sponsorship condition ($p < .10$). While the mean for the TV sponsorship alone condition ($M = 4.57$) was greater than the control ($M = 4.17$), this was not a significant difference, so H1b was not supported. As well, since TV sponsorship alone ($M = 4.57$) actually yielded a marginally lower mean score than traditional TV advertising alone ($M = 4.65$), H2b was not supported. Comparing TV sponsorship and traditional TV advertising with their integrated event conditions, there were no statistically significant differences ($p = .994$ and $p = .843$, respectively), and so neither H3b nor H4b were supported. Surprisingly, both TV sponsorship conditions (alone and integrated) had the same mean score for purchase intention ($M = 4.57$), although we saw a slight improvement from TV advertising alone ($M = 4.65$) to the integrated TV advertising condition ($M = 4.83$), which had the highest overall scores. It should be noted that many factors (e.g., past experiences, individual differences in evaluation styles, pre-existing beliefs towards the brand) influence these evaluations and therefore increase the variance in attitude and purchase intention scores. We address these results in the conclusions; see Table 3 below for a summary of the one-way ANOVA results.

Table 3. One-Way ANOVA Results

HYP.	DESCRIPTION	(a) ATTITUDE	(b) PURCHASE INTENTION
H1	TV Spon alone > No advertising	□	□
H2	TV Spon > Trad TV	□	□
H3	TV Spon + EV Spon > TV Spon	□	□
H4	Trad TV + EV Spon > Trad TV	□	□

Significance at $p < .05$

4.4.3 Two-Way ANOVA

To explore the existence of a synergy effect of TV and event sponsorship, we tested for the presence of interaction effects between the two variables with a two-way between-subjects ANOVA, conducted separately for both dependent variables. All pair-wise comparisons were run where reported 95% confidence intervals.

The interaction effect between TV and event sponsorship on attitude toward target brand was not statistically significant, $F(1,176) = .395$, $p = .530$, partial $\eta^2 = .002$. Therefore, an analysis of the main effect for TV sponsorship was performed, finding no statistically significant main effect on attitude score, $F(1,176) = 0.073$, $p = .787$, partial $\eta^2 = .000$. There was also no statistically significant main effect of event sponsorship on attitude scores, $F(1,176) = 1.856$, $p = .175$, $\eta^2 = .010$. Despite the visual existence of a disordinal interaction of TV and event sponsorship, no statistically significant effects were found.

The interaction effect between TV and event sponsorship on purchase intention was also not statistically significant, $F(1,176) = .121$, $p = .728$, partial $\eta^2 = .001$. As such, an analysis of the main effect for TV sponsorship was performed, finding no significant effect on purchase intention, $F(1,176) = .400$, $p = .528$, partial $\eta^2 = .002$. There was also no significant main effect of event sponsorship on purchase intention, $F(1,176) = .114$, $p = .737$, partial $\eta^2 = .001$. Despite not being statistically significant, we do see the visual presence of an ordinal interaction between TV and event sponsorship on purchase intention.

4.4.4 Two-Way ANCOVA (with Control Variables)

Since none of the interaction effects between TV and event sponsorship were statistically significant in the above two-way ANOVA, we decided to investigate the impact of several control variables to account for the variance that may be introduced by them; individual skepticism towards advertising, Canadian identification (feelings of nationalism), years spent in Canada, and gender were included. Individuals fostering different overall beliefs about advertising in general would likely have different responses to any advertising brand, in this case Molson Canadian. Molson tends to utilize nationalistic messaging in all of their communications (slogan: *"I am Canadian!"*), so individuals with higher Canadian identification or those who have lived in Canada longer would likely respond to them more favorably. Hockey and beer also both tend to be stereotypically portrayed as "Canadian" interests, so it follows that those who identify more strongly with Canadians would prefer both the messaging and context of the advertisements. Another possible reason that we couldn't find any significant interaction effects may be that beer and hockey are male-dominant; hence gender was included as a covariate.

There was no statistically significant difference in attitude toward target brand after inclusion of any of the four covariates. Gender had the most significant impact on the TV-event sponsorship interaction term ($p = .407$), although it was still not statistically significant. Next was years lived in Canada ($p = .520$); Canadian identification ($p = .736$), and skepticism towards advertising ($p = .759$). Skepticism towards advertising represented the most substantial

improvement in R^2 , increasing from .013 in the original two-way ANOVA to .111 in this model. None of the four covariates produced significant main effects of TV or event sponsorship on attitude toward target brand.

Similar to attitude, there was no statistically significant difference in purchase intentions after including the covariates. None of skepticism towards advertising ($p = .445$), Canadian identification ($p = .599$), years spent in Canada ($p = .848$) nor gender ($p = .936$) had a significant impact on the TV-event sponsorship interaction term. However, each covariate's individual coefficient was either significant or approaching significance in predicting purchase intentions; the most significant was skepticism towards advertising ($p < .01$), followed by Canadian identification ($p < .05$), years spent in Canada ($p < .10$), and gender ($p = .113$). In line with attitude, skepticism represented the highest R^2 of .126. Regardless, none of the covariates we included significantly controlled the effects of TV and event sponsorship.

4.4.5 Moderation Analysis

To evaluate hypotheses 5 through 7, we conducted moderation analyses (hierarchical multiple regression) to test whether the effects of sponsorship were moderated by the proposed variables. Before analysis, final scores for sport involvement (SI; 8 – 56), team loyalty (TL; 11 – 77) and self-construal (SC; 0 to 1) were mean-centered, and the TV and event sponsorship variables were dummy coded (-1, 1 = absent, present) for each respondent. Two different two-way (TV and EV x moderator) interaction terms and a single three-way (TV x EV x moderator) interaction term were calculated for each proposed moderator variable, and the significance of each coefficient was assessed within each model using p -values ($p < .05$). There was no evidence of multicollinearity in any of the models, as evidenced by consistently high tolerance values ($< .10$). See Tables 4 – 6 for regression results for each moderator.

Sport Involvement

There was no moderating effect of sport involvement on attitude towards target brand, as coefficients for each interaction term (both two-way interactions and the three-way interaction) were not significant in the model. However, the variable for sport involvement itself was highly significant ($p = .000$) indicating that regardless of which type of advertising is used by the brand, consumers' attitudinal evaluation will be predicted, to some extent, by their level of involvement with the sport broadcast. A regression was run after removing all other variables from the model to test the impact of sport involvement on attitude; however, this variable was not significant ($p =$

.126), suggesting that sport involvement only bears a significant impact when all other variables are held constant. As such, H5a was not supported.

Again, the variable for sport involvement was highly significant in predicting purchase intentions ($p = .000$) when holding the other variables constant. There was no significant interaction between sport involvement and TV sponsorship ($p > .05$), however there was a significant interaction between sport involvement and event sponsorship ($p = .054$). Interestingly, the three-way interaction (TV x EV x SI) was approaching significance ($p = .114$) with a negative coefficient, suggesting that higher-involvement individuals might be less inclined to purchase from a brand when both TV and event sponsorship are used together (Figure 3). From this analysis, we see that sport involvement moderates the relationship between event sponsorship and purchase intentions via its interaction with event sponsorship, and hence H5b was supported.

Table 4. Moderation Regression Results: Sport Involvement

<i>Regression Variables</i>	Attitude Towards Target Brand		Purchase Intention	
	<i>Standardized Coefficient (β)</i>	<i>t-Value</i>	<i>Standardized Coefficient (β)</i>	<i>t-Value</i>
(Constant)	***	68.527	***	36.667
TV	-.019	-0.019	-.050	-.707
EV	.075	1.074	.009	.131
SI	.400***	5.599	.352***	4.852
TV x SI	.006	.079	.023	.314
EV x SI	-.089	-1.242	-.141**	-1.941
TV x EV x SI	.038	.527	.115	1.586
R²	-	.166	-	.139

* $p < .10$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$

Team Loyalty

Team loyalty did not moderate the effects of TV and event sponsorship on attitude toward target brand, as the coefficients of each interaction term were not statistically significant ($p > .05$). Similar to with sport involvement, the coefficient for team loyalty itself was highly significant ($p = .000$) suggesting that it alone may predict a consumer's attitude towards the brand. Regressions were run after isolating TV and event sponsorship and their interaction term, but the coefficients remained insignificant, so H6a was not supported.

There was a marginally significant ($p = .10$) negative interaction effect between event sponsorship and team loyalty on purchase intentions, suggesting the moderating influence of event sponsorship; hence, H6b was supported (Figure 4). Team loyalty itself was also a highly

significant predictor of event sponsorship ($p = .000$), but none of the other terms in the model (TV, TV x SI, or TV x EV x SI) were significant.

Table 5. Moderation Regression Results: Team Loyalty

Regression Variables	Attitude Towards Target Brand		Purchase Intention	
	Standardized Coefficient (β)	t-Value	Standardized Coefficient (β)	t-Value
(Constant)	***	.66.087	***	35.872
TV	-.015	-0.202	-.036	-.499
EV	.086	1.187	.017	.230
TL	.295***	4.066	.287***	3.934
TV x TL	.023	.317	.021	.284
EV x TL	-.081	-1.118	-.121*	-1.652
TV x EV x TL	.045	.618	-.058	-.801
R ²	-	.102	-	.097

* $p < .10$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$

Self-Construal

Self-construal did not moderate the effects of TV and event sponsorship on either attitude toward target brand or purchase intentions, as evidenced by the statistically insignificant ($p > .05$) coefficients within the model. Both TV and event sponsorship, and their interaction terms, were statistically insignificant, and this result remained even after removing individual terms from the model. None of the model's coefficients were anywhere near significance ($p \geq .440$ for each coefficient). As such, neither H7a nor H7b were supported.

Table 6. Moderation Regression Results: Self-Construal

Regression Variables	Attitude Towards Target Brand		Purchase Intention	
	Standardized Coefficient (β)	t-Value	Standardized Coefficient (β)	t-Value
(Constant)	***	62.805	***	34.187
TV	-.009	-.114	-.049	-.638
EV	.101	1.331	.039	.505
SC	.033	.419	.061	.774
TV x SC	-.020	-.258	.047	.594
EV x SC	.096	1.223	.047	.599
TV x EV x SC	.054	.688	-.037	-.468
R ²	-	.022	-	.012

* $p < .10$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$

Table 7. Moderation Regression Results – Hypotheses

HYP.	DESCRIPTION	(a) ATTITUDE	(b) PI
H5	Sport Involvement moderates TV/EV Spon	□	□
H6	Team Loyalty moderates TV/EV Spon	□	□
H7	Self-Construal moderates TV/EV Spon	□	□

Figure 3. Sport Involvement x Event Sponsorship Interaction – Model

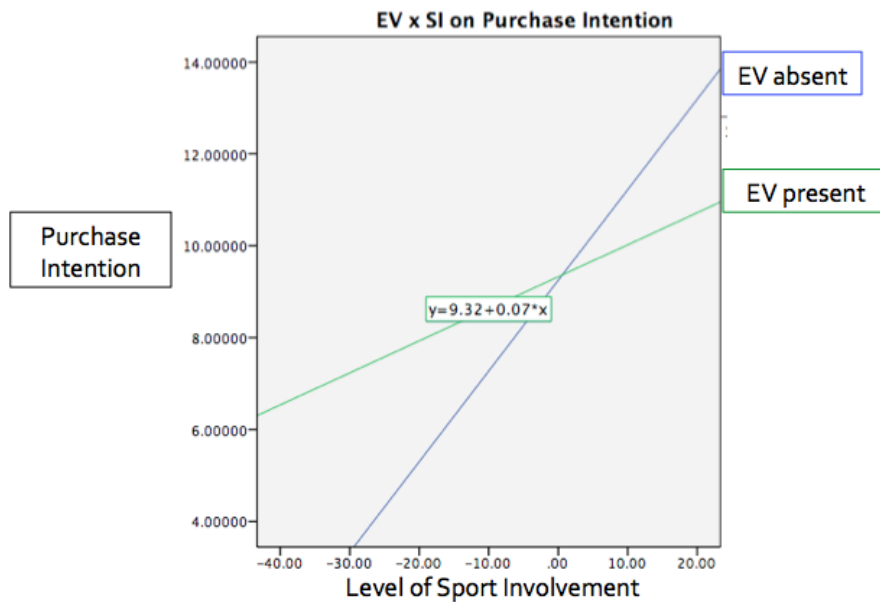
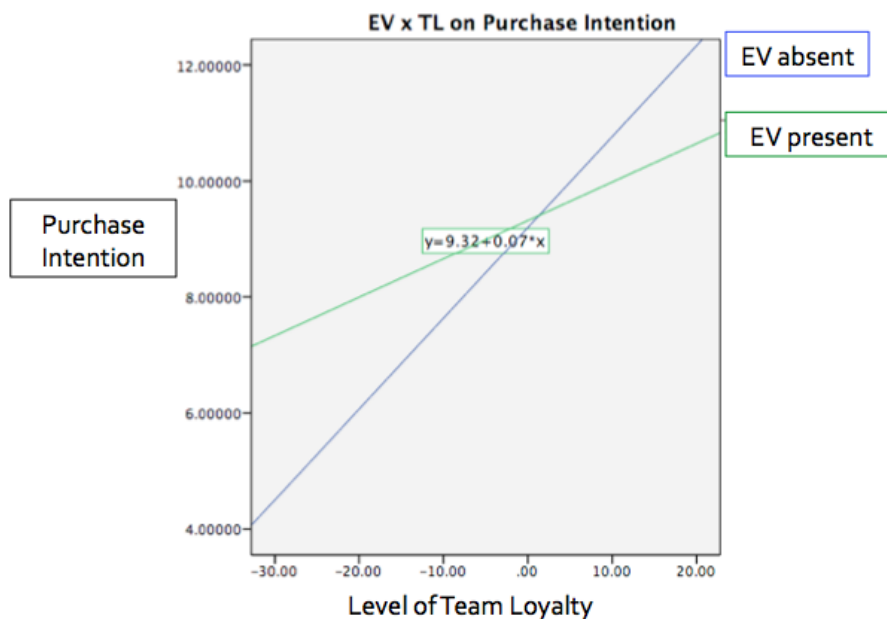


Figure 4. Team Loyalty x Event Sponsorship Interaction – Model



5. CONCLUSION

5.1 GENERAL DISCUSSION

Given the massive growth of corporate sponsorship in sports over the past several decades, the study of its effects on consumers has begun to emerge as a key focus in academic research. Although some have explored the influence of sponsorship alone on consumer behavior (Roy & Cornwell, 2004; Gwinner & Benent, 2008), none have empirically compared its effects on consumers directly with an alternative type of brand communication, such as television advertising. The purpose of this research was to resolve this gap by directly comparing corporate sponsorship with traditional TV advertising, on the same set of dependent variables: attitude and purchase intention towards the brand. In addition to TV sponsorship, event sponsorship was manipulated as a second independent variable, to see if either traditional TV advertising or TV sponsorship would benefit from being used in conjunction with it. Hence, we adopted a 2 (TV sponsorship – present vs. absent) x 2 (Event sponsorship – present in context vs. absent in context) design to compare these outcomes across four different combinations of TV and event sponsorship, all for the same target brand, Molson Canadian. A control condition without either type of sponsorship or traditional advertising present, provided benchmark data for the brand.

This study set out to answer the following research questions: (1) *Does TV sponsorship produce more positive consumer outcomes than traditional TV advertising?* (2) *Does integrated event sponsorship improve the performance of either TV sponsorship or traditional TV advertising?* and (3) *Do sport involvement, team loyalty or self-construal moderate consumer responses to TV and event sponsorship?* Grounded in existing theory, our hypotheses predicted that (1) TV sponsorship would be superior to traditional TV advertising, (2) integrated event sponsorship would improve the performance of both TV sponsorship and traditional TV advertising, and (3) sport involvement, team loyalty and self-construal would moderate consumer responses to sponsorship. While we had numerous interesting findings, most of our hypotheses ultimately did not end up statistically significant, with 3/14 being accepted. Note that the original design included word-of-mouth (WOM) communication as a third dependent variable. However, this construct was measured with a single item (as discussed in Limitations) and ultimately did not yield any conclusive results; hence it was removed from the analysis.

Mean scores for both attitude and purchase intention towards Molson were consistently lower for the control group than in the other four conditions. All four non-control conditions had higher mean scores for both variables than the control group did; since attitudes were

significantly different between the control group and the TV advertising condition, and purchase intentions were not, H1a was supported while H1b was not. At the very least, this finding substantiates the idea that brand communications of any sort (either TV sponsorship or traditional advertising) can improve consumer attitudes towards the advertising brand.

While some of hypotheses 2 through 4 appeared meaningful upon initial examination of the mean group scores, none were ultimately statistically significant. Since neither attitude nor purchase intentions were statistically different across TV sponsorship alone and TV advertising alone, neither H2a nor H2b were supported. H3 and H4 indicated our expectation that integrated event sponsorship would improve consumer attitudes and purchase intentions towards Molson, when used in conjunction with TV sponsorship or traditional TV advertising, respectively. The conditions that did not see the Molson rink-board branding had lower mean attitude scores than their corresponding conditions with the rink-board present; TV sponsorship alone scores were lower than the integrated TV and event sponsorship condition, and traditional TV advertising alone was lower than the integrated TV advertising and event sponsorship condition. These findings were directly in line with those of Olson and Thjomoe (2009), who also found synergy effects from combining the two methods. However, despite the improvements in raw data, these differences were not statistically significant, so none of H3a, H3b, H4a or H4b were supported.

One outcome whose impact became evident throughout the moderation analyses was the apparent negative relationship between purchase intention and event sponsorship. There were no interactions between event sponsorship and attitude towards the brand, across any of the proposed moderators. However, for both sport involvement and team loyalty, we saw a negative interaction between event sponsorship and purchase intentions; the negative coefficients suggest that event sponsorship may actually bear a *negative* influence on consumer behavioral intentions towards the brand. In this light, the result of the third manipulation check is intriguing, as the memorability of the Molson rink-boards was quite similar for both those who were exposed to them and those who were not. Reconciling these two findings, it seems unlikely that exposure to a brand on the rink-boards surrounding the game would truly induce *negative* behavioral feelings towards that brand; it is more likely that some other variable confounded this apparent result (e.g., lower-quality video for conditions with rink-board present), or that the measure itself did not properly capture what it intended to, as discussed in the Limitations. Since attitudes did not follow a similar pattern at all, we can be reasonably comfortable these findings were probably anomalous, and therefore not a serious concern. In considering the outcome of this manipulation check itself, there are several potential explanations of why only about half of the respondents remembered the rink-boards. As we discuss, one idea is that the manipulation

itself did not work. Another reason would be the ineffectiveness of self-report attention measures; past research has found that memory-based attention measures sometimes do not fully capture visual attention (Atalay, Bodur, & Rasolofoarison, 2012). As for the effects we saw on both attitude and purchase intentions, it is possible that viewers already assumed that Molson was a team sponsor, even if they did not notice the actual rink-boards.

The final three hypotheses suggested that (H5) sport involvement, (H6) team loyalty and (H7) self-construal would moderate to the relationships between TV/event sponsorship and attitudes and purchase intentions towards Molson. As addressed above, while none of these variables significantly moderated attitudes (therefore not supporting H5a, H6a, and H7a), we saw interactions between event sponsorship and purchase intention in both the sport involvement and team loyalty models. While these findings support H5b and H6b (self-construal was not significant and therefore H7b was not supported), they are not necessarily as robust as we had expected. Team loyalty was a construct that we logically expected to play a moderating role on consumer evaluations of sponsoring brands, so it was surprising that it did not have more moderating influence on attitudes. It is unlikely that the Bauer et al (2008) 'fan loyalty' scale failed to adequately measure the construct; it is more likely that in line with Alexandris and Tsotsou's (2007) alternative hierarchy of effects model, the overall low affective feelings towards the Maple Leafs (as discussed in Limitations) negatively influenced consumer perceptions towards the team, and hence responses to this scale. On the other hand, self-construal as a moderating variable in sponsorship represented an original relationship, and therefore its lack of moderating influence is not necessarily surprising. These findings are simply a starting point for this type of research.

From the manipulation check questions, we can deduce several other important findings. First, TV sponsorship appears to be more memorable to viewers than traditional TV advertising. Of those who were exposed to the TV sponsorship spot, 100% remembered the Molson Canadian brand afterwards, in contrast to 88% of those who viewed the traditional TV commercial. This represents an improvement in aided recall, a common measure of brand awareness (Javalgi et al., 1994). In addition, we saw a significant difference in sponsor recognition across the conditions who saw a traditional TV commercial and those who viewed a TV sponsorship spot. Those in the latter condition were significantly more likely to correctly identify Molson Canadian as a sponsor of the Toronto Maple Leafs than those who viewed a traditional TV commercial. Since improvements in brand awareness are often used as communication goals for brands, and many of the positive impacts of sponsorship (e.g., Meenaghan's "transfer of goodwill" mechanism) supposedly arise from a consumer's recognition

of the brand as a sponsor, these are two additional benefits that we can attribute to sponsorship above traditional TV advertising.

Ultimately, this study has yielded both expected and unexpected results regarding the relative superiority of corporate sponsorship and traditional advertising. While most of our hypotheses were rejected for lack of statistical significance (at the $p < .05$ level), we still found numerous potential benefits of TV sponsorship (e.g., improvements in attitude towards brands, aided recall, and sponsor recognition) and event sponsorship (e.g., synergy effects with both TV sponsorship and traditional TV advertising). Interestingly, we found a negative effect of event sponsorship on purchase intentions, but also a positive (albeit insignificant) effect on attitudes. These represent the main contributions of this study, which conducted a direct empirical comparison that had never been attempted before. Hence, this research has endeavored to address a theoretical void, in addition to contributing practical value via a better understanding of the relative performance of two different types of brand communications. Though this study did not yield completely conclusive results on sponsorship versus traditional advertising, based on the research landscape in conjunction with our findings, brands can be reasonably comfortable in continuing to commit resources to TV and event sponsorship activations. In addition, the synergistic benefits of combining different types of TV communications with event sponsorship are apparent, so this practice should be considered a priority for brands.

5.2 LIMITATIONS

Despite its strong theoretical grounding, this study yielded results that were not in line with what we had expected. This is either because the effects we were looking for simply do not exist (unlikely), or because of certain errors made during this research (more likely). In looking at the entire body of work, we can identify several confounding issues which may have negatively impacted our results.

First of all, the timing of this study could not have been worse. The expected “superiority” of sponsorship over traditional advertising, in general, is based on the psychological attachment between consumers and the sponsored property; in this case, fans’ feelings of positive emotion towards the Maple Leafs should have “rubbed off” on Molson Canadian. By aligning with a highly iconic sports brand, Molson would expect to benefit via the “transfer of goodwill” effect. This study was designed to occur in the middle of the 2014-15 NHL season, a time when all teams are still active (have yet to be eliminated from contention) and fan morale is still positive. However, this study was launched in the midst of the worst losing streak in the 100-year history of the Toronto Maple Leafs, at a time when feelings towards the team were at an all-time low.

The team had just lost a record 14 out of 16 games when participants were recruited for the study, with fans and media sensationalizing the abysmal slump nationwide. Since the sampling frame consisted of only fans of the Maple Leafs living in Canada, it is very likely that everyone who participated in the study was aware of the team's situation, and felt more negative towards them than normal. This situation of low overall affective feelings towards the team may have had grave implications for our results, which did not conclusively show sponsorship to be superior to traditional TV advertising.

In addition, despite screening for only participants who were (1) fans of the Maple Leafs and (2) living in Canada, we ended up with a sub-optimal sample, with a slight skew towards females (50.7%) and older individuals ($M_{age\ group} = 50-64$). Both hockey and beer (Molson Canadian's product) tend to be male-dominant, and it is unlikely that an even male-female split is a representative sample of NHL hockey consumers. Even more likely to confound results is the fact that 45% of the sample was between the ages of 50 – 64, and 93.3% was at least 30 years of age. This likely had a substantial impact on the results, as the key youth (18 – 29) demographic of interest was severely under-represented in this study, at 6.7%.

From a methodological perspective, there were several other potential errors made. As mentioned above, we originally included WOM likelihood as a third dependent variable; however, this variable did not have a significant amount of variance across groups and ultimately did not yield any significant results. This can likely be attributed to our use of a single-item scale to capture this construct, while a more robust (multi-item) scale would have produced a wider distribution of scores. WOM likelihood scores only ranged from 1-5, and with a sample size of 223, this was not sufficient to generate enough variance in scores across the groups. This is one possible reason for the lack of statistically significant differences across groups, and hence why WOM was eliminated.

Aside from the measures, the embedded stimulus videos may not have had their intended effects because of relatively low video quality; the gameplay clips were not of high resolution to begin with, and after the implementation of video editing (to remove the Molson rink-boards) their quality marginally decreased even more. Since the discrepancy across the edited and unedited groups was not that significant, this should not have skewed results across them; rather it may have contributed to a lack of focus or attention to details by the participants, clearly an important factor in a study like this. Any blurriness of the already-shrunken Molson Canadian rink-board branding would make it even harder to notice.

Another potential limitation of the video was that the viewer experience is somewhat different between watching an embedded video online and watching a television broadcast.

While the content of the video was not markedly different from what would be shown on live TV, the medium of consumption was, as respondents all watched the “broadcast” on their computer screen. This may have had a similar impact on participants as the low quality, as it is harder to pick up background details (e.g., rink-boards) on a smaller screen, and feels less natural to watch than a regular TV broadcast. This issue could have been exacerbated by the relatively old sample, as older people tend to be less comfortable on their computers than their younger counterparts, for whom watching programming on smaller screens is often quite natural.

Perhaps the most obvious methodological limitation of the study is that all of the results are based only on a four-minute stimulus video, while in reality the exposure to sponsorship is substantially longer in duration. Sponsorship (as well as traditional advertising) is generally designed to work via repeated exposure over a longer period of time than a single game (e.g., weeks, months, years, etc), but even a single game broadcast lasts around three hours. Whether or not the Molson advertising in the stimulus video resonated with consumers after a single exposure, this experiment was designed to merely represent a small portion of a broadcast, likely failing to capture the effects of repeated exposure. Hence, it is difficult to comfortably generalize these findings, based on two-plus minutes of gameplay and a single TV spot exposure, to corporate sponsorship in sport overall.

5.3 FUTURE RESEARCH

Numerous potential avenues exist in the sponsorship arena for future research to explore. First – and most relevant here – would be an attempt at replicating the present study, with modifications. If the methodological limitations (e.g., replace single-item measures, fix stimulus video concerns) and sampling frame (e.g., use young male-dominant sample) problems were addressed, it is likely that the results would be different, and perhaps more in-line with our expectations. Just as important would be re-instituting the survey in the offseason, or during a time of more neutral (or positive) mainstream affective feelings towards the Maple Leafs, to avoid the hugely confounding environment in which this study occurred. Another option would be to conduct a longitudinal study with a similar design, to see how repeated exposure over time may produce different results.

One of our findings was the lack of statistical significance of the moderator variables (although sport involvement and team loyalty partially moderated purchase intentions), each of which could reasonably have been expected to influence the relationship between sponsorship and consumer responses. It would be interesting for future researchers to attempt to validate our predicted moderator variables: sport involvement, team loyalty and self-construal. Each of these

variables represents a very specific part of the individual consumer's identity, and a better understanding of how they influence the evaluation of brands would be quite practical to marketers. In particular, if self-construal was found to be a significant moderating variable, firms could more efficiently target their communications to specific ethnic groups; this study could be extended outside of the sponsorship domain, and use more comprehensive measures of self-construal to capture the construct (e.g., a full Twenty Statements Test).

Another area of research comparing corporate sponsorship and traditional advertising in sports would be to extend the research to more sport settings. Thus far, sponsorship research has looked at both Summer and Winter Olympic Games (Lee et al., 1997), World-Cup soccer (Ko et al., 2008), Greek professional basketball (Alexandris, Tsoauosi & James, 2007), Norwegian handball (Olson & Thjomoe, 2010), and Portuguese professional soccer (Biscaia et al., 2013). No research (current study aside) has yet looked at any of the four major North American sports (football, baseball, basketball and hockey), and as the figures indicated earlier, these are the leagues in which sponsorship is expected to become the most lucrative in the near future. It would be interesting to see whether sports of different intensities (e.g., baseball vs. hockey) yield different results for either type of sponsorship evaluated here, or if certain sports are more conducive to sponsorship than others.

A final avenue for future research would be to extend the exploration of different types of event sponsorship. Similar to the last suggestion for future research, every sport setting has a different activation of event sponsorship. Baseball (MLB) displays its sponsor brands behind home plate, basketball (NBA) flashes moving signs alongside the court, football (NFL) shows a small number of brands behind the team benches, and racing (NASCAR) features the brand logos directly on its cars. Certain individual sports (e.g., tennis and golf; WTA and PGA) display the sponsorship on the stadium walls, and on banners in the background of the event. Meanwhile, in European football, the team jerseys themselves are sponsored, often a point of contention for fans. The NHL plans to test sponsored jerseys at the 2016 World Cup of Hockey, indicating what the future of the sport may look like. Sponsored jerseys could generate up to \$120 million for the league during the two-week event (Sun Wire Services, 2015), and thus any research evaluating new approaches to event sponsorship like this would be highly valuable.

REFERENCES

- Aaker, D. A. (1996). Measuring brand equity across products and markets. *California management review*, 38(3), 103.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1977). Attitude-behavior relations: A theoretical analysis and review of empirical research. *Psychological Bulletin*, 84, 888–918.
- Alexandris, K., & Tsiotsou, R. (2009). Delineating the outcomes of sponsorship: sponsor image, word of mouth, and purchase intentions. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution*, 37(4), 35S-310.
- Alexandris, K., Tsaousi, E., & James, J. (2007). Predicting sponsorship outcomes from attitudinal constructs: The case of a professional basketball event. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 16, 13-139.
- Apostolopoulou, A. (2002). Brand extensions by U.S. professional sport teams: Motivations and keys to success. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 11, 205–214.
- Atalay, A. S., Bodur, H. O., & Rasolofoarison, D. (2012). Shining in the center: Central gaze cascade effect on product choice. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 39(4), 848-866.
- Backman, S.J., & Crompton, J.L. (1991, Fall). Using loyalty matrix to differentiate between high, spurious, latent, and loyal participants in two leisure services. *Journal of Park and Recreation Administration*, 9, 1–17.
- Barros, C. P., & Silvestre, A. L. (2006). An evaluation of the sponsorship of Euro 2004. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship*, 7(3), 192.
- Barry, T., & Howard, D. (1990). A review and critique of the hierarchy of effects in advertising. *International Journal of Advertising*, 9, 121-135.
- Beatty, S.E., & Kahle, L.R. (1988). Alternative hierarchies of the attitude behavior relationship: The impact of brand commitment and habit. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 16, 1–10.
- Beckwith, N. E., & Lehmann, D. R. (1975). The importance of halo effects in multi-attribute attitude models. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 265-275.
- Biscaia, R., Correia, A., Rosado, A. F., Ross, S. D., & Maroco, J. (2013). Sport sponsorship: The relationship between team loyalty, sponsorship awareness, attitude toward the sponsor, and purchase intentions. *Journal of Sport Management*, 27(4), 288-302.
- Bloomberg Research (2013), "Sports Revenue to Reach \$67.7 Billion by 2017", available from: <<http://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2013-11-13/sports-revenue-to-reach-67-7-billion-by-2017-pwc-report-says>>
- Bodur, H.O., Brinberg, D., & Coupey, E. (2000). Belief, affect, and attitude: Alternative models of the determinants of attitude. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 9(1), 17-28.
- Bodur, H. O., Duval, K. M., & Grohmann, B. (2013). Will You Purchase Environmentally Friendly Products? Using Prediction Requests to Increase Choice of Sustainable Products. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 1-17.
- Boush, David M. and Barbara Loken (1991), "A Process-Tracing Study of Brand Extension Evaluation," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 28 (1), 16-28.
- Bovée, CL–Arens. "WF (1992): Contemporary Advertising." *Boston: Irwin* 121: 157-165.

- Brennan, D. (2009). TV sponsorship: A brand's best friend. *Journal of Sponsorship*, 2(2), 250-256.
- Briggs, R., Krishnan, R., & Borin, N. (2005). Integrated multichannel communications strategies: evaluating the return on marketing objectives – The case of the 2004 Ford F-150 Launch. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 19, 81–90.
- Buhler, A. W., Heffernan, T. W., & Hewson, P. J. (2007). The soccer club-sponsor relationship: identifying the critical variables for success. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship*, 8(4), 291.
- Carrillat, R., Lafferty, B., & Hards, E. (2005). Investigating sponsorship effectiveness: Do less familiar brands have an advantage over more familiar brands in single and multiple sponsorship agreements? *Brand Management*, 13(1), 50-64.
- Chen, K., & Zhang, J. (2011). Examining consumer attributes associated with collegiate athletic facility naming rights sponsorship: Development of a theoretical framework. *Sport Management Review* 14:2, 103-116.
- Chithra, T. Vijaya, and S. Kothai. (2014) Consumers Attitude on Television Advertisement. *International Journal of Commerce, Business and Management*, Vol. 3, No. 6, 819-823.
- Christensen, S. (2006). Measuring consumer reactions to sponsoring partnerships based upon emotional and attitudinal responses. *International Journal of Market Research*, 48m, 61-80.
- Cornwell, B., & Maignan, I. (1998). An international review of sponsorship research. *Journal of Advertising*, 27, 1-21.
- Cornwell, T.B., Weeks, C.S. and Roy, D.P. (2005), "Sponsorship-linked marketing: opening the black box", *Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 34, Summer, pp. 21-42.
- Crimmins, J. & Horn, M. (1996) Sponsorship: from management ego to marketing success. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 36, pp. 11–21.
- Crompton, J. (2004). Conceptualization and alternate operationalizations of the measurement of sponsorship effectiveness in sport. *Leisure Studies*, 3, 267-281.
- Cross, S.E., Hardin, E.E., & Gercek-Swing, B. (2011) The What, How, Why and Where of Self-Construal. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*. 15, 142-179.
- Dean, D. H. (1999). Brand endorsement, popularity, and event sponsorship as advertising cues affecting consumer pre-purchase attitudes. *Journal of Advertising*, 28(3), 1-12.
- Dietz-Uhler, B., Harrick, E.A., End, C., & Jaquemotte, L. (2000). Sex differences in sport fan behavior and reasons for being a sport fan. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 23, 219–232.
- Dolphin, R. R. (2003). Sponsorship: perspectives on its strategic role. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 8(3), 173-186.
- Farrelly, E., & Quester, P. (2005a). Investigating large-scale sponsorship relationships as co-marketing alliances. *Business Horizons*, 48(1), 55-62.
- Fink, J.S., Trail, G.T., & Anderson, D.F. (2003). Environmental factors associated with spectator attendance and sport consumption behavior: Gender and team differences. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 11, 8–19.
- Friestad, M., & Wright, P. (1995). Persuasion knowledge: Lay people's and researchers' beliefs about the psychology of advertising. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 62-74.

- Funk, D.C., Mahony, D.F., & Ridinger, L.L. (2002). Characterizing consumer motivation as individual difference factors: Augmenting the sport interest inventory (SII) to explain level of spectator support. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 11, 33–43.
- Funk, D.C. & James, J. (2001). The psychological continuum model: A conceptual framework for understanding an individual's psychological connection to sport. *Sport Management Review*, 4(2), 119-150.
- Funk, D., & James, J. (2006). Consumer loyalty: The meaning of attachment in the development of sport team allegiance. *Journal of Sport Management*, 20(2), 189-217.
- Funk, D., Haugtvedt, C., & Howard, D. (2000). Contemporary attitude theory in sport: Theoretical considerations and implications. *Sport Management Review*, 3(2), 125-144.
- Funk, D.C., & Pastore, D.L. (2000). Equating attitudes to allegiance: The usefulness of selected attitudinal information in segmenting loyalty to professional sports teams. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 9, 175–184.
- Garbarino, E., & Johnson, M. (1999). The different roles of satisfaction, trust, and commitment in customer relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, 63(2), 70–87.
- Gladden, J.M., & Funk, D.C. (2001). Understanding brand loyalty in professional sport: Examining the link between brand associations and brand loyalty. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship*, 3, 67–91.
- Gladden, J.M., & Funk, D.C. (2002). Developing an understanding of brand associations in team sport: Empirical evidence from consumers of professional sport. *Journal of Sport Management*, 16, 54–81.
- Gross, P. (2014). *Growing Brands Through Sponsorship*. Springer Fachmedien Wiesbaden.
- Gwinner, K.P. and Eaton, J. (1999), "Building brand image through event sponsorship: the role of image transfer", *Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 25 No. 2, pp. 19-35.
- Gwinner, K., & Swanson, S. (2003). A model of fan identification: Antecedents and sponsorship outcomes. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 17, 275-294
- Hansen, H., & Gauthier, R. (1989). Factors affecting attendance at professional sports events. *Journal of Sport Management*, 3, 15–32.
- Harvey, B. (2001). Measuring the effects of sponsorships. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 1, 59-64.
- Harvey, B., Gray, S., & Despain, G. (2006). Measuring the effectiveness of true sponsorship. *Journal of Advertising Research*, December, 11, 398^09.
- Hastings, G. (1984). Sponsorship works differently from advertising. *International Journal of Advertising*, 3, 171-176.
- Henseler, J., Wilson, B., & Westberg, K. (2011). Managers' perceptions of the impact of sport sponsorship on brand equity.
- Homburg, C., & Giering, A. (1999). The measurement of brand satisfaction and brand loyalty. In *Modern brand management: Fundamentals, new approaches, implementations*. pp.1089–1100. Wiesbaden, Germany: Gabler.

Hong, J. (2011). Sport fans' sponsorship evaluation based on their perceived relationship value with a sport property. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing*, 9, 116-131.

Jacoby, J., & Chestnut, R.W. (1978). *Brand loyalty measurement and management*. New York: Wiley.

Jalleh, Donovan, Giles-Corti, Holman (2002) – Sponsorship: Impact on Brand Awareness and Attitudes

Javalgi, Rajshekhar G., Mark B. Traylor, Andrew C. Gross, and Edward Lampman (1994), "Awareness of Sponsorship and Corporate Image: An Empirical Investigation," *Journal of Advertising*, 23 (4), 47-58.

Johar, G.V., Pham, M.T. & Wakefield, K.L. (2006) How event sponsors are really identified: a (Baseball) field analysis, *Journal of Advertising Research* 46(2), 183-198.

Kaynak, E., Salman, G. G., & Tatoglu, E. (2008). An integrative framework linking brand associations and brand loyalty in professional sports. *Journal of Brand Management*, 15(5), 336-357.

Keller, K.L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring and managing customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Marketing*, 57(1), 1–22.

Kerstetter, D. L., & Kovich, G. M. (1997). An Involvement Profile of Division 1 Women's Basketball Spectators. *Journal of Sport Management*, 11(3), 234-249.

Kropp, F., Lavack, A. M., Holden, S. J., & Dalakas, V. (1999). Attitudes toward beer and tobacco sports sponsorships. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 8, 49-58.

Kwon, H.H., & Trail, G.T. (2003). A reexamination of the construct and concurrent validity of the psychological commitment to team scale. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 12, 88–93.

Laczniak, R., DeCarlo, T., & Ramaswami, S. (2001). Consumers' responses to negative word-of-mouth communication: An attribution theory perspective. *Journal of Consumers Psychology*, 11, 57-73.

Lardinoit, T., & Derbaix, C. (2001). Sponsorship and recall of sponsors. *Psychology and Marketing*, 18(2), 167–190.

Lardinoit, T., & Quester, P. (2001). Attitudinal effects of combined sponsorship and sponsor's prominence on basketball in Europe. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 41(1), 48-58.

Madrigal, R. (2001). Social identity effects in a belief-attitude-intentions hierarchy: Implications for corporate sponsorship. *Psychology and Marketing*, 18, 145- 165.

Mahony, D.F., Madrigal, R., & Howard, D. (2000). Using the psychological commitment to a team (PCT) scale to segment sport consumer based on loyalty. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 9, 15–25.

Manly, Lorne (2005), "The Future of the 30-Second Spot," *The New York Times*, (March), 1.

Markus, H. R., & Kitayama, S. (1991). Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review*, 98, 224-253.

Martensen, A., Grønholt, L., Bendtsen, L., & Juul, M. (2007). Application of a model for the effectiveness of event marketing. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 47, 283–301.

Masterson, R. (2005), "The importance of creative match in television sponsorship", *International Journal of Advertising*, Vol. 24 No. 4, pp. 505-26.

- Mason, K. (2005). How corporate sport sponsorship impacts consumer behavior. *Journal of American Academy of Business*, 7(1), 32-35.
- MediaCom (2013). "Whitepaper: Can Sports Sponsorship Deliver?" 1-16.
- Meenaghan, T. (1996) Ambush Marketing – A Threat to Corporate Sponsorship. *Sloan Management Review*, (Fall), 103–113.
- Meenaghan, T. (2001a), "Sponsorship and Advertising: A Comparison of Consumer Perceptions," *Psychology & Marketing*, 18 (2), 191-215.
- Meenaghan, T. (2001b). Understanding sponsorship effects. *Psychology and Marketing*, 18(2), 95-22.
- Miloch, K. S., & Lambrecht, K. W. (2006). Consumer awareness of sponsorship at grassroots sport events. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 15(3), 147.
- Mizik, N., & Jacobson, R. (2008). The financial value impact of perceptual brand attributes. *JMR, Journal of Marketing Research*, 45, 15–32.
- Mummendey, A., Klink, A., & Brown, R. (2001). Nationalism and patriotism: National identification and out-group rejection. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 40(2), 159-172.
- Murray, K. (1991). A test for services marketing theory: Consumer information acquisition activities. *Journal of Marketing*, 55, 10-25.
- Neale, L., & Funk, D. (2006). Investigating motivation, attitudinal loyalty and attendance behaviour with fans of Australian football. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship*, 7(4), 307.
- Newstead, K. and Romaniuk, J. (2009), "The relative effectiveness of fifteen- and thirty-second television advertisements", *Journal of Advertising Research*, Vol. 49, December, pp. 1-9.
- Ngan, H. M., Prendergast, G. P., & Tsang, A. S. (2011). Linking sports sponsorship with purchase intentions: team performance, stars, and the moderating role of team identification. *European Journal of Marketing*, 45(4), 551-566.
- Obermiller, C., & Spangenberg, E. R. (1998). Development of a scale to measure consumer skepticism toward advertising. *Journal of consumer psychology*, 7(2), 159-186.
- Olson, E.L. (2010), "Does sponsorship work in the same way in different sponsorship contexts?", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 44 Nos 1/2, pp. 180-99.
- Olson, E.L. and Thjømøe, H.M. (2009), "Sponsorship effect metric: assessing the financial value of sponsoring by comparisons to television advertising", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 37 No. 4, pp. 504-15.
- Olson, E. L., & Thjømøe, H. M. (2003). The effects of peripheral exposure to information on brand preference in a low involvement J. *of the Acad. Mark. Sci.* (2009) 37:504–515
- O'Reilly, C., & Chatman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on pro-social behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71, 492–499.
- Pham, M.T. (1992) Effects of involvement, arousal and pleasure on the recognition of sponsorship stimuli, *Advances in Consumer Research*, 19, 85-93.

- Poon, D., & Prendergast, G. (2006). A new framework for evaluating sponsorship opportunities. *International Journal of Advertising*, 25(4), 471-488.
- Pope, N.L. & Voges, K. (1994) Sponsorship evaluation: does it match the motive and the mechanism? *Sport Marketing Quarterly* 3(4), 37-45.
- Pope, N.L. & Voges, K. (2000) The impact of sport sponsorship activities, corporate image and prior use on consumer purchase intention, *Sport Marketing Quarterly* 9(2), 96-101.
- Porter, L., & Golan, G. J. (2006). From subservient chickens to brawny men: A comparison of viral advertising to television advertising. *Journal of Interactive Advertising*, 6(2), 30-38.
- Quester, P. (1997) Awareness as a measure of sponsorship effectiveness: the Adelaide Formula One Grand Prix and evidence of incidental ambush effects, *Journal of Marketing Communications*, 3, 1-20.
- Rifon, N. J., Choi, S. M., Trimble, C. S., & Li, H. (2004). Congruence effects in sponsorship. *Journal of Advertising*, 33, 29-42.
- Rosenberg, M.J., & Hovland, C.I. (1960). Cognitive, affective and behavioral components of attitudes. In M.J. Rosenberg (Ed.), *Attitude organization and change: An analysis of consistency among attitude components* (pp. 1-14). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Ross, S.D. (2006). A conceptual framework for understanding spectator-based brand equity. *Journal of Sport Management*, 20, 22-38.
- Ross, S.D., James, J.D., & Vargas, P. (2006). Development of a scale to measure team brand associations in professional sport. *Journal of Sport Management*, 20, 260-279.
- Roy, D., & Comwell, B. (2004). The effects of consumer knowledge on responses to event sponsorships. *Psychology and Marketing*, 21, 185-207.
- Ruth, Julie A. and Bernard L. Simonin (2003), "'Brought to You by Brand A and Brand B": Investigating Multiple Sponsors' Influence on Consumers' Attitudes Toward Sponsored Events," *Journal of Advertising*, 32 (3), 19-30.
- Schlosser, A.E. (2003), "Experiencing products in the virtual world: the role of goal and imagery in influencing attitudes versus purchase intentions", *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol. 30 No. 2, pp. 184-98.
- Seguin, B., Teed, K., & O'Reilly, N. (2005). National sport organizations and sponsorship: an identification of best practices. *International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing*, 1, 69-90.
- Shank, M.D., & Beasley, F.M. (1998). Fan or fanatic: Refining a measure of sports involvement. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 21, 435-443.
- Simmons, C. J., & Becker-Olsen, K. L. (2006). Achieving marketing objectives through social sponsorship. *Journal of Marketing*, 70, 154-169.
- Singelis, T. M. (1994). The measurement of independent and interdependent self-construals. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 20, 580-591.
- Singelis, T. M., & Brown, W. J. (1995). Culture, self, and collectivist communication: Linking culture to individual behavior. *Human Communication Research*, 21, 354-389.

- Smolianov, P., & Shilbury, D. (2005). Examining integrated advertising and sponsorship in corporate marketing through televised sport. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 14(4), 239.
- Speed, R., & Thomson, P. (2000). Determinants of sport sponsorship effects. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28, 226-238.
- Stipp, H., (1998) The impact of Olympic Sponsorship on corporate image, *International Journal of advertising*, 17, 1:75-87.
- Stipp, H., & Schiavone, N. P. (1996). Modeling the impact of Olympic sponsorship on corporate image. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 36, 22-28.
- Stotlar, D.K. (1993) Sponsorship and the Olympic games, *Sport Marketing Quarterly* 1(1), 35-43.
- Sun Wire Services (2015) *Jersey Advertisement Coming in the 2016 World Cup of Hockey*. Available from: < <http://www.torontosun.com/2015/01/30/nhl-notebook-jersey-advertising-coming-in-2016-world-cup-of-hockey>>
- Swanson, S., Gwinner, K., Larson, B., & Janda, S. (2003). Motivations of college student game attendance and word-of-mouth behavior: The impact of gender differences. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 12, 151-162.
- Theofilou, A., Ventoura-Neokosmidi, Z., & Neokosmidis, I. (2008). Measuring sponsorship effects on consumer purchasing intentions. *Oxford Journal: An International Journal of Business & Economics*, 4(1).
- Thinkbox (2014), "Payback 4: Pathways to Profit", Ebiquity by Thinkbox, available from: <<http://www.thinkbox.tv/press-release-through-recession-and-tech-upheaval-tv-remains-the-most-effective-way-to-advertise>>
- Thjømøe, H. M., Olson, E. L., & Brønn, P. (2002). Decision making processes surrounding sponsorship activities. *Journal of Advertising Research*, 42, 6-15.
- Trafimow, D., Triandis, H. C., & Goto, S. G. (1991). Some tests of the distinction between the private self and the public self. *Journal of Personality and Psychology*, 60, 649-655.
- Trail, G., & James, J.D. (2001). The Motivation Scale of Sport Consumption: Assessment of the scale's psychometric properties. *Journal of Sport Behavior*, 24, 108-127.
- Tripodi, J. A. (2001). Sponsorship-a Confirmed Weapon in the Promotional Armoury.(Analysis). *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship*, 3(1), 95.
- Verity, J. (2002), "Maximizing the Marketing Potential of Sponsorship for Global Brands," *European Business Journal*, 161- 173.
- Walliser, B. (2003) An international review of sponsorship research: extension and update. *International Journal of Advertising*, 22, pp. 5-40.
- Wann, D. L., & Branscombe, N. R. (1993). Sports fans: Measuring degree of identification with their team. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*.
- Yang, X. S., Sparks, R., & Li, M. (2008). Sports sponsorship as a strategic investment in China: perceived risks and benefits by corporate sponsors prior to the Beijing 2008 Olympics. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship*, 10(1), 63.

APPENDIX A – TV and Event Sponsorship in the National Hockey League

Ex: Molson Canadian TV Sponsorship



Ex: Molson Canadian Event Sponsorship



APPENDIX B – Web Links to Video Stimuli

X0 – Control (no TV sponsorship, no event sponsorship)

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=SJIKGISHsjw>

X1 – Traditional TV, no event sponsorship

a: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Wd9Pnnd19Xk>

b: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Wd9Pnnd19Xk>

X2 – Sponsored TV, no event sponsorship

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=dbLv208yAPQ>

X3 – Traditional TV, with event sponsorship

a: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ROC7ApliKPs>

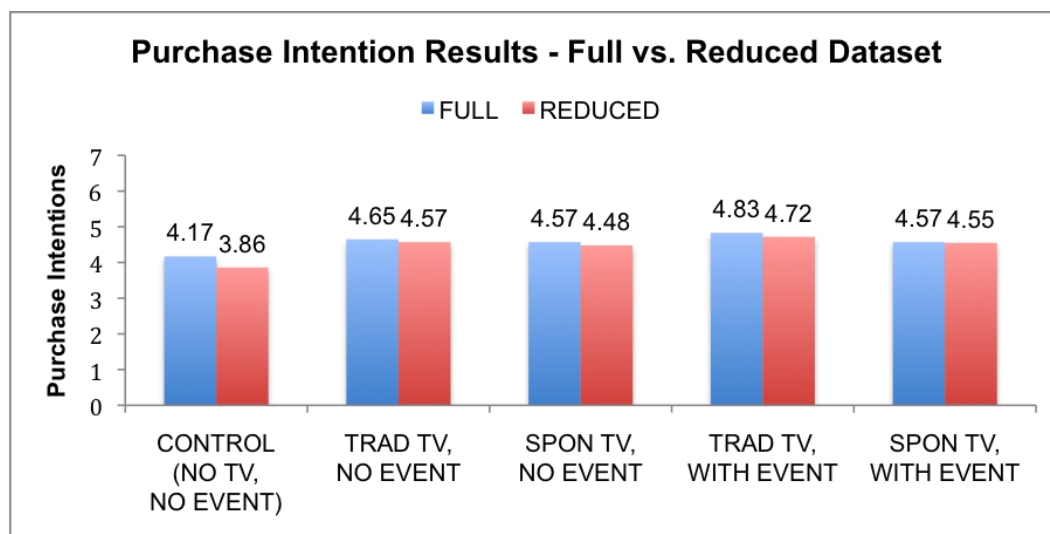
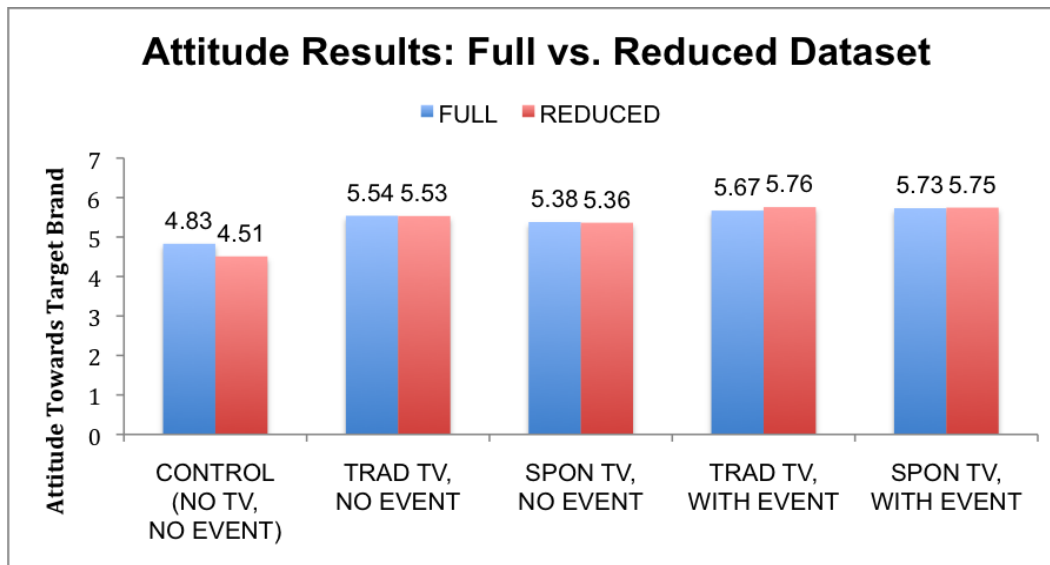
b: https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5_rSu407UBE

X4 – Sponsored TV, with event sponsorship

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=RvV8vb4pq_0

APPENDIX C – Replicated Analyses with Reduced Dataset

As a result of the first manipulation check, we re-ran our hypothesis tests after removing the 44 respondents who failed to properly recognize the Molson advertising graphic they were exposed to. This was a reduction of the original dataset by 20%, with the number of responses having decreased from 223 to 179. Results are reported below.



One-Way ANOVA (H1 – H4)

We had similar results with the reduced dataset, as the one-way ANOVA indicated that overall attitude scores were significantly different across groups, $F(4,174) = 5.389$, $p = .000$. In line with the full dataset, mean attitude scores for each of the four conditions were significantly

higher than the control group score; TV sponsorship alone ($p < .01$), traditional TV advertising alone ($p < .01$), integrated TV and event sponsorship ($p < .01$) and integrated traditional TV and event sponsorship ($p < .01$) each yielded significant increases in attitude, supporting H1a. The difference between integrated TV and event sponsorship and TV sponsorship alone was approaching significance ($p = .144$) but H2a was not supported. As with the full dataset, neither H3a nor H4a were supported.

The one-way ANOVA for purchase intention indicated that overall scores were not significantly different across groups, $F(4,174) = .935$, $p = .445$. There were several increases in mean purchase intention scores from the control group to other conditions that were either marginally significant or approaching significance at $p < .10$; these include TV sponsorship alone ($p = .181$), integrated TV and event sponsorship ($p = .131$), traditional TV advertising alone ($p = .128$), and integrated traditional TV and event sponsorship ($p = .070$). However, none of H1b – H4b were supported (at $p < .05$) after reducing the dataset. Hence, the reduced dataset ultimately yielded the same findings as the full dataset, in terms of the first four hypotheses.

Two-Way ANOVA

In the two-way ANOVAs testing for interaction effects between TV and event sponsorship in the reduced dataset, we had the same overall results as with the original. The interaction effect between TV and event sponsorship on attitude toward target brand was not statistically significant, $F(1,150) = .175$, $p = .676$, partial $\eta^2 = .001$. Similarly, the interaction effect on purchase intention was also not statistically significant, $F(1,150) = .017$, $p = .897$, partial $\eta^2 = .000$.

Moderation Analyses (H5 – H7)

Interestingly, the results of the moderation analyses slightly changed with the reduced dataset, although in a counterintuitive manner. There was no moderating effect of sport involvement on either attitudes ($p = .844$) or purchase intentions ($p = .363$), therefore not supporting H5a or H5b. Similarly, with the reduced dataset, there was no moderating effect of team loyalty on either attitudes ($p = .355$) or purchase intentions ($p = .446$), also not supporting H6a or H6b. These are interesting results, as we found support for the moderating influence of both sport involvement and team loyalty on the relationship between sponsorship and purchase intentions. Also in line with the original results, self-construal did not significantly moderate consumer responses to either attitudes ($p = .996$) or purchase intentions ($p = .559$) at the $p < .05$ level of significance.

HYP.	DESCRIPTION	FULL DATASET (N = 223)		REDUCED DATASET (N = 179)	
		(a) ATT	(b) PI	(a) ATT	(b) PI
H1	TV Spon alone > No advertising	□	□	□	□
H2	TV Spon > Trad TV	□	□	□	□
H3	TV Spon + EV Spon > TV Spon	□	□	□	□
H4	Trad TV + EV Spon > Trad TV	□	□	□	□
H5	Sport Involvement moderates TV/EV Spon	□	□	□	□
H6	Team Loyalty moderates TV/EV Spon	□	□	□	□
H7	Self-Construal moderates TV/EV Spon	□	□	□	□

Significance at $p < .05$