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UNIVERSITY OF NORTHERN COLORADO

Greeley, Colorado

The Graduate School

PURCHASE BEHAVIORS IN A CROSS-NATIONAL ANALYSIS OF
SPONSORSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

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College of Natural and Health Sciences
School of Sport and Exercise Science

May 2015

This Dissertation by: Noni Zaharia

Entitled: *Purchase Behaviors in a Cross-National Analysis of Sponsorship Effectiveness*

has been approved as meeting the requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy
in College of Natural and Health Sciences in School of Sport and Exercise Science,
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ABSTRACT

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Previous sport studies are limited to investigating consumer purchase intentions or past purchases, and not examining actual purchase behaviors. However, several researchers have acknowledged that based on the lack of actual behavior data, their conclusions are incomplete. Thus, adding behavioral information to consumer behavior research is paramount for a correct understanding of the link between intentions and behaviors.

Moreover, despite the increasing number of studies measuring sponsorship outcomes in different sport settings, a major gap exists in the understanding of how sponsorship outcomes function at a global level. Thus, in order to have a more complete understanding of sponsorship and further improve consumer research, the reliability of sponsorship studies developed in one country should be assessed in other countries as well.

This study served two purposes: (1) to develop a conceptual model for sport sponsorship outcomes in the United States (i.e., sponsorship awareness, sponsorship fit, attitude toward the sponsor, purchase intentions, past purchase behaviors, and actual purchase behaviors) and (2) to empirically test a sport sponsorship model (i.e., attitude toward the sponsor, purchase intentions, past purchase behaviors, and actual purchase behaviors) at a global level. The research initiatives were addressed by collecting data via

longitudinal web surveys conducted with soccer fans from the United States and India in the area of a sport sponsorship through a jersey sponsorship.

The results of structural equation models indicated that the relationships among the analyzed sponsorship outcomes do not lead to a significant effect on actual purchase behaviors. The findings acknowledged that the impact of sponsorship variables such as awareness, fit, attitude toward the sponsor, purchase intentions, and past purchases on actual purchase behaviors can be uncertain. Moreover, the results acknowledged the measurement and structural invariance of a global sport sponsorship model.

Keywords: purchase intentions; actual purchase behaviors; sponsorship effectiveness; soccer; fans.

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DEDICATION

To everyone in the pursuit of knowledge - keep this thirst alive!

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Expenditures in global sponsorship have grown steadily over the past decade, rising from \$26.2 billion in 2002 (IEG, 2002), to an expected \$57.5 billion in spending for 2015 (IEG, 2015). Additionally, the sport industry has been the most targeted market for sponsorship spending in the United States, encompassing an estimated 70% of the market share (IEG, 2015). These figures support the effectiveness of sponsorship as a marketing communication instrument for businesses seeking to associate themselves with sport (Crompton, 2004; Dolphin, 2003; Seguin, Teed, & O'Reilly, 2005). Moreover, in the current global economy, due to the rapid and ongoing development of new media technologies (e.g., broadband and mobile platforms), the distance across countries is not viewed to be the barrier it once was, hence, many companies are considered global brands within this universal marketplace, and there are undefined limits and untapped opportunities for sport sponsors (Kolah, 2006; McDonald, Mihara, & Hong, 2004; Santomier & Shuart, 2008).

One of the sponsorship industry's biggest challenges has been the lack of attention paid to measuring sponsorship effects relative to the deals made (Crompton, 2004; Currie, 2004). Therefore, in order to further grasp the outcomes of sponsorship effectiveness and to align corporations with a sporting event or sport organization, an examination of the theories related to sponsorship is required. Existing sponsorship theories are primarily based upon advertising effectiveness models, as sponsorship

research has traditionally expanded from advertising studies (Dees, Bennett & Tsuji, 2007). Moreover, many researchers have attempted to measure sponsorship effectiveness (Alexandris, Tsiotsou, & James, 2012; Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013; Crompton, 2004; Dees, Bennett, & Ferreira, 2010; Kim, Smith, & James, 2010; Meenaghan, 2001). Walliser (2003), who examined more than 230 papers on sponsorship, discovered that most studies named awareness and image transfer as the most popular sponsorship goals. Furthermore, most of the papers have concentrated largely on the use of a single variable, such as consumer awareness or effect of sponsor image as a predictor of sponsorship effectiveness (Ko, Kim, Claussen, & Kim, 2008). Thus, research on sponsorship effectiveness is still not well established in better understanding how sponsorship works in the mind of sport fans, teams, and sponsors (Cornwell, 2008; Tsiotsou & Alexandris, 2009).

Additionally, previous sport studies are limited to investigating purchase intention or past purchases, and not examining actual purchase behaviors. However, several researchers acknowledged that, because the lack of past and actual behavior in their data, their conclusions are incomplete, and adding behavioral information to consumer behavior research is paramount for a correct understanding of the relationship (Agustin & Singh 2005; Bloemer, Ruyter, & Wetzels, 1998). Therefore, understanding the gap between what consumers intend to do and what they actually do at the point of purchase, and understanding how to close this gap, is clearly an important academic, managerial and social objective. Also, Zeithaml (2000) considered the relationship between purchasing intentions, past purchases, and actual purchase behavior to be one of the most difficult to document, because a link between three different information sources has to

be made; thus, sport researchers will need to survey participants not only for their intentions and past behavior, but also for their actual purchase. For this endeavor to happen, sport researchers will need to collect at least two surveys with the same sample of participants, and will need to link these three behaviors together.

Moreover, the complex and competitive nature of the global business setting has required companies to strengthen their brands, and attempt to communicate a strong, consistent, and suitable message to consumers (Hofstede, Steenkamp & Wedel, 1999; Kahle, 2007). One major impediment to global trading is the complexities of language and culture, but some of these difficulties can be overcome through global sponsorship (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989), which is the investment in an individual, event, team, or organization with the expectation of achieving certain corporate objectives in multiple countries (Amis & Cornwell, 2005). Thus, global sport sponsorship, as compared to traditional advertising, could help surmount the challenges related with cultural and linguistic obstacles in a global society (Amis & Cornwell, 2005; Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007; Santomier, 2008). As such, outcomes of global sport sponsorship are important to international enterprises, as global and local objectives can be merged in sport sponsorship to present a reliable brand image across international markets (Rines, 2002). Adding to the importance of this area is that those sponsorships employed across countries are the most cost-effective use of sponsoring sport (Soderman & Dolles, 2013).

Nevertheless, sponsorship can vary across geographic regions in that there are the “moderating effects of country” (Wang, Cheng, Purwanto, & Erimutri, 2011), which convey that a sports team’s fans are not all similar in the way they view sport sponsorships. The differing views of fans can influence a company’s capacity to develop

fan identification (Yeniyurit & Townsend, 2003). Moreover, for firms to be successful in the global marketplace they need to grasp the cultural distinction between countries and cultures in order to construct appropriate marketing strategies based on these distinctions (Craig & Douglas, 2001; Geng, Burton, & Blakemore, 2002; Malhotra, 2001).

Statement of the Problem

A variety of sport sponsorship outcomes, including awareness, fit, attitude toward the sponsor, and purchase intentions have been well examined thus far in scholarly works (Alexandris et al., 2012; Alexandris, Douka, Bakaloumi, & Tsaousi, 2008; Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013; Crompton, 2004; Dees et al., 2010; Eagleman, & Krohn, 2012; Kim et al., 2010; Meenaghan, 2001). Despite the increasing number of studies measuring the above outcomes in different sport settings (Alexandris et al., 2012; Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013; Christensen, 2006; Miloch & Lambrecht, 2006), a major gap exists in the understanding of how sponsorship outcomes function at a global level (Amis & Cornwell, 2005; Santomier, 2008). Furthermore, jersey sponsorship is a growing revenue source in sports, and this sponsorship avenue gives companies an attractive media platform to reach their target customers (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Yoshida, 2013; Chadwick & Thwaites, 2004). However, it appears no sponsorship studies have empirically analyzed the effectiveness of jersey sponsorship on a cross-national stage.

Thus, in order to have a more complete understanding of consumer behavior and further improve consumer research, the reliability of consumer behavior studies developed in one country should be assessed in other countries as well (Craig & Douglas, 2005; Salciuviene, Auruskeviciene, & Lydeka, 2005; Wong, Rindfleisch, & Burroughs,

2003). Further, McDonald and colleagues (2004) conveyed that the ability to broadcast sport globally has aided in assimilating people from different cultures, and has helped accelerate the fusion of worldwide consumer needs. However, there are certain national and cultural concerns between countries, and given the lack of cross-national investigations on sponsorship effectiveness, global companies may encounter obstacles in initiating relationships with consumers (Phau & Lau, 2000).

Another key research gap exists in the understanding of how past purchase and actual purchase behaviors function in relation with other sponsorship outcomes. Several researchers have found that past behavior can often be the strongest predictor of intentions and actual behavior (Shapiro, Ridinger, & Trail, 2013; Trail, Anderson, & Lee, 2006). From a sponsor's perspective, the purchase intention of a consumer is the most useful indicator of sponsorship effectiveness given its impact on future sales (Choi, Tsuji, Hutchinson, & Bouchet, 2011). In addition, several studies have used purchase intentions as the final indicator to evaluate sponsorship effectiveness (Alexandris, Tsaousi & James, 2007; Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013). Although intent to purchase is commonly used in the sponsorship academic literature, a more accurate picture would be through actual purchase data (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Mazodier & Merunka, 2012). Thus, despite the increasing number of studies measuring purchase intentions in different sport settings and countries (Alexandris et al., 2012; Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013), a major sponsorship gap exists in the understanding of how sponsorship outcomes such as awareness and attitudes toward a sponsor, and how purchase behaviors such as past purchase behaviors and actual purchase behaviors function in relation with purchase intentions.

Purpose of the Study

Based on a lack of empirical research evaluating the global validity of sport sponsorship, this dissertation sought to highlight variables that will enable multinational companies to implement more cost-effective global sponsorship campaigns. However, this research first developed a theoretical model for sport sponsorship outcomes in the United States (U.S.), including for the first time, past purchase and actual purchase behaviors, and then empirically tested a sponsorship model at a cross-national level, as the reliability of consumer behavior studies developed in one country should be assessed in other countries as well (Craig & Douglas, 2005; Salciuviene, Auruskeviciene, & Lydeka, 2005; Wong, Rindfleisch, & Burroughs, 2003).

The research also discussed Hofstede's cultural dimensions, as much of the research on cross-national consumer behavior has utilized Hofstede's cultural dimensions, which reflect aspects of a culture that can be measured relative to other cultures (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2010; Hofstede, 2011; Singh, 2006). A second benefit to Hofstede's cultural dimensions rests in its ability to explain and compare aggregate national behavior (Leung, Bhagat, Buchan, Erez, & Gibson, 2005; Magnusson, Wilson, Zdravkovic, Zhou, & Westjohn, 2008; Singh, 2006). Moreover, Hofstede has shown more than 400 significant correlations between his index scores and data from other sources that validate them (Hofstede, 2001). To the researcher's knowledge, there have been no academic studies which implemented Hofstede's cultural dimensions in a sponsorship context. Also, there are very few sport academic papers that utilized Hofstede's cultural dimensions to explain their research findings (Abarbanel, 2012; Aplin & Saunders, 1993; Gau & Kim, 2011; Smith & Shilbury, 2004; Westerbeek, 1999).

This study also employed the number of days between collecting purchase intentions and actual purchases as a control variable because past research from other academic disciplines found that the smaller the temporal separation between intention measurement and actual purchases, the better intentions can predict behavior (Ajzen, 1985; Morwitz, Steckel, & Gupta, 2007).

This study served two purposes: (1) to develop a conceptual model for sport sponsorship outcomes in the United States (i.e., sponsorship awareness, sponsorship fit, attitude toward the sponsor, purchase intentions, past purchase behaviors, and actual purchase behaviors) and (2) to empirically test a sport sponsorship model (i.e., attitude toward the sponsor, purchase intentions, past purchase behaviors, and actual purchase behaviors) at a global level. The research initiatives were addressed by collecting data via longitudinal web surveys conducted with soccer fans from the United States and India in the area of a sport sponsorship through a jersey sponsorship.

Research Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses were developed to guide this research:

- H1 Sponsorship awareness will have a direct positive effect on the attitude toward the sponsor.
- H2 Sponsorship awareness will have a direct positive effect on purchase intentions.
- H3 Sponsorship fit will have a direct positive effect on the attitude toward the sponsor.
- H4 Sponsorship fit will have a direct positive effect on purchase intentions.
- H5 Attitude toward the sponsor will have a direct positive effect on purchase intentions.

- H6 Attitude toward the sponsor will have a direct positive effect on actual purchases.
- H7 Intentions to purchase will have a direct positive effect on actual purchases.
- H8 Past purchase behaviors will have a direct positive effect on purchase intentions.
- H9 Past purchase behaviors will have a direct positive effect on actual purchases.

The hypothesized model guiding this research is presented in Figure 1. Several basic elements must be understood when developing theoretical models (i.e., constructs, measured variables, relationships). Constructs are latent variables that are not directly measured and are sometimes called unobserved variables. They are represented in path models as circles or ovals. Measured variables are directly measured observations, generally referred to as either indicators or manifest variables, and are represented in models as rectangles. Relationships represent hypotheses in path models and are shown as arrows that are single-headed, indicating a predictive/causal relationship (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013).

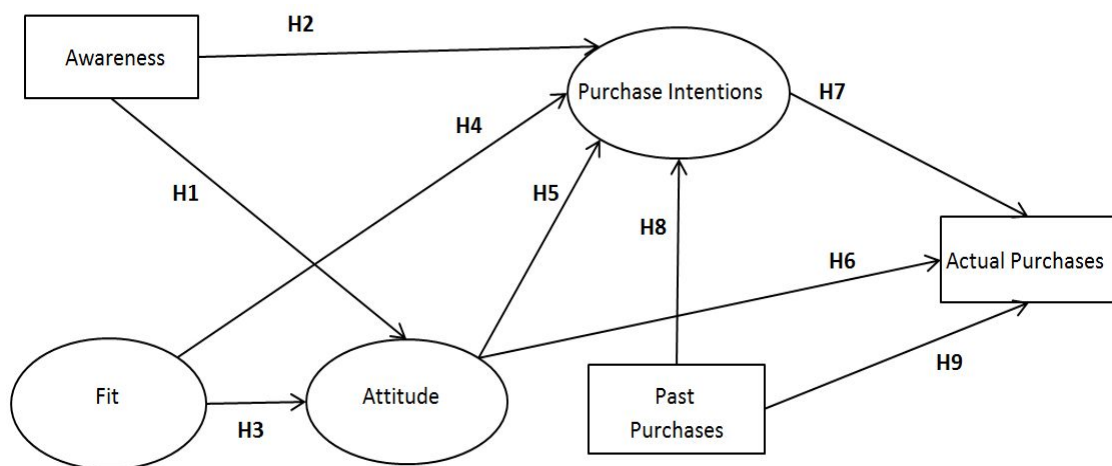


FIGURE 1. Hypothesized Model

Limitations and Future Research

While this research includes important insights to the continued understanding of sport sponsorship, it also has some limitations. However, these limitations can be suggested starting points of future research. First, this study only looked at an international organization, and as such, the results would not apply to small or locally based companies. Second, this study tested the cross-national application of sponsorship outcomes using just one team and sponsor. Future research will require a wider variety of sponsorship contexts, such as different sports, teams, and sponsor levels to test the validity of the research findings. Third, while this research was developed within two local contexts, it might not be applicable to other countries outside of the two that were examined. Thus, researchers should test this study's findings with more countries where sponsorship has experienced growth, such as China and Brazil. Fourth, the level of team identification for the analyzed soccer fans was not controlled in these research analyses; however, the researcher targeted only soccer supporter clubs, which are homogenous groups that would not cast doubt on the validity of the research findings. Fifth, the current study considered six important variables, but other variables may help to further explain sponsorship effectiveness. Future studies ought to test cross-national differences with other sponsorship effects, such as word of mouth, goodwill, and image transfer. Sixth, the data for this research was collected with the use of the purposive sampling method, which contributed to the non-randomization of the sample. However, the sampling judgments made by the author were based on clear and analytical criteria in an effort to reduce such bias.

While the current study does have some limitations, it provides valuable information for assisting multi-national companies to better impact their consumers in a global context.

Definition of Terms

Sport Sponsorship: "an investment in cash or in-kind, in an activity, in return for the exploitable commercial potential associated with that activity" (Meenaghan, 2001, p. 36).

Sponsor Outcomes: overarching corporate marketing, communications, or public relations goals aimed to be achieved through sponsorship (Abratt, Clayton, & Pitt, 1987).

Global Marketing: is as Amis and Cornwell (2005) defined the aggregations of foreign marketing and operations across borders.

Global Company: is defined as an organization selling the same products or services in the same way everywhere (Amis & Cornwell, 2005).

Globalization: is defined as "the process through which an increasingly free flow of ideas, peoples, goods and services and capital leads to the integration of economies and societies" (Aninat, 2002, p. 4).

Brand: is defined as "a name, word, sign, symbol, drawing, or a combination of these items, which aims at identifying the goods and services of a company and differentiating them from the competitors in a market" (Kotler, Filiatrault, & Turner, 2000, p. 478).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A multitude of parameters have already been examined concerning sport sponsorship effectiveness (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005; Walliser, 2003). In the following review of literature the focus lies mainly on studies which deal with the influence of sponsorship awareness, sponsorship fit, attitude toward the sponsor, and purchase intentions because these sponsorship objectives are among the most popular outcomes in the sponsorship literature (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013; Close & Lacey, 2013; Kim et al., 2010). This study also includes a review of literature on past purchase and actual purchase behaviors, as these two variables are important in general consumer behavior studies (Newberry, Klemz, & Boshoff, 2003), but they lack research coverage in a sport context.

Sponsorship Awareness

The consumers' capability to recognize the brand under different conditions has been termed brand awareness, and is considered an important component to companies (Keller, 1993). Researchers have examined subjects' awareness of event sponsors, and the results have determined that awareness is a valuable measure of sponsorship effectiveness (O'Reilly, Nadeau, Seguin, & Harrison, 2007; Walsh, Kim, & Ross, 2008). Furthermore, awareness is widely accepted by practitioners and academics alike (Amis, 2003). Grohs, Wagner, and Vsetecka (2004) found that individuals who could recall sponsors had a more positive attitude toward the sponsors than those who could not recall

sponsors. Consequently, sponsorship must first be known to exist if it is to be effective with target audiences (Farrelly, Quester, & Greyser, 2005). In addition, sponsors expect their status as corporate sponsor of a sport event or organization to result in a brand awareness transfer to increase purchase intentions of their product, thereby providing a return on their investment (Madrigal, 2001; Shank, 2005). Recent studies have also stressed that sponsorship awareness, particularly that related to the sport club's support of the sponsor, is an important aspect of consumers' attitudes towards sponsors and their purchase intentions (Ko, Claussen, Rinehart, & Hur, 2008; Schlesinger & Güngerish, 2011).

Sports sponsorship researchers often use recall methods to assess awareness of a sponsor's brand (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013; Cornwell, 2008; Stotlar, 1993), and, in measuring brand awareness, unaided recall and aided recall (recognition) of sponsors are used (Lardinois & Derbaix, 2001). Unaided recall tasks are considered to be a more appropriate measure than recognition tasks because they require the respondent to retrieve the sponsor's name from memory rather than by recognizing their brand name from a list (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013; Cornwell, 2008; Stotlar, 1993). Moreover, recall increases as a function of duration of exposure to sponsors, previous brand awareness of sponsors, message length and design, socio-demographic variables of the spectators and interest in the event sponsored (Walliser, 2003). By increasing consumer awareness, sponsors try to influence the development and depth of brand association, while increasing the chance that consumers will select the sponsoring brand (Crompton, 2004). Therefore, ninety-three percent of companies are involved with sport sponsorship with a primary objective to increase brand awareness

(Ko, Kim et al., 2008); thus, it is ever important to determine how awareness impacts consumer response to sponsorship.

However, awareness may be country-dependent and therefore, less useful in a global environment (Amis & Cornwell, 2005). To illustrate, Ko, Kim, Claussen, and Kim (2008) found a positive relationship between awareness and purchase intentions in South Korea, which was consistent with those of previous sponsorship awareness and purchase intentions studies conducted in the U.S. (Maxwell & Lough, 2009). In contrast, Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, and Maroco (2013) did not find any significant effect between awareness and purchase intentions in Portugal. Therefore, sponsorship awareness results may vary due to cross-cultural differences.

Much research on cross-cultural consumer behavior has used the Hofstede dimensional model of national culture (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011). Hofstede defined culture as “the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (2001, p. 9). Although countries’ cultural scores originally were produced in the early 1970s, many replications of Hofstede’s study on different samples have proved that the country ranking in his data is still valid (Hofstede et al., 2010). Hofstede’s initial book on cross-cultural differences, *Culture’s Consequences: International differences in work-related values* (1980), appeared at a time when the interest in cultural differences, both between nations and between organizations, was sharply rising, and there was a dearth of empirically supported information on the subject. Through the publication of this scholarly book, Geert Hofstede became the founder of comparative intercultural research (Hofstede et al., 2010). Ever since his first cross-cultural research book, Hofstede continued exploring

alternative sources of data, to validate and supplement his original IBM employees data set, and, in the past three decades, the volume of available cross-cultural data on self-scored values has increased enormously (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Hofstede conducted one of the most comprehensive studies of how values in the workplace are influenced by culture. He analyzed a large database of employee value scores collected within IBM between 1967 and 1973. The data covered more than 70 countries, from which Hofstede first used the 40 countries with the largest groups of respondents and afterwards extended the analysis to 50 countries and 3 regions. Subsequent studies validating the earlier results include such respondent groups as commercial airline pilots and students in 23 countries, civil service managers in 14 countries, 'up-market' consumers in 15 countries and 'elites' in 19 countries (Hofstede et al., 2010). He initially created four dimensions (now six dimensions), assigned indexes on each to all nations, and linked the dimensions with demographic, geographic, economic, and political aspects of a society (Kale & Barnes, 1992), a feature unmatched by other frameworks. It is the most comprehensive and robust in terms of the number of national cultures samples (Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1996). Moreover, the framework is useful in formulating hypotheses for comparative cross-cultural studies. Consequently, Hofstede's operationalization of cultures (1980) is the norm used in international marketing studies (Dawar, Parker, & Price, 1996; Sivakumar & Nakata, 2001).

Therefore, Hofstede's cultural dimensions can explain national and cultural differences across countries. Hofstede's cultural dimensions include six areas: individualism/collectivism, power distance, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty

avoidance, short and long-term orientation, and indulgence/restraint. The individualism/collectivism area relates to the degree to which individuals are self-centered or integrated into groups (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). The power distance component is the level of acceptance of the hierarchical distribution of power, that is the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions (like the family) accept and expect that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede et al., 2010). The masculinity/femininity area illustrates the gender-related values held by individuals in a given society (masculine: independence, ambition and results; feminine: quality of life, service and interdependence; Hofstede et al., 2010). Uncertainty avoidance reflects the feelings and behaviors of the individual when faced with unknown situations, where certain cultures can show preference for rules and safety measures in order to minimize such situations and avoid uncertainty (Hofstede et al., 2010). The short- and long-term orientation refers to values such as perseverance, stability and respect for traditions (Hofstede et al., 2010). Lastly, the indulgence/restraint area is related to the level of needs' gratification that a society allows (indulgence allows free gratification of basic and natural human drives in a society, while restraint stands for a society that suppresses gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms; Hofstede et al., 2010).

Moreover, the countries that were incorporated in the sample (i.e., the U.S. and India) represent a range of cultural diversity, as illustrated by the variety of index values for the cultural dimensions from Hofstede and colleagues' indexes (i.e., scales from 0 to 100; Hofstede et al., 2010). Individualism varies from a high of 91 in the U.S. to a low of 48 in India; uncertainty avoidance varies from a high of 46 in the U.S., to 40 in India;

power distance varies from a high value of 77 in India, to a low of 40 in the U.S.; masculinity varies from a high of 62 in the U.S., to a low of 56 in India; long-term orientation ranges from 51 in India to 26 in the U.S.; and indulgence varies from 68 for the U.S. to 26 in India (Hofstede et al., 2010).

One of Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov's (2010) widely discussed cultural dimensions, the individualism/collectivism dimension, can further elucidate sponsorship awareness. This dimension conveys that individualist cultures tend to be characterized by loose relationships between people (e.g., out-groups), while collectivist cultures have stronger ties between people (e.g., in-groups). For example, the U.S. is considered an individualist culture, while India is a collectivist culture (Hofstede et al., 2010). As such, we might expect to see individuals in collectivist cultures (e.g., India) to be more observant to the manner in which sponsors act as in-group members for the benefit of the group because, normally, the sponsors are perceived as aiding the sport event/team in accomplishing their goals (Gwinner, 2005). Thus, a sponsor's in-group status should aid fans in correctly recognizing a team's sponsors, which then can have a reciprocal positive influence on attitude toward the sponsors, as the favorable attitudes sport fans have toward their peers can extend to team sponsors (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003).

Moreover, people of collectivist cultures, familiar with symbols, signs, and indirect communication, will process information in a different way than people of individualist cultures, who are more verbally oriented and accustomed to explanations and rhetoric (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011). Companies from Japan and Korea (i.e., collectivist countries) display corporate identity logos in their television advertisements more frequently than do companies from the U.S. and Germany (i.e., individualist

countries; Hofstede et al., 2010). This is because companies from collectivistic countries generally emphasize corporate brands, which inspire trust among consumers and persuade them to buy (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2010). In light of the above information, one would expect that having a corporate logo on a soccer team jersey would be valued more in collectivist cultures than in individualist cultures, because companies from individualist countries put a focus on product brands with unique characteristics, not on corporate brands (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2010).

Sponsorship Fit

Individuals who believe there is a fit between the sponsor and event generally exhibit a greater ability to identify the correct sponsors of the event (Speed & Thompson, 2000). The concept of fit indicates the relatedness, similarity, relevance, or congruence of event-sponsor relationships (Poon & Prendergast, 2006). Research has specified that sponsors who support a cause that fits well with their firm's mission and image could influence consumers' cognitive and conative reactions to sponsorship (Poon & Prendergast, 2006). Furthermore, if individuals perceive the sponsor and event to be highly related, and they view the event in a positive manner, then the individuals are more likely to exhibit positive attitudes toward the sponsor of the event (Becker-Olsen, 2003; Harvey, 2001). In addition, the more relevant the brand is to consumers, the more likely they are to purchase that brand (Dees et al., 2010) as consumer intentions are dependent upon the level of perceived fit between the event and sponsor (Becker-Olsen, 2003; Koo, Quarterman, & Flynn, 2006).

Research on mental processing of a sponsor's association with a property indicates that individuals exhibit a bias toward those sponsoring brands that are related to

the event (Pham & Johar, 2001; Speed & Thompson, 2000). That is, consumers are more likely to identify a brand as a sponsor of an event if there is some relationship between the product and the event (e.g., a tennis racquet brand sponsoring a tennis tournament) than if there is no relationship (e.g., a publishing company sponsoring a tennis tournament; Pham & Johar, 2001).

Sponsorships with low fit instead make negative associations more accessible, as this negative affect is likely to engender other negative thoughts and result in an unfavorable attitude toward the sponsorship by that brand (Mazodier & Merunka, 2012). However, Olson and Thjømmøe (2011), using realistic sponsorship stimuli, and Trendel and Warlop (2005), using implicit measures, demonstrate that low fit sponsors actually may benefit from stronger identification than do high fit sponsors. Because people find some incongruence interesting, such low fit could generate positive effects (Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989), particularly if spectators view the sponsorship as philanthropic (D'Astous & Bitz, 1995), consider the sponsored event important and significant (Speed & Thompson, 2000), or regard the association as funny and creative and if they exhibit a high need for cognition (Masterson, 2005). Sponsor-event fit thus represents a key influence on consumer responses to sponsorship.

When it comes to sponsorship fit, considerations should be also based on the location and culture in which an investment is made. In individualist cultures, brands have to be unique and distinct with consistent characteristics, whereas in collectivist cultures the brand should be viewed as being part of a larger whole and a product of a trusted company (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2010). Likewise, children from China (i.e., a collectivist culture) will group products together that share a *relationship*, whereas

children from Canada (i.e., an individualist culture) will group products together that share a *category* (Hofstede et al., 2010). Such findings help to explain the possible cultural variation in the relationship between sponsorship fit and attitude toward the sponsor. As such, American soccer fans can view a sponsor's brand as not fitting well with the team brand because the two should be unique and share a *category* (e.g., a sport equipment company and a soccer team), while highly identified Indian soccer fans can view a fit between the sponsor's brand and the team's brand in terms of the overall *relationship* or *trust* in the sponsor. Hence, Indian sport fans are expected to see a higher fit between team and sponsor, and thus have a higher attitude toward the sponsor and a higher propensity to buy a sponsor's products than American sport fans, as the emphasis on brands fitting with companies in collectivist countries means building positive relationships/attitudes among consumers in a company, which then influences them to buy its products (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2010).

Attitude Toward the Sponsor

The composition of a sponsor-event pair provides a natural form of congruity or incongruity that influences attitudes (Mazodier & Merunka, 2012). Attitude is defined as "a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable manner with respect to a given object" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 6). The literature suggests that the development of a favorable attitude toward the sponsor is a pivotal factor for sponsorship effectiveness (Alexandris et al., 2007; Chen & Zhang, 2011), as favorable attitudes toward sponsors are expected to point to positive behavioral intentions (Swanson, Gwinner, Larson, & Janda, 2003). In fact, Howard and Sheth (1969) proposed that attitude influences purchase only through intention. Thus, a sponsorship can change

consumers' responses towards a specific sponsor, resulting in the development of positive attitudes towards the sponsor, which can then lead to increased consumer willingness to buy the sponsor's products (Harvery, Gray, & Despain, 2006). Firms engaging in sponsorship activities are expecting to see sport consumers having the same positive feelings regarding sponsorship brand as they have toward their team (Shaw & McDonald, 2006), and sport consumers tend to have favorable attitudes toward the sponsor if they believe that the sponsorship is important to the team (Madrigal, 2001). To exemplify, Stipp and Schiavone (1996) assessed the general positive attitude toward the sponsorship of the Olympic Games and the consequent positive attitude toward the sponsoring organizations and found a significant link.

However, the increased amount of sponsor-initiated commercial activity in relation to major sponsorship programs (e.g., mega events and sponsors of large sport clubs) can produce negative attitudes toward sponsors (Lee, Sandler, & Shani, 1997; Veltri, Luehman-Jaynes, & Kuzma, 2001). When sponsorship is viewed as increasingly commercialized, there is a danger that the "goodwill phenomenon" may be damaged (Lee et al., 1997; Meenaghan, 2001). Lee and colleagues (1997) discussed the Olympic Games as an example of this potential problem. With the Olympic Games, sponsorship might be perceived as a factor increasing commercialization and professionalism, while contributing to the loss of the amateurism of the games (Lee et al., 1997). Therefore, the issue of "attitude toward the sponsor" is an important matter that needs to be considered when companies evaluate sponsorship arrangements.

However, the attitudes toward a sponsor may vary across countries. For example, a potential area of concern is jersey sponsorship in North America. Some fans consider

jersey sponsorship on game uniforms “untouchable territory” that should remain free from financial exploitation (Lukas, 2009). However, Jensen, Bowman, Wang, and Larson (2012) showed that fans of Major League Soccer (MLS), the professional soccer league in the U.S. which is one of the few North American leagues to allow sponsor to appear on jerseys, reacted positively to shirt advertisements if these advertisements resulted in lower ticket prices and if they helped MLS teams attract and/or retain top players. A possible explanation for the acceptance of incorporating a sponsor on a team’s official game jersey could be that some countries score below average on the uncertainty avoidance dimension (Hofstede et al., 2010), and thus there is a fair degree of acceptance for new ideas, innovative products and a willingness to try something new or different. Nevertheless, highly identified fans from the U.S. can have a negative attitude toward a jersey sponsor compared with highly identified Indian and British fans, as the U.S. has a short-term orientation cultural dimension, which means that people from the U.S. have a respect for traditions (Hofstede et al., 2010), such as the tradition to not have a sponsor on a team’s jersey (Lukas, 2009).

Another facet to consider in sponsorship is the individualistic/collectivist orientation of a country, and how it impact attitudes. Individualists (e.g., people from the U.S.) desire consistency among their attitudes, feelings, and behaviors. As a result, under certain conditions, the behavior of consumers can be predicted from their attitudes toward products, services, and brands, and a purchase prediction is derived from a positive attitude (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011). In collectivist cultures (e.g., India), however, there is no consistent relationship between attitude and future behavior. It potentially could be a reverse relationship with purchase behavior coming first, and defining attitude (Chang

& Chieng, 2006). Conversely, collectivism represents an ideology suggesting that people are integrated into strong cohesive in-groups. Members of the in-group learn to think in “we” and “us” terms, and relationships are created and exist over long periods (Aplin & Saunders, 1993). Individualism, on the other hand, represents a system where the links between people are less defined, and children learn to think of themselves as “I” and think of others in terms of their individual characteristics and not according to their group membership (e.g., a sport team’s fans group; Aplin & Saunders, 1993). Consequently, as favorable attitudes are expected to point to behavioral intentions (Laczniak, DeCarlo, & Ramaswami, 2001; Swanson, Gwinner, Larson, & Janda, 2003), highly identified fans from collectivist cultures (e.g., India) can be more responsive than highly identified fans from individualist cultures (e.g., the U.S.) to the way sponsors act as in-group members (Gwinner, 2005), and thus, can have a more favorable attitude toward the sponsor than American sport fans.

Purchase Intentions

From a sponsor’s perspective, the purchase intention of a consumer is the most useful indicator of sponsorship effectiveness given its impact on future sales (Choi et al., 2011). In addition, several studies have used purchase intentions as the final indicator to evaluate sponsorship effectiveness (Alexandris et al., 2007; Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013). According to Spears and Singh (2004), purchase intentions refer to the person’s conscious plan in exerting an effort to purchase a brand (p. 56). Moreover, the intent to purchase sponsors’ products is a focal indicator for sport entities to legitimize their relationships with sponsors and to negotiate future contracts (Hong, 2011).

According to Meenaghan (2001), a fan's response to the sponsors passes through a series of stages, from first becoming aware of the sponsors to finally adopting purchase intentions and behaviors toward their products. Moreover, fans' awareness of the sponsors contributes positively to attitude toward the sponsor, and purchase intention is subsequent to that positive attitude (Schlesinger & Güngerich, 2011). When fans see sponsors supporting their team, they may buy the sponsors' products as an extension of goodwill/gratitude or to repay the sponsor for supporting the team (Parker & Fink, 2010). In addition, Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) suggest that purchase intentions are the link between attitudes and behavior. Consumers must have an intention to purchase a product or service before the action takes place; therefore, purchase intentions are an antecedent to actual purchase behaviors (Dees et al., 2010). These studies support the notion of Spears and Singh (2004) that purchase intentions represent a "favorable intent" to actually purchase products and services from companies.

Building on attitude and personality theory, Ajzen's (1985) Theory of Planned Behavior, together with its precursor the Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), is one of the most widely applied theories in consumer research (Bamberg & Moser, 2007; Manning, 2009). While the Theory of Reasoned Action was designed for behaviors over which the individual has complete control, the modifications included in the Theory of Planned Behavior, including the concept of perceived behavioral control, extended the theory's field of application to situations where individuals lack complete control over their behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

The Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) which has proved highly successful to date when applied to a wide spectrum of different behavior patterns

(Petty, Rao, & Strathman, 1991), suggests that purchase intentions are the link between attitudes and behavior. Consumers must have an intention to purchase a product or service before the action takes place; therefore, purchase intentions are an antecedent to actual purchase behaviors (Dees et al., 2010). These findings also support the notion of Spears and Singh (2004) that purchase intentions represent a “favorable intent” to actually purchase products and services from companies.

However, considering culture’s ability to form an individual’s personality, which in turn modifies consumer behavior (Samli, 1994), and bearing in mind that most aspects of consumer behavior are culture-bound (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011), culture may impact purchase intentions in distinct areas differently. Past research assert that converging technology and disappearing income differences across countries will not lead to standardization of consumer behavior (De Mooij, 2004; De Mooij & Hofstede, 2002). With these wealth increases, consumers are now more able to express their values, but these values differ by culture (Giddens, 2000). Also, while new technology does not essentially change people, it does strengthen existing behavior (De Mooij, 2004). Further, De Wulf, Odekerken-Schröder, and Iacobucci (2001) and Brady et al. (2005) found differences across cultures in the fit of several distinct conceptual models on the connections among consumer satisfaction, service value, service quality, and behavioral intentions. Likewise, behavioral intention appears to be more difficult to predict in a collectivist society, such as Taiwan or India, when compared to the U.S. (Chiou, 2000). Further, previous research has also indicated Singaporeans had higher purchase intentions than Americans, while no disparities were found between Thais and Americans (Pornpitakpan & Green, 2007).

To examine cultural consumption, the Hofstede and colleagues' (2010) masculinity/femininity dimension can be of service. In masculine cultures (i.e., the U.S. and India), consumer behavior was characterized by a high degree of acceptance for advertising, and the decisions on larger purchases was usually made by males (Foscht, Maloles, Swoboda, Morschett, & Sinha, 2008). Also, past consumer behavior studies stressed that status purchases are more frequent in masculine cultures, which more often consider foreign goods as more attractive than local products. Research also suggests that masculinity has a positive association with the flow of technological innovations (Dwyer, Mesak, & Hsu 2005; Singh 2006). Moreover, countries can be further examined in indulgence and restraint contexts of a culture. Indulgence cultures (e.g., the U.S.) are characterized by a perception that one can act as one pleases, spend money, and indulge in leisurely and fun-related activities, while restraint cultures (e.g., India) are distinguished by a feeling that enjoyment of leisurely activities, spending, and other similar types of indulgence are somewhat wrong (Hofstede et al., 2010). Thus, highly identified American sport fans have the potential to show higher purchase intentions values than highly identified Indian sport fans for a sport team's sponsors.

However, if one examines Hofstede's other cultural dimensions, in low power distance cultures (e.g., the U.S.), decision-making is more information-based as people consciously gather information before buying. In high power distance cultures, as in collectivist cultures (e.g., India), one's clothes, shoes, and posture define position in the social hierarchy, and external appearance is important to acquire respect from others (Goodrich & De Mooij, 2011). In addition, the greater pressure to conform to the in-groups that prevails in collectivist countries can affect consumer behavior, while

members of individualist cultures are less likely to be pressured to buy brands that are not meaningful to them (Foscht et al., 2008). So, since sponsors can be considered in-group members and there is a greater pressure to agree to the in-group when it comes to consumer behavior in collectivist cultures (Foscht et al., 2008; Gwinner, 2005), highly identified Indian sport fans have the potential to sustain higher purchase intentions values than highly identified American sport fans.

Lastly, the relationship between purchase intentions and other sponsorship outcomes should be considered in determining sponsorship effectiveness across nations. In individualist, low power distance cultures, people will actively acquire information via the media and friends to prepare for purchases, while collectivist and/or high power distance cultures, people will acquire information via implicit and interpersonal communication, and base their buying decisions on feelings and trust in the company (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011). For example, highly identified sport fans from individualist countries (e.g., the U.S.) can be shifted from being aware or from noticing the fit between a sport team and its jersey sponsor via the media, to directly purchase the sponsor's products. On the other hand, highly identified sport fans from collectivist countries (e.g., India) are informed of the jersey sponsor via their in-group and are expected to base their buying decisions on their attitude toward the sponsor, and not awareness or perceived fit. Given the above information, this may result in different relationships between purchase intentions and the other sponsorship outcomes (e.g., sponsorship awareness, sponsorship fit, attitude toward sponsor, etc.) at a cross-national level.

Past Purchase Behaviors

Past behaviors have been well recognized predictors of future behaviors (Janz, 1982). In fact, Ajzen (1985) remarked in his Theory of Planned Behavior that past behaviors can be the best predictors of future behaviors. Moreover, previous studies demonstrate the impact of past behavior on both intention and future behavior (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Smith et al., 2008). In particular, sport researchers have found that past behavior can often be the strongest predictor of intentions and actual behavior (Shapiro et al., 2013; Trail et al., 2006).

One alternative solution to predict actual purchase behaviors was introduced in the Theory of Planned Behavior where it was stated that past behavior influences intentions and future behavior through Theory of Planned Behavior variables (Ajzen, 1991). Conner and McMillan (1999) argued that the addition of past behavior to the Theory of Planned Behavior is justified from a behaviorist perspective, where behavior is seen to be influenced by habit, a factor that is not captured by the concepts in the Theory of Planned Behavior. They argued that this is because repeated performance of a particular behavior transfers it from the influence of conscious processes, described in the Theory of Planned Behavior, to automatic processes that occur in the presence of specific cues. Within the context of sport, researchers stated that past fan consumption behavior through various means helps determine how likely fans are to engage in future sport consumption (Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2000; Trail, Fink & Anderson, 2003). Furthermore, Shapiro and colleagues (2013) have found that past behavior is often the strongest predictor of intentions when they examined the differential effects of past sport consumer behaviors on various future sport consumer intentions within the context of a

new college football program. This study was in line with other scholars, such as Ouellette and Woods (1998) that found that those behaviors repeated frequently were more likely to become habitual behavioral patterns than those that were rarely performed. Consequently, it is sometimes argued that past behaviors cannot predict future intentions because no situation is exactly alike (Vranas, 2005).

Actual Purchase Behaviors

Sponsorship should account for behavioral change in order to be proven effective (Amis & Cornwell, 2005), and the most desirable behavioral change from a sponsor's outlook is the influence on sales (Crompton, 2004). However, the true long-term impact of a sponsorship on sales, or intent-to-purchase, is difficult to evaluate and, thus, often questioned (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Mazodier & Merunka, 2012; O'Reilly et al., 2008). Moreover, there exists a gap between what consumers say they are going to do and what they actually do at the point of purchase (Auger & Devinney, 2007; Belk, Devinney, & Eckhardt, 2005). This phenomenon is referred to by researchers as the attitude-behavior gap, and is contrary to the attitude-behavior relationship framework developed by Fazio, Powell, and Herr (1983). Fazio and colleagues (1983) developed a model to understand the influence that attitudes have on intentions. Their model was process-oriented in that it focused on how attitudes influence behavior. The model began by assuming that an individual's social behavior is largely a function of his or her perceptions of a specific situation. For example, a sports fan's preference for a specific team has an effect on his or her decision to watch the game (Mahony & Howard, 1998; Mahony & Moorman, 2000). Based on this assumption, a number of steps must occur in order for attitudes to influence behavior.

First, the attitude must be activated. Second, attitudes developed through a direct behavioral experience will impact perceptions of a situation or event. Finally, those perceptions, developed through a combination of an individual's attitudes and their subjective norms, will guide consistent behaviors relative to the specific event/situation in question (Fazio et al., 1983). Conversely, it appears no academic studies have empirically analyzed actual behaviors in sponsorship.

In addition, respondents often tend to over report "desirable" behaviors and underreport "undesirable" ones according to their social desirability bias (Bagozzi, 1994; Bagozzi, Yi, & Nassen, 1999). Similarly, in response to questions about their future demand for a new product or service, respondents often exaggerate their demand and produce a positive intention bias (Klein, Babey & Sherman, 1997). The answer order bias, which refers to respondents' tendency to rate alternatives that appear first on a list higher than those that appear later, can also affect survey results (Anderson, 1988). Therefore, respondents will also almost certainly make errors in their predictions of their future purchase context. For example, they may arrive at the stadium with less money than they predicted, or the desired product may not be available at that time, or a competing product may be heavily discounted or be promoted in a more attractive manner. Talking about globalization, past research also asserts that converging technology and disappearing income differences across countries will not lead to standardization of consumer behavior (De Mooij, 2004; De Mooij & Hofstede, 2002); thus, actual consumer behavior may differ across countries.

On the other hand, sport became global because of its cross-cultural capacity to attract people of different locations (Ratten, 2011). The declining birth rate and ageing

population of the United States, and the large increase in middle class households in India together with its large population have enticed more professional sport teams to this country (Ratten & Ratten, 2011). Consequently, sport consumer behavior across borders can have a homogenous circulation across geographical regions. Still, it appears no academic studies have empirically analyzed actual behaviors in international sponsorship.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study served two purposes: (1) to develop a conceptual model for sport sponsorship outcomes in the United States (i.e., sponsorship awareness, sponsorship fit, attitude toward the sponsor, purchase intentions, past purchase behaviors, and actual purchase behaviors) and (2) to empirically test a sport sponsorship model (i.e., attitude toward the sponsor, purchase intentions, past purchase behaviors, and actual purchase behaviors) at a global level. The methodology that was employed in the present study is organized into three sections: (1) participants and data collection, (2) measures, and (3) data analysis.

To measure sponsorship effectiveness, a survey was utilized where participants rated the effectiveness of Chelsea Football Club's (CFC) jersey sponsorship. The researcher selected CFC, which plays in the English Premier League (EPL), as this club is one of the largest global brands in a sport with an increasing global appeal (Karon, 2004). In addition, the use of actual sponsors, rather than abstract sponsors, should be a central theme in sponsorship research because sport fans may have varying attitudes and intentions toward different companies, teams, and sports (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013; Wakefield & Bennett, 2010).

Jersey sponsorship is an important revenue source in sports, especially to soccer, and gives companies an attractive media platform to reach their target customers (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Yoshida, 2013; Chadwick & Thwaites, 2004). The

jersey sponsor for this study was not identified, due to proprietary information and to ensure inscrutability, but it is a multi-national company that sells products such as computers, televisions, mobile phones, printers and refrigerators, and is the largest information technology company in the world (Grobart, 2013).

Participants and Data Collection

Web-based questionnaires were utilized for the collection of data, as this method offered several advantages over traditional survey methods (i.e., mail, paper and pencil, and phone surveys), including low cost, time efficiency, and the ease and accuracy of data inputs (Duffy, Smith, Terhanian, & Bremer, 2005; Evans & Mathur, 2005). The online questionnaire was conducted in English, due to it being the most commonly used language in the selected countries. Only English-speaking countries were selected, as past researchers have argued that language and translation continue to present one of the biggest obstacles in cross-national research (Apentiik & Parpart, 2006). When a different language is used across cultures, equivalence of the survey instrument is more likely to be absent, thus preventing meaningful cross-cultural comparisons (Tourangeau, Rips, & Rasinski, 2000). Moreover, while translated materials encourage participation of non-English speakers, a set of items used to measure a construct in English might not accurately assess the underlying construct in a different language or culture (Harzing, 2006).

The survey link was advertised to administrators of CFC's official supporter clubs, which were identified from the official CFC website, and were located in the U.S. and India. The survey link was also posted on CFC's official supporter clubs' Facebook pages, Twitter accounts, and forums of these two countries. CFC supporter clubs were

targeted to participate in this research because diehard fans display long-term dedication to the team (Sutton, McDonald, & Milne, 1997), and have a higher likelihood to support event sponsors and purchase from these sponsors (Eagleman & Krohn, 2012; Maxwell & Lough, 2009). The researcher expected that the surveyed fans' identification toward the team to be high because fan club members are part of the highly identified fans found in other sponsorship studies (Alexandris et al., 2012), and because highly identified fans share the feeling of belongingness gained through interactions with other supporters or association with the team (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003), such as being part of a sport supporter club. Moreover, Sandvoss (2005), and Reysen and Branscombe (2010) suggested that fans perceive themselves as members of groups, even when they are not clearly part of an organized fan club.

The research plan was to administer an initial survey to examine sponsorship awareness, fit, attitude toward the sponsor, past purchases, and purchase intentions. This research undertook a follow-up survey with the same sample at a later date to collect data regarding actual purchases of CFC's jersey sponsor's products that took place between the initial survey and the follow-up survey. The survey software (i.e., Qualtrics) allowed just one response to be recorded from each Internet protocol (IP) address, preventing participants from taking the survey more than once. The researcher also removed questionnaires that were completed by CFC fans from countries other than the U.S., the U.K., and India, as indicated from the demographic portion of the survey regarding the participant's country of residence.

The threat of non-response bias, which occurs when the characteristics of respondents differ from those who chose not to respond in a way that is relevant to the

study results (Dillman, 2000; Jordan, Walker, Kent, & Inoue, 2011; Miller & Smith, 1983), was addressed by comparing characteristics of the follow-up survey's non-respondents from the initial survey with the characteristics of the respondents from the follow-up survey. Furthermore, demographic information of the respondents from the follow-up survey was then compared with known demographics of the population (Amador, 2010; Government of India, 2011). Comparisons were made on various demographic variables, including age, education, income, and gender. A comparison on core study variables was also made between early and late respondents of the follow-up survey for each country (i.e., first thirty respondents and last thirty respondents).

The sample for this study was obtained using the purposive sampling technique, as this type of non-probability sampling involves the selection of subjects who are most advantageously placed, or in the best position, to provide the required information. Purposive sampling is considered a legitimate option when it is impractical to acquire a truly random sample, and when the researchers logically assume that the selected sample is representative of the entire population, according to their knowledge of the population (Babbie, 2010). Also, the predilection for this sampling population was similar to samples used in previous sport sponsorship research (Alexandris et al., 2012; Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013).

Measures

The online survey included items adapted from previously validated surveys to measure the following areas: sponsorship awareness via unaided recall (Walsh et al., 2008), sponsorship fit (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008), attitude toward the sponsors (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008), and purchase intentions (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Hong, 2011).

Slight modifications were made to suit the specific needs of this study. The items were arranged in the same order for both countries and contained identical designs. Previous results indicated that unaided recall is generally more accurate than aided recall when assessing sponsorship awareness (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013; Cornwell, 2008; Wakefield, Becker-Olsen, & Cornwell, 2007), and as such this research examined only unaided recall. Previous sponsorship research measuring awareness utilized web or mail surveys where respondents could have checked the internet to become aware of the sponsor(s) (Biscaia et al., 2013); thus, measurement error could have occurred. In order to accurately test respondents' knowledge of CFC's jersey sponsor in the online survey, and to reduce outside Internet searches, this study's subjects were required to input the jersey sponsor within 20 seconds before being automatically re-directed to the next survey page. Responses were scored from 0, meaning no recall of jersey sponsor, to 1, recall of the jersey sponsor. This research also measured past purchase behaviors with one item rated on a two-point scale ranging from 0 (*No Purchase*) to 1 (*Purchase*), and actual purchase behaviors were collected using continuous numeric data (e.g., *How many <sponsor name> products you bought during the period between the first survey and today?*). The Likert-type sponsorship items that were for this research are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Sponsorship Effectiveness Constructs

Constructs/Items
<i>Sponsorship Fit^a</i>
There is a close fit between <sponsors name> and <team name>
<Sponsor name> and <team name> have many similarities It makes sense that <sponsor name> sponsors <team name>
My image of <team name> is consistent with my image of <sponsor name>
<i>Attitude Toward the Sponsor^a</i>
I like <sponsor name> brand
<Sponsor name> is a very good brand of <product-category>
I have a favorable disposition/mood toward <sponsor name>
<i>Purchase Intentions^a</i>
I will buy a <product-category> made by <sponsor name>
Next time I need to buy a <product-category>, I would consider buying <sponsor name>
I will be more likely to buy a <product-category> made by <sponsor name> over its competitors

This study also employed the following demographic variables as descriptive statistics: age (1 = age 18-34; 2 = age 35-54; 3= age 55 and over), gender (0 = female; 1 = male), education (1 = high school or some college; 2 = undergraduate degree; 3 = graduate degree), and household income (1 = less than \$20,000; 2 = \$20,000 – \$59,999; 3 = \$60,000 – \$89,999; 4 = \$90,000 or more). Moreover, this study included the number of days between collecting purchase intentions and actual purchases as a continuous control variable because past research from other academic disciplines found that the smaller the temporal separation between intention measurement and actual purchases, the better intentions can predict behavior (Ajzen, 1985; Morwitz et al., 2007).

This research used naturally opposing and mutually exclusive scale anchors, as Harzing, Brown, Köster and Zhao (2012) and Harzing, Reiche and Pudelko (2013) found that anchor encourages international respondents to connect fully with the

questions. Also, Hui and Triandis (1989) and Clarke III (2001) recommended scales with more categories as appropriate for cross-cultural research, thus this study used Likert-type scales with 10 categories, anchored by ‘*Strongly Disagree*’ (1) and ‘*Strongly Agree*’ (10).

Another reason for implementing a Likert-type scale with 10 categories in this research is that a range of previous studies has found strong differences in response styles between countries (Harzing, 2006). In particular, East Asian respondents have been shown to display a higher proportion of middle response in comparison to U.S. and Canadian respondents who displayed more extreme response styles (Shiomi & Loo, 1999; Takahashi, Ohara, Antonucci, & Aakiyama, 2002). Dolnicar and Grün (2007) confirmed that this difference was also apparent between Australian and Asian respondents, whilst Si and Cullen (1998) found similar differences between East Asian and Western managers from the U.S., Germany and the UK when scales with explicit mid-points are used. Similarly, Johnson, Kulesa, Cho, and Shavitt (2005), and Harzing (2006) suggested that national-level collectivism might be related to middle responses styles. This tendency is reinforced by the fact that most collectivist countries are characterized by an indirect communication style, where the expression of strong opinions is avoided (Hall, 1976). Confucian teachings, predominant in East Asian countries, reinforce this communication style by advising followers to keep themselves from extremes (Si & Cullen, 1998). Therefore, researchers need to pay more attention to response styles in their data collection procedures as research clearly shows that there is stability in response style differences between countries (Harzing, 2006); thus, using a Likert-type scale with 10 categories would be advised as this scale does not have a mid-

point. In addition, the attentiveness of survey participants was tested by inserting the statement “*On this question please click on `Strongly Agree` so we can ensure you are paying attention*” in one of the sponsorship outcomes’ items.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 21 and AMOS 21. Before any analyses were conducted, the normality of the data was assessed by looking at skewness and kurtosis values. Kline’s (2005) suggestion is that only variables with skew index absolute values greater than 3 and kurtosis index absolute values greater than 10 are of concern; thus, the researcher will assess the normality of the data using Kline’s ranges. The hypothesized model also included the “sponsorship awareness,” and “past purchases,” which are categorical exogenous variables. Kline (2005) conveyed that AMOS uses the maximum likelihood estimation, which assumes multivariate normality for continuous endogenous and exogenous variables, an assumption that does not always hold for categorical exogenous variables. However, Arbuckle (2012) asserted it is acceptable that categorical exogenous variables are non-normally distributed in AMOS if researchers want to theorize about them, as long as the other exogenous variables are normally distributed. Therefore, when looking at the normality of the data, the researcher also took into consideration the type of this study’s variables: endogenous or exogenous.

In the first study, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and a structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted to assess the measurement and structural model of the hypothesized model in the U.S., with actual purchases as the endpoint of sponsorship effectiveness. Internal consistency of the constructs was measured through composite

reliability (CR; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009). Convergent validity was evaluated through the average variance extracted (AVE), while discriminant validity was established when AVE for each construct exceeded the squared correlations between that and any other construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). First, in order to verify the hypothesized relationships among constructs and their indicators, the statistical significance of each path must be ensured and indicators that have insignificant results and their loading less than .7 may be removed (Hair et al., 2009). Second, both CR and AVE were computed based on factor loading values, and were assessed if all constructs meet the recommended level of .70 for CR and .50 for AVE (Fornell & Lacker, 1981; Hair et al., 2009). This procedure addresses both reliability, which refers to the degree of the consistency of responses across the items within a measure, and convergent validity, which involves the extent to which the given indicators are the representation of the construct (Hair et al., 2009; Kline, 2005). Finally, discriminant validity, which is concerned with clear distinction between any pair of the constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), was assessed using the method suggested by Fornell and Lacker which indicates discriminant validity if a square root of the AVE value of a given factor is greater than correlation coefficients between the factor and any other factors in the model.

In the second study, in order for country comparisons to be meaningful, the instruments used to measure the constructs of interest have to display adequate cross-national equivalence (De Beuckelaer, 2005). The researcher used the multi-group confirmatory factor analysis (MGCFA) model, as MGCFA is the leading approach to inspect cross-national measurement invariance (Behling & Law, 2000; Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Also, the researcher utilized multi-group structural equation

modeling (MGSEM) to assess the structural models and invariance of the hypothesized model across all three countries (Bollen, 1989; Byrne, 2010), with actual purchases as the endpoint of sponsorship effectiveness. Goodness of fit for the measurement and structural models was assessed with the ratio of chi-square (χ^2) to its degrees of freedom, Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), comparative-of-fit-index (CFI), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). For reasonable fit, the chi-square to degree of freedom ratio of less than 3.0 is recommended (Bollen, 1989). CFI, TLI, and GFI values of greater than roughly .9 support that the model has an acceptable fit with the data (Kline, 2005). With regard to RMSEA, its values equal to or less than .5 indicates close fit, values in the range of .05 - .08 suggest acceptable fit, and values greater than .10 indicate poor fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993).

After employing a structural equation models' power analysis program with an anticipated effect size of 0.2 (Westland, 2010), the researcher concluded that this study will necessitate a minimum of 69 respondents from each country in order to have an acceptable sample size to answer the research hypotheses. Research in the social sciences has shown that the response rate for web-based surveys typically ranges from 30% to 55%, without an incentive structure (Nulty, 2008; Watt, Simpson, McKillop, & Nunn, 2002). In order to increase response rate, participants who completed the follow-up survey were offered a five-dollar gift card and a chance to win an official CFC game jersey. Given the approximation of these response rates, the sample size requirements stated above, and adding a conservative "cushion" for missing data, the researcher needed approximately 200 U.S. respondents for the first survey, and at least 69 respondents from the U.S. and India for the follow-up survey. Furthermore, SEM models can perform

well, even with small samples (e.g., 50 to 100). The vague, folklore rule of thumb considering a sample size of at least 200 observations can be conservative, and is surely simplistic (Iacobucci, 2009; Wolf, Harrington, Clark, & Miller, 2013).

CHAPTER IV

NO MORE “GOOD” INTENTIONS: SPONSORSHIP PURCHASE BEHAVIORS

Expenditures in global sponsorship have grown steadily over the past decade, rising from \$26.2 billion in 2002 (IEG, 2002), to an expected \$57.5 billion in 2015 (IEG, 2015). Additionally, the sport industry has been the most targeted market for sponsorship spending in the United States (U.S.), encompassing an estimated 70% of the market share (IEG, 2015). These figures support the importance of sponsorship as a marketing communication instrument for businesses seeking to associate themselves with sport (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013; Crompton, 2004).

A variety of sport sponsorship outcomes, including awareness, fit, attitude toward the sponsor, and purchase intentions have been well documented in scholarly works (Alexandris, Tsiotsou, & James, 2012; Biscaia et al., 2013). Despite the increasing number of studies measuring the above outcomes in different sport settings, a major gap exists in the understanding of how past purchase and actual purchase behaviors function in relation to other sponsorship outcomes. Several researchers have reported that past behavior is a predictor of intentions (Shapiro, Ridinger, & Trail, 2013; Trail, Anderson, & Lee, 2006). However, although intent to purchase is commonly used in the academic sponsorship literature as a final outcome of sponsorship effectiveness, a more accurate picture would be derived through analyzing actual purchase data (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Mazodier & Merunka, 2012). That is, even though intentions to purchase are

commonly associated with actual behaviors, an intention does not necessarily translate into actual purchase behavior (Yoshida, Heere, & Gordon, in press).

Moreover, jersey sponsorship provides companies with an attractive media platform to reach their target customers through an increase in brand awareness (Biscaia, Correia, Ross, & Rosado, 2014; Chadwick & Thwaites, 2004). To the researcher's knowledge, no sponsorship studies have empirically examined fans' purchase behaviors regarding the brands visible on game jerseys. This study also employed the number of days between collecting purchase intentions and actual purchases as a control variable because past research from other academic disciplines found that the smaller the temporal separation between intention measurement and actual purchases, the better intentions can predict behavior (Ajzen, 1985; Morwitz et al., 2007).

Therefore, this study's purpose was to develop a conceptual model for sport sponsorship outcomes (i.e., sponsorship awareness, sponsorship fit, attitude toward the sponsor, purchase intentions, past purchases, and actual purchases), controlling for the number of days between collecting data regarding purchase intentions and actual purchases. This research initiative was addressed by analyzing soccer fans from the U.S. in the area of sport sponsorship through a jersey sponsorship.

Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

Sponsorship Awareness

The consumers' capability to recognize the brand under different conditions has been termed brand awareness, and is considered an important component for companies (Keller, 1993). Researchers have examined subjects' awareness of event sponsors, and the results have determined that awareness is a valuable measure of sponsorship (Walsh,

Kim, & Ross, 2008; Woodside & Summers, 2012). Furthermore, awareness is widely accepted by practitioners and academics alike due to its role in subsequent sponsorship outcomes (Amis, 2003; Biscaia et al., 2014). Grohs, Wagner, and Vsetecka (2004) found that individuals who could recall sponsors had a more positive attitude toward the sponsors than those who could not recall sponsors. Consequently, sponsorship must first be known to exist if it is to be effective with target audiences (Farrelly, Quester, & Greyser, 2005). In addition, sponsors expect their status as corporate sponsor to result in a brand awareness transfer to increase purchase intentions of their product, thereby providing a return on their investment (Madrigal, 2001). Recent studies have also stressed that sponsorship awareness, particularly that related to the sport club's support of the sponsor, is an important aspect of consumers' attitudes towards sponsors and their subsequent purchase intentions (Ko, Kim, Claussen, & Kim, 2008; Schlesinger & Güngerish, 2011). Thus, the above findings prompted the following hypotheses:

- H1 Sponsorship awareness will have a direct positive effect on the attitude toward the sponsor.
- H2 Sponsorship awareness will have a direct positive effect on purchase intentions.

Sponsorship Fit

The concept of fit indicates the relatedness, similarity, relevance, or congruence of event-sponsor relationships (Poon & Prendergast, 2006). Research has specified that sponsors who support a cause that fits well with their firm's mission and image could influence consumers' cognitive and conative reactions to sponsorship (Speed & Thompson, 2000). Furthermore, if individuals perceive the sponsor and event to be highly related, and they view the event in a positive manner, then the individuals are

more likely to exhibit positive attitudes toward the sponsor (Becker-Olsen, 2003; Harvey, 2001). In addition, the more relevant the brand is to consumers, the more likely they are to purchase that brand (Dees, Bennett, & Ferreira, 2010) as consumer intentions are dependent upon the level of perceived fit between the event and the sponsor (Becker-Olsen, 2003; Koo, Quarterman, & Flynn, 2006). Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

- H3 Sponsorship fit will have a direct positive effect on the attitude toward the sponsor.
- H4 Sponsorship fit will have a direct positive effect on purchase intentions.

Attitude Toward the Sponsor

Attitude is defined as “a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable manner with respect to a given object” (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 6). The literature suggests that the development of a favorable attitude toward the sponsor is a pivotal factor for sponsorship effectiveness (Alexandris, Tsaousi, & James, 2007), as favorable attitudes toward sponsors are expected to point to positive behavioral intentions (Laczniak, DeCarlo, & Ramaswami, 2001; Swanson, Gwinner, Larson, & Janda, 2003). Thus, a sponsorship can change consumers’ responses towards a specific sponsor, resulting in the development of positive attitudes toward the sponsor, which can then lead to increased consumer willingness to buy the sponsor’s products (Harvery, Gray, & Despain, 2006).

In addition, favorable attitudes toward sponsors are expected to point to consumption of a sponsor’s products (Speed & Thompson, 2000). Accepted as a foundational construct in marketing, advertising, and consumer psychology (Foxall, 1990), the attitude-behavior relationship framework was developed by Fazio, Powell, and

Herr (1983) to help understand the influence attitudes have on behavior. The attitude-behavior relationship framework suggested a positive attitude toward a product leads to increased consumption and a negative or non-attitude leads to decreased consumption or non-consumption. Also considering that consumer's experience of the sponsored event favorably influences the consumer's attitude of the sponsoring brand (Chanavat, Martinent, & Ferrand, 2009; Portlock & Rose, 2009), it is hypothesized that:

- H5 Attitude toward the sponsor will have a direct positive effect on purchase intentions.
- H6 Attitude toward the sponsor will have a direct positive effect on actual purchases.

Purchase Intentions

According to Spears and Singh (2004), purchase intentions “refer to the person's conscious plan in exerting an effort to purchase a brand” (p. 56). From a sponsor's perspective, the purchase intention of a consumer is a crucial indicator of sponsorship effectiveness given its expected impact on future sales (Choi, Tsuji, Hutchinson, & Bouchet, 2011). Support for this idea is provided by several previous studies that have used behavioral intentions as the final indicator to evaluate sponsorship effectiveness (Alexandris et al, 2012; Biscaia et al., 2013). Moreover, the intent to purchase sponsors' products is a focal indicator for sport entities to legitimize their relationships with sponsors and to negotiate future contracts (Hong, 2011).

The Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), which has proved highly successful to date when applied to a wide spectrum of different behavior patterns (Petty et al., 1991), suggests that purchase intentions are the link between attitudes and behavior. Furthermore, Ajzen's (1985) Theory of Planned Behavior, the successor of the

Theory of Reasoned Action, is one of the most widely applied theories in consumer research (Manning, 2009). The Theory of Planned Behavior assumes that the best predictor of behavior is determined by asking people if they intend to behave in a certain way (Ajzen, 1985). Consumers must have an intention to purchase a product or service before the action takes place; therefore, purchase intentions are commonly suggested as an antecedent to actual purchase behaviors (Dees et al., 2010). These studies also support the notion of Spears and Singh (2004) that purchase intentions represent a “favorable intent” to actually purchase products and services from companies. Thus, it is posited that:

- H7 Purchase intentions will have a direct positive effect on actual purchases.

Past Purchase Behaviors

Past behaviors have been well recognized predictors of future behaviors (Janz, 1982; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011). In fact, Ajzen (1985) remarked in his Theory of Planned Behavior that past behaviors can be the best predictors of behavior. Moreover, previous studies have demonstrated the impact of past behavior on both intention and behavior (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Smith et al., 2008).

One approach to predict actual purchase behaviors was introduced in the Theory of Planned Behavior where it was stated that past behavior influences intentions and behavior through Theory of Planned Behavior variables (Ajzen, 1991). Conner and McMillan (1999) argued that the possible addition of past behavior to the Theory of Planned Behavior can be justified from a behaviorist perspective, where behavior is seen to be influenced by habit, a factor that is not captured by the concepts in the Theory of Planned Behavior. Within the context of sport, researchers have reported that past fan

consumptive behavior helps determine how likely fans are to engage in future sport consumption (Trail et al., 2006). Furthermore, Shapiro and colleagues (2013) have found that past behavior is a predictor of intentions when they examined the differential effects of past sport consumer behaviors on various future sport consumer intentions within the context of a new college football program. Therefore, due the long and successful history of past behaviors acting as an alternative for the complexities of decision making when predicting intentions and behavior, the following hypotheses were formulated:

- H8 Past purchase behaviors will have a direct positive effect on purchase intentions.
- H9 Past purchase behaviors will have a direct positive effect on actual purchases.

Actual Purchase Behaviors

Sponsorship should account for behavioral change in order to be proven effective (Amis & Cornwell, 2005), and the most desirable behavioral change from a sponsor's viewpoint is the influence on sales (Crompton, 2004). Cho, Lee, Yoon, and Rhodes (2011) found a sport sponsorship effect on consumer purchasing behavior, although it seemed limited to the duration of the sponsored event itself. However, the true long-term impact of a sponsorship on sales is difficult to evaluate and, thus, often questioned (Biscaia et al., 2013; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Mazodier & Merunka, 2012). Moreover, some researchers suggest that there is a gap between what consumers say they are going to do and what they actually do at the point of purchase (Auger & Devinney, 2007; Belk, Devinney, & Eckhardt, 2005) but, with few exceptions (Yoshida et al., in press), there is a lack of empirical data to support this idea. This is particularly evident in the sponsorship context where most studies suggest a positive link between intentions and

actual purchase behaviors. Thus, it appears no academic studies have empirically analyzed actual behaviors in sponsorship. Therefore, the proposed model developed to address this void and guiding this research is presented in Figure 2.

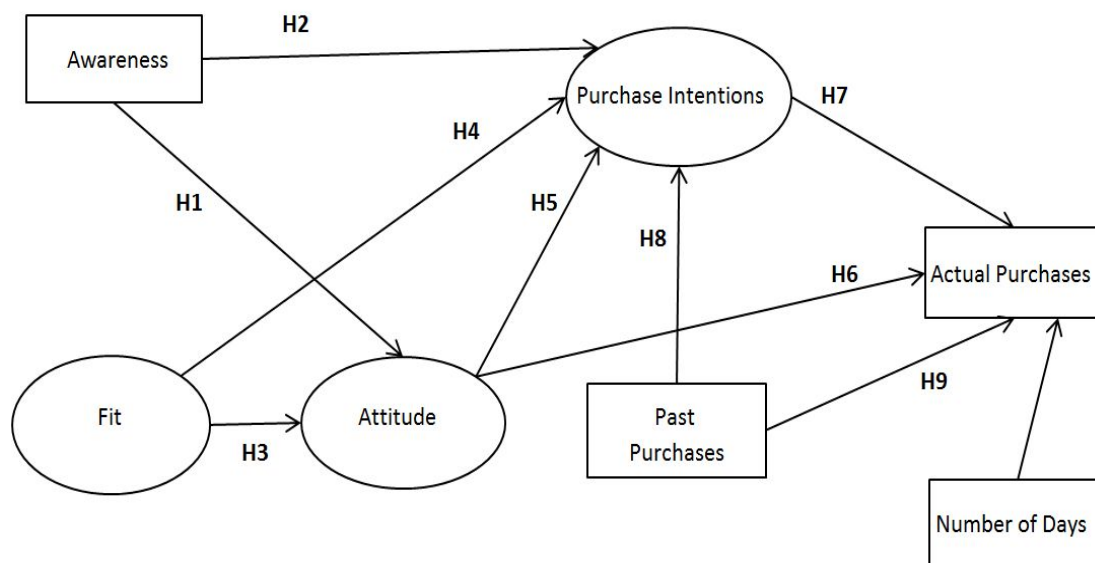


FIGURE 2. Hypothesized Model

Method

In order to test the proposed model, a survey was utilized where participants rated the effectiveness of Chelsea Football Club's (CFC) jersey sponsorship. The use of actual sponsors, rather than abstract sponsors, should be a central theme in sponsorship research because sport fans may have varying attitudes and intentions toward different companies, teams, and sports (Biscaia et al., 2013; Wakefield & Bennett, 2010). The jersey sponsor for this study will not be identified, due to potentially commercial sensitive information, but it is a multi-national company that sells durable products such as computers, televisions, mobile phones, printers and refrigerators, and is the largest information

technology company in the world (Grobart, 2013). The researcher selected CFC, which plays in the English Premier League (EPL), as this club is one of the largest global brands in a sport with an increasing global appeal (Karon, 2004).

Participants and Data Collection

Data were collected in the form of web-based questionnaires. The initial survey was advertised to U.S. administrators of CFC's official supporter clubs, which were found on CFC's official website. The initial survey was also posted on CFC's official U.S. supporter clubs' Facebook pages, Twitter accounts, and forums.

The research plan was to administer an initial survey to examine sponsorship awareness, sponsorship fit, attitude toward the sponsor, purchase intentions, and past purchases. The researcher then undertook a follow-up survey at a later date using the sample from the first survey to collect data regarding actual purchases of CFC's jersey sponsor's products between the initial survey and the follow-up survey. The CFC fans' email addresses linked the initial survey with the follow-up survey.

Consequently, the initial survey remained active for 22 weeks, upon which time a total of 337 surveys were returned. The survey software allowed just one response to be recorded from each Internet protocol (IP) address, preventing participants from taking the survey more than once. The researcher also removed 61 questionnaires that were completed by CFC fans from countries other than the U.S., as indicated from the demographic portion of the survey regarding the CFC fans' country of residence. Incorrect information and lack of an e-mail address eliminated 57 surveys for an end result of 219 usable surveys. The follow-up survey was directly sent to the e-mail addresses of those 219 valid respondents from the first survey in order to collect actual

purchase behavior data. The follow-up questionnaire resulted in 120 completed surveys; thus, data from 120 respondents was used in the final analysis. The profile of the respondents is shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

<u>Demographic variable</u>	
<i>Gender</i>	
Male (%)	85.00
Female (%)	15.00
<i>Age</i>	
18-34 (%)	64.17
35-54 (%)	30.00
55 and over (%)	5.83
<i>Education</i>	
High School or Some College (%)	26.67
Undergraduate Degree (%)	49.17
Graduate Degree (%)	24.16
<i>Annual Household Income</i>	
Less than \$20,000 (%)	19.17
\$20,000-\$59,999 (%)	24.16
\$60,000-\$89,999 (%)	21.67
\$90,000 or more (%)	35.00
<i>Employment Status</i>	
Employed (%)	63.33
Unemployed (%)	9.17
Self-employed (%)	9.17
Retired/Student (%)	18.33

The threat of non-response bias (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014; Jordan, Walker, Kent, & Inoue, 2011) was addressed by comparing characteristics of the follow-up survey's non-respondents taken from the initial survey with the characteristics of the respondents from the follow-up survey. Furthermore, demographic information of the respondents from the follow-up survey was then compared with known demographics of the population. Comparisons were made on various demographic variables, including

age, education, income, and gender. Results of these comparisons indicated no significant differences between the initial sample, follow-up sample, and known U.S. soccer population, available from prior research (Amador, 2010). Literature was only found on *Major League Soccer* fans, where almost 78% were male, 77% were 37 years of age or younger, and more than 48% reported having a Bachelor's degree or higher (Amador, 2010), being roughly similar with the demographics of American fans in the current research. A comparison on core study variables was also made between early and late respondents of the follow-up survey (i.e., first thirty respondents and last thirty respondents), as late respondents have been shown to be an appropriate proxy for non-respondents (Dooley & Lindner, 2003; Lindner, Murphy, & Briers, 2001). The researcher found no significant differences between early and late survey respondents.

The sample for this study was obtained using the purposive sampling technique, as this type of non-probability sampling involves the selection of subjects who are most advantageously placed, or in the best position, to provide the required information. Purposive sampling is considered a legitimate option when it is impractical to acquire a truly random sample, and when the researchers logically assume that the selected sample is representative of the entire population, according to their knowledge of the population (Babbie, 2010). Also, the predilection for this sampling population was similar to samples used in previous sport sponsorship research (Alexandris et al., 2012; Biscaia et al., 2013).

Measures

The online survey included items adapted from previous surveys conducted in the sport sponsorship context to measure four areas: sponsorship awareness via unaided

recall (Walsh et al., 2008), sponsorship fit (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008), attitude toward the sponsors (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008), and purchase intentions (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Hong, 2011). Slight modifications were made to suit the specific needs of this study.

Previous results indicated that unaided recall is generally more accurate than aided recall when assessing sponsorship awareness (Biscaia et al., 2013; Cornwell, 2008), and as such this research examined only unaided recall. Previous sponsorship research measuring awareness via unaided recall utilized web or mail surveys where respondents could have checked the internet/media to become aware of the sponsor(s); thus, measurement error could have occurred. In order to accurately test respondents' knowledge of CFC's jersey sponsor, and to reduce Internet searches, the subjects had to input the jersey sponsor within 20 seconds before being automatically re-directed to the next survey page. Responses were scored from 0, meaning no recall or incorrect recall of the jersey sponsor, to 1, correct unaided recall of the jersey sponsor. This research also measured past purchase behaviors with one item rated on a two-point scale ranging from 0 (*No Purchase*) to 1 (*Purchase*), and actual purchase behaviors were collected using continuous numeric data (e.g., *How many <sponsor name> products you bought during the period between the first survey and today?*). This study also employed the number of days between collecting purchase intentions and actual purchases as a control variable (i.e., "number of days" variable, located in Table 3 and Figure 1).

The "number of days" variable was calculated using Qualtrics survey software metrics. Lozano, García-Cueto, and Muñiz (2008), and Moreno, Martínez, and Muñiz (2004) recommended scales with more categories as indices of reliability and validity for

the constructs were significantly higher for scales with more response categories, thus this study used Likert-type scales with 10 categories, anchored by ‘*Strongly Disagree*’ (1) and ‘*Strongly Agree*’ (10). In addition, the attentiveness of survey participants was tested by inserting the statement “*On this question please click on ‘Strongly Agree’ so we can ensure you are paying attention*” in one of the sponsorship outcomes’ items to account for measurement error, which is a possible survey error that needs to be minimized to improve survey estimates (Dillman et al., 2014).

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using SPSS 21 and AMOS 21. Before any analyses were conducted, the normality of the data was assessed by looking at skewness and kurtosis values. Then, to assess the measurement model, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted. Internal consistency of the constructs was measured through composite reliability (CR; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009). Convergent validity was evaluated through the average variance extracted (AVE), while discriminant validity was established when AVE for each construct exceeded the squared correlations between that and any other construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Next, the researcher utilized structural equation modeling (SEM; Byrne, 2010) to test the hypothesized relationships. Goodness of fit for the measurement and structural models was assessed with the ratio of chi-square (χ^2) to its degrees of freedom, Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), comparative-of-fit-index (CFI), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA).

Although the sample size seems small, the rule of thumb considering a sample size of at least 200 observations can be conservative, and is surely simplistic (Iacobucci, 2010; Wolf, Harrington, Clark, & Miller, 2013). Kline (2011), and Hair and colleagues

(2009) agreed that a sample size of at least one hundred observations is recommended to achieve adequate power in SEM; therefore, this study's sample size is adequate for SEM. Moreover, after employing a SEM power analysis program with an anticipated effect size of .2 at a probability level of .05 (Westland, 2010), the researcher concluded that this study necessitates a minimum of 69 respondents in order to have an acceptable sample size to answer the research hypotheses, and thus confirming the appropriateness of the current sample.

Results

The skewness values for the items used in this study ranged from -2.06 to 1.99, while the kurtosis values ranged from -.10 to 5.48. Following Hair and colleagues' (2009) suggestion that only variables with skew index absolute values greater than 3 and kurtosis index absolute values greater than 10 are of concern, these values were considered normal and would not limit the use of factor analysis.

Measurement Model

The results of the CFA in the model showed that the standardized factor loadings ranged from .72 to .92 and were all significant ($p < .001$), hence surpassing the cut-off point of .50 (Hair et al., 2009). As shown in Table 3, all the CR values ranged from .88 to .93, indicating acceptable levels of reliability for the constructs, according to the recommended .70 threshold (Hair et al., 2009). Moreover, all AVE values were greater than the .50 standard for convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), ranging from .66 to .81, and thus, indicating acceptable levels of convergent validity for the constructs. In addition, discriminant validity of the measures was accepted given that the AVE for each construct is greater than the squared correlation between the construct and other

constructs in the model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table 4 lists additional descriptive statistics (i.e., mean and standard deviations) and the correlation matrix, with the correlations among constructs and the square root of AVE on the diagonal. The three diagonal elements of the latent variables were all larger than their corresponding correlation coefficients, which indicated that the metrics had appropriate discriminant validity.

TABLE 3

Factor Loadings, Composite Reliability, and Average Variance Extracted

Constructs/items	Loading ^b	CR	AVE
<i>Sponsorship Fit^a</i>		.88	.66
There is a close fit between <sponsors name> and <team name>	.810		
<Sponsor name> and <team name> have many similarities	.836		
It makes sense that <sponsor name> sponsors <team name>	.721		
My image of <team name> is consistent with my image of <sponsor name>	.863		
<i>Attitude Toward the Sponsor^a</i>		.93	.81
I like <sponsor name> brand	.875		
<Sponsor name> is a very good brand of <product-category>	.916		
I have a favorable disposition/mood toward <sponsor name>	.910		
<i>Purchase Intentions^a</i>		.91	.76
I will buy a <product-category> made by <sponsor name>	.871		
Next time I need to buy a <product-category>, I would consider buying <sponsor name>	.881		
I will be more likely to buy a <product-category> made by <sponsor name> over its competitors	.867		

Note:

^aEach item measured on a ten-point Likert-type scale with anchors: 1 = "Strongly Disagree", 10 = "Strongly Agree"

^bAll factor loadings are significant at $p < .001$

Model fit: $\chi^2(69) = 116.846$, $p < .001$, $\chi^2/df=1.693$, TLI = .94, CFI = .96, GFI = .89, RMSEA = .076

TABLE 4

Mean (M), Standard Deviation (SD), and Correlation Matrix

Variables	M	SD	Correlation Matrix							
			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1. Sponsorship Fit	7.20	2.09	.81							
2. Attitude Toward the Sponsor	8.43	1.82	.69	.90						
3. Purchase Intentions	7.79	2.19	.65	.83	.87					
4. Sponsorship Awareness	.94	.24	-.04	-.16	-.12					
5. Past Purchases	.85	.36	.39	.31	.41	-.11				
6. Actual Purchases	.62	.98	.12	.24	.26	.12	.24			
7. Number of days (1st survey - 2nd survey)	195.44	68.60	-.07	-.06	.03	-.07	.07	.17		

Note:

Diagonals in bold are square root of AVE.

In accordance with the aim of this study, the results of the measurement model [$\chi^2(69) = 116.846, p < .001, \chi^2/df=1.693, TLI = .94, CFI = .96, GFI = .89, RMSEA = .076$] showed an acceptable fit to the data. Although the chi-square goodness of fit index was statistically significant, in general, chi-square-based statistics can be misleading (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Also, the ratio of the chi-square to its degrees of freedom was within the 3.0 criteria (Kline, 2011). The values for the additional fit indices were close or exceeded the critical values for good model fit, as CFI, TLI and GFI values higher than .90 are considered to have a close fit (Hair et al., 2009). In addition, the RMSEA value was within the criteria of .08 indicating an acceptable fit (Byrne, 2010).

Structural Model

The examination of the structural model included a test of the overall model fit, as well as individual tests of the relationships among constructs. The overall assessment of the structural model indicated an acceptable fit to the data [$\chi^2(10) = 11.804, p = .298, \chi^2/df=1.180, TLI = .98, CFI = .99, GFI = .97, RMSEA = .039$].

Figure 3 shows the standardized regression coefficients of the structural models.

Sponsorship awareness showed a negative effect, and was not significant on attitude toward the sponsor ($\beta = -.13, p = .062$) and on purchase intentions ($\beta = -.01, p = .857$). Thus, H1 and H2 were not supported. Moreover, sponsorship fit had a significant, positive effect on attitude toward the sponsor ($\beta = .63, p < .001$) and on purchase intentions ($\beta = .18, p = .034$), which did support H3 and H4. Attitude toward the sponsor had a strong positive effect and was significant on its relationship with purchase intentions ($\beta = .55, p < .001$), so H5 was confirmed. Also, attitude toward the sponsor had a positive effect but was not significant in its relationship with actual purchases ($\beta = .14, p = .239$), thus H6 was not confirmed. The purchase intentions variable showed a positive effect but was not significant in its relationship with actual purchases ($\beta = .09, p = .478$), when controlling for the number of days between collecting purchase intentions and actual purchases in the model, and as such H7 was also not confirmed. The association between past purchases and purchase intentions was significant and showed a positive effect ($\beta = .17, p = .009$), while the association between past purchases and actual purchases had a positive effect but was not significant ($\beta = .15, p = .104$), when controlling for the number of days between collecting purchase intentions and actual purchases in the model, which supported H8 but not H9.

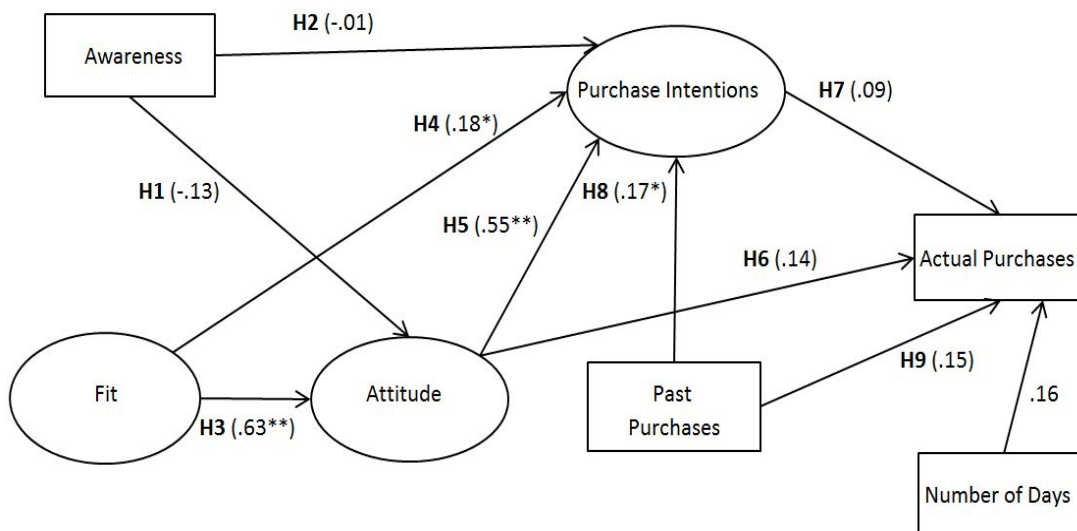


FIGURE 3. Final model. Notes: $**p \leq .001$, $*p < .05$

Jointly, sponsorship awareness, sponsorship fit, attitude toward the sponsor, and past purchases accounted for 55% of the variance of purchase intentions ($R^2 = .55$), while sponsorship awareness, sponsorship fit, attitude toward the sponsor, past purchases, and purchase intentions accounted for 12% of the variance of actual purchases ($R^2 = .12$), when controlling for the number of days between collecting purchase intentions and actual purchases in the model. This control variable was regressed on the endogenous variable of actual purchases, however, its individual effect was not found significant ($\beta = .16$, $p = .061$).

Discussion and Implications

Despite a growing interest in measuring sponsorship outcomes in different sport settings (Alexandris et al., 2012; Biscaia et al., 2013), a major gap exists in the understanding of how purchase behaviors function in relation with other sponsorship outcomes. The results from this study indicate that the impact of sponsorship variables such as awareness, fit, attitude toward the sponsor, purchase intentions, and past

purchases on actual purchases can be doubtful. The findings also suggest that using purchase intentions as an endpoint for sponsorship effectiveness is debatable, as intention will not necessarily lead to actual behavior.

A vast majority of respondents recalled the sponsor without prompting (94% of correct unaided recall on average, see Table 4). Therefore, sponsorship campaigns, such as jersey sponsorships, can be effective in building brand awareness among fans. Still, sponsorship awareness was not a significant predictor of attitudes toward the sponsor or of purchase intentions. This contradicts previous research affirming that sponsorship awareness is the first stage in a continuum of outcomes that can ultimately lead to increased purchase intentions (Crompton, 2004). It may be that there is no need to identify a company as a sponsor of an event for a sponsorship message to be effective (Amis & Cornwell, 2005) as there is no certainty that a fan's opinion of the sponsor is likely to change, even if the sponsor is recollected by the greater part of fans (Cornwell & Humphreys, 2013). Moreover, while this study and previous research has revealed that a sponsorship is capable of creating awareness (Speed & Thompson, 2000), there is no conclusive evidence that awareness prompts purchase intentions (Biscaia et al., 2013; Woodside & Summers, 2012). Given that the majority of companies who are involved with sponsorship have a primary objective to increase brand awareness (Ko et al., 2008), the findings from this study are particularly valuable. For sponsorship managers, this means that solely measuring awareness is not adequate when evaluating the effectiveness of jersey sponsorship.

Thus, a sponsorship activity that fails to connect a fan and sponsor beyond an awareness stage will not improve attitudes towards a sponsor's brand, nor engender

purchase intentions.

The relationships between sponsorship fit and attitude toward the sponsor and between sponsorship fit and purchase intentions were found to be statistically significant, in line with past research (Close & Lacey, 2013; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008). Normally, individuals who are more likely to exhibit positive attitudes toward the sponsor of the event (Becker-Olsen, 2003; Harvey, 2001) are more likely to purchase that brand (Biscaia et al., 2013), especially if individuals perceive the sponsor and event to be highly related. However, in this research study, the CFC's sponsor did not have any natural perceived fit with the team or with the sport of soccer. Thus, the current study's results can be explained by arguing that it is not necessary to find a strong link between the team and the sponsor, so long as marketers are able to articulate a positive relationship between the two (Crimmins & Horn, 1996). Olson and Thjømmøe (2011) suggest that even a poor fit can be surmounted with effective communications regarding a company's sponsorship. Further, past research recognized that corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives may influence consumers' purchasing decisions by creating a positive context for purchase intentions (Pirsch, Gupta, & Grau, 2007). Therefore, jersey sponsors may wish to incorporate CSR strategies that include social objectives within their sponsorship initiatives (Alexandris et al., 2012) as consumers are more likely to notice and support a fit with socially-oriented companies (Close & Lacey, 2013; Cunningham, Cornwell, & Coote, 2009).

The link between attitude toward the sponsor and purchase intentions was significant, in agreement with most of past sponsorship research (Harvery et al., 2006; Laczniaak et al., 2001; Swanson et al., 2003) where the development of positive attitudes

towards the sponsor leads to increased consumer willingness to buy the sponsor's products. However, despite previous research findings that would infer a greater willingness toward purchase, the attitude toward the sponsor variable was not a significant predictor of actual purchases for the jersey sponsor's products in this study. Therefore, it seems that there is no consistency of attitudes and behavior in this study, which is contrary to the attitude-behavior framework developed by Fazio and colleagues (1983). It has been argued that behavioral intentions better function as a substitute for attitude, rather than as a predictor of the actual (purchase) behavior (Söderlund, 2006). In support of this premise, Foxall (2005) indicated intentions to purchase as a possible source of error in the conclusions of some of the academic research (Foxall, 2005). Therefore, respondents cannot only be biased by social desirability through reporting "desirable" behaviors and underreport "undesirable" ones, but also are capable of making errors in predictions of their future purchase situation (Auger & Devinney, 2007; Belk et al., 2005). For example, fans may arrive at the stadium with less money than they predicted, or the desired product may not be available at that time, or a competing product may be heavily discounted or be promoted in a more attractive manner, thus rendering inaccurate the fan's initial purchase intention.

The Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) and the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1985) suggest that a link is present between purchase intentions and behavior. However, this study's results recognized that the purchase intentions variable is not a predictor of actual purchases for the jersey sponsor's products. Moreover, purchase intentions are extensively used by academic researchers as proxy measures for purchase behavior in sport (Choi et al., 2011) because the widespread use of

intentions to predict actual purchasing depends on the notion that intentions are good indicators of consumers' purchase behavior (Chandon, Morwitz, & Reinartz, 2005). However, this assumption has been sometimes criticized in the general academic literature as an oversimplification of the complex transition from intentions to action (Bagozzi, 2000; Morwitz et al., 2007), and this study's results confirmed the discord between intentions and behavior in a sport sponsorship context, in line with Yoshida and colleagues' (in press) research on intentions and actual sport attendance behaviors.

In addition, past studies acknowledged that the smaller the temporal separation, the better intentions can predict behavior. For example, Morwitz and colleagues (2007) found an association between intent and behavior when respondents were asked if they would have bought a non-durable product in one month or less. For the current study, the number of days between collecting purchase intentions and actual purchases for the jersey sponsor's products had a variation between approximately four and eight months (see Table 4) and was employed to better explain behavior; still, this control variable was found not to be a predictor of actual purchases. Furthermore, other researchers have maintained that the intent-behavior relationship will be stronger and longer (time wise) for durable goods (e.g., electronics which this study's jersey sponsor is selling) than for non-durable goods (e.g., food) because it is likely that consumers spend more time gathering information and evaluating alternatives when they consider buying durable goods than when they consider purchasing non-durable goods (Morwitz et al., 2007). Nonetheless, this study's intent-behavior relationship was not significant, likely because respondents were biased by social desirability or they just miscalculated their intentions (Auger & Devinney, 2007; Belk et al., 2005).

Finally, past purchases of the jersey sponsor's products did predict purchase intentions, in accord with what has been found in previous research (Shapiro et al., 2013; Trail et al., 2006), but past purchases of the jersey sponsor's products did not predict actual behavior, not in line with general academic literature (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Smith et al., 2008). It seems that fans, who had already purchased the jersey sponsor's products previously, had the *intention* to purchase again but ultimately did not report buying the jersey sponsor's products when they were surveyed for the second time. Consequently, it is sometimes argued that past behaviors cannot predict actual behavior because no situation is exactly alike (Vranas, 2005). This current result can best be explained by looking at the context of behavior frequency, as past behavior is a stronger predictor of actual behavior for frequently performed actions than for infrequently performed actions (Ouellette & Wood, 1998). Given that consumer behavior such as electronics' purchase decisions are repeated infrequently, it stands to possibly explain these current findings.

Limitations and Future Research

While this research has provided important insights to the continued understanding of sport sponsorship, it also has some limitations. However, these limitations can be suggested starting points for future research. First, this study tested the application of sponsorship outcomes using just one team and sponsor. Future research will require a greater variety of sponsorship contexts, such as different sports, teams, countries, products, and sponsor levels to test the validity and generalization of the research findings. Second, the level of team identification for the CFC fans was not controlled in these research analyses; previous studies suggest that fans' link with the

team tend to have a role on sponsorship outcomes (Alexandris et al., 2012). Third, the current study considered only five variables, and other variables may help to further explain sponsorship effectiveness. Future studies ought to test other sponsorship effects, such as word of mouth, image transfer, or goodwill (Kim, Smith, & James, 2010), and include possible constraints on sport consumption behavior (Kim & Trail, 2010). Fourth, while the sample collected was acceptable for the current study, a larger sample would augment the soundness of the current study.

Conclusion

Overall, these empirical results reinforce the view that more sponsorship research is needed to explain not just intentions and past purchase behaviors, but also what can be the ultimate endpoint of sponsorship effectiveness: Actual purchase behavior. Purchase intentions and past purchase behaviors did not predict actual purchase behaviors in this study. It seems that CFC fans exhibit positive relationships among their sponsor-team fit, attitude toward the sponsor, past purchase behaviors, and purchase intentions, but all these variables do not lead to a significant effect on actual purchase behaviors of the jersey sponsor's products.

Moreover, considering that a good number of sponsorship outcomes used in past sponsorship research were linked to intention to purchase, sponsorship scholars will have another important reason to more comprehensively analyze purchase intentions. Several researchers acknowledged that with the lack of actual behavior in their data their conclusions are incomplete, and adding behavioral information to consumer behavior research is paramount for a more accurate understanding of the intention-purchase relationship (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Mazodier & Merunka, 2012). Therefore,

understanding the gap between what consumers intend to do and what they actually do at the point of purchase, and understanding how to close this gap, is clearly an important academic, managerial and social objective.

Finally, this study's sponsorship outcomes accounted for only a small percent of variance in predicting behavior (i.e., 12%); therefore, future research should take into account more sponsorship variables when studying behavior, and also take into consideration other factors that would predict sales, such as the type of product being bought (i.e., durable/non-durable product) and the short/long time horizon between measuring purchase intentions and actual purchases.

CHAPTER V

SHOW ME THE MONEY: PREDICTING SALES IN GLOBAL SPONSORSHIP

Expenditures in global sponsorship have grown steadily over the past decade, rising from \$26.2 billion in 2002 (IEG, 2002), to an expected \$57.5 billion in 2015 (IEG, 2015). Additionally, the sport industry has been the most targeted market for sponsorship spending in the United States (U.S.), encompassing an estimated 70% of the market share (IEG, 2015). These figures support the effectiveness of sponsorship as a marketing communication instrument for businesses seeking to associate themselves with sport (Crompton, 2004; Seguin, Teed & O'Reilly, 2005).

Despite the increasing number of studies measuring sponsorship outcomes such as attitude toward the sponsor and purchase intentions (Alexandris et al., 2012; Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013), a prominent gap in the understanding of sponsorship effectiveness is a lack of established theoretical frameworks explaining consumer decision-making that include variables such as past purchase and actual purchase behaviors (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Mazodier & Merunka, 2012; Shapiro, Ridinger & Trail, 2013).

Moreover, in the current global economy, due to the rapid and ongoing development of new media technologies (e.g., broadband and mobile platforms), the distance across international markets is not the barrier it once was, and most companies are considered global brands within this universal marketplace (Amis & Cornwell, 2005).

However, considering this global market, there appears to be little research gauging the effectiveness of cross-national sponsorships (Amis & Cornwell, 2005; Santomier, 2008). Jersey sponsorship, ubiquitous in Europe and Asia, is a growing global revenue source in sports (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Yoshida, 2013). Conversely, it appears no sponsorship studies have empirically analyzed the effectiveness of jersey sponsorship at a cross-national stage.

Furthermore, much of the research on cross-national consumer behavior has utilized Hofstede's cultural dimensions, which reflect aspects of a culture that can be measured relative to other cultures (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2010; Hofstede, 2011; Singh, 2006). However, to the researcher's knowledge, there have been no academic studies which discussed Hofstede's cultural dimensions in a sponsorship context. This study also employed the number of days between collecting purchase intentions and actual purchases as a control variable because past research from other academic disciplines found that the smaller the temporal separation between intention measurement and actual purchases, the better intentions can predict behavior (Ajzen, 1985; Morwitz et al., 2007).

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the cross-national sponsorship relationships among attitude toward a sponsor, purchase intentions, past purchases, and actual purchases, controlling for the number of days between collecting data regarding purchase intentions and actual purchases, and discussing Hofstede's cultural dimensions (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). This research initiative was addressed by analyzing soccer fans from the United States (U.S.) and India in the area of a sport sponsorship through a jersey sponsorship.

Literature Review and Hypotheses Development

Attitude Toward the Sponsor

Attitude is defined as “a learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favorable manner with respect to a given object” (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p. 6). The literature suggests that the development of a favorable attitude toward the sponsor is a pivotal factor for sponsorship effectiveness (Alexandris et al., 2007; Chen & Zhang, 2011). However, the attitudes toward various sponsor categories may vary across countries. Individualists (i.e., people from the U.S.) desire consistency among their attitudes, feelings, and behaviors. As a result, under certain conditions, the behavior of consumers can be predicted from their attitudes toward products, services, and brands, and a purchase prediction is derived from a positive attitude (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). In collectivist cultures (i.e., India), however, there is no consistent relationship between attitude and future behavior. This behavior could be described as a reverse relationship with purchase behavior coming first, followed by the defining attitude (Chang & Chieng, 2006).

Global sport sponsorship could help surmount the challenges related with cultural and linguistic obstacles in a global society (Amis & Cornwell, 2005; Santomier, 2008). Nevertheless, little is known about how sponsorship outcomes (and implicitly attitudes toward sponsors) work in a cross-national setting. Moreover, past research acknowledged that favorable attitudes toward sport sponsors are expected to point to positive behavioral intentions, and ultimately, consumption of a sport sponsor’s products (Speed & Thompson, 2000; Swanson, Gwinner, Larson, & Janda, 2003). In addition, accepted as an international foundational construct in marketing, advertising, and consumer psychology

(Foxall, 1990), the attitude-behavior relationship framework was developed by Fazio, Powell, and Herr (1983) to help understand the influence attitudes have on behavior. The attitude-behavior relationship framework suggested a positive attitude toward a product leads to increased consumption and a negative or non-attitude leads to decreased consumption or non-consumption. Also considering that sport consumer's perception of the sponsored event favorably influences the consumer's attitude of the sponsoring brand (Chanavat, Martinent, & Ferrand, 2009; Portlock & Rose, 2009), it is hypothesized that:

- H1 Attitude toward the sponsor will have a direct positive effect on purchase intentions.
- H2 Attitude toward the sponsor will have a direct positive effect on actual purchases.

Purchase Intentions

According to Spears and Singh (2004), purchase intentions “refer to the person's conscious plan in exerting an effort to purchase a brand” (p. 56). From a sponsor's perspective, the purchase intention of a consumer is the most useful indicator of sponsorship effectiveness given its expected impact on future sales (Choi et al., 2011). However, sponsors' purchase intentions may vary across countries as indulgence cultures (i.e., the U.S.) are characterized by a perception that one can act as one pleases, spend money, and indulge in leisurely and fun-related activities (e.g., attending sport games), while restraint cultures (i.e., India) are distinguished by a feeling that enjoyment of leisurely activities, spending, and other similar types of indulgence are somewhat wrong (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Conversely, McDonald, Mihara, and Hong (2004) conveyed that the ability to broadcast sport globally has aided in assimilating people from different cultures, and has

helped accelerate the fusion of worldwide consumer needs. Moreover, purchase intention is a well-known sponsorship outcome that has been used extensively in previous sport research (Alexandris et al., 2012; Crompton, 2004). The Theory of Reasoned Action, which has proved highly successful to date when applied to a wide spectrum of different behavior patterns in several countries (Petty et al., 1991), suggest that purchase intentions are the link between attitudes and behavior. Furthermore, Ajzen's (1985) Theory of Planned Behavior, the successor of the Theory of Reasoned Action, is one of the most widely applied theories in consumer research (Manning, 2009). The Theory of Planned Behavior assumes that the best predictor of behavior is determined by asking people if they intend to behave in a certain way (Ajzen, 1985). Consumers must have an intention to purchase a product or service before the action takes place; therefore, purchase intentions are an antecedent to actual purchase behaviors (Dees, Bennett, & Ferreira, 2010). These findings support the notion of Spears and Singh (2004) that purchase intentions represent a "favorable intent" to actually purchase products and services from companies. Thus, it is posited that:

H3 Intentions to purchase will have a direct positive effect on actual purchases.

Past Purchase Behaviors

Past behaviors have been well recognized predictors of future behaviors (Janz, 1982). In fact, Ajzen (1985) remarked in his Theory of Planned Behavior that past behaviors can be the best predictors of future behaviors (Ajzen, 1985), and previous studies demonstrate the impact of past behavior on both intention and future behavior (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Smith et al., 2008). Moreover, to examine cultural past consumption, the Hofstede and colleagues' (2010) short-term/long-term orientation

cultural dimension can be of service. According to Hofstede and colleagues (2010), short-term orientation societies (i.e., the U.S.) prefer to maintain time-honored traditions and norms while viewing societal change with suspicion, compared with long-term orientation societies (i.e., India). Therefore, fans from the U.S. can maintain their past behaviors compared with Indian fans, as the U.S. has a short-term orientation cultural dimension, which means that people from the U.S. have a respect for traditions (Hofstede et al., 2010), such as the tradition to keep purchasing the same brand of products.

However, not much is known about past purchase behaviors in sport sponsorship at a global scale. Soderman and Dolles (2013) stated that sponsorship employed across countries has been shown to be one of the most cost-effective strategies in sponsoring sport. Moreover, sport researchers have found that past behavior is often the strongest predictor of intentions and actual behavior (Shapiro et al., 2013; Trail et al., 2006). Therefore, due to the long and successful history of past behaviors acting as an alternative for the complexities of decision making when predicting future behaviors and intentions, the following hypotheses were formulated:

- H4 Past purchase behaviors will have a direct positive effect on purchase intentions.
- H5 Past purchase behaviors will have a direct positive effect on actual purchases.

Actual Purchase Behaviors

Sponsorship should account for behavioral change in order to be proven effective (Amis & Cornwell, 2005), and the most desirable behavioral change from a sponsor's outlook is the influence on sales (Crompton, 2004). However, the true long-term impact of a sponsorship on sales, or intent-to-purchase, is difficult to evaluate and, thus, often

questioned (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013; Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Mazodier & Merunka, 2012; O'Reilly, Lyberger, McCarthy, Séguin, & Nadeau, 2008). Moreover, there exists a gap between what consumers say they are going to do and what they actually do at the point of purchase (Auger & Devinney, 2007; Belk, Devinney, & Eckhardt, 2005). This phenomenon is referred to by researchers as the attitude-behavior gap, and is contrary to the attitude-behavior relationship framework developed by Fazio and colleagues (1983).

Additionally, considering culture's ability to influence an individual's personality, which in turn modifies consumer behavior (Samli, 1994), and bearing in mind that most aspects of consumer behavior are culture-bound (De Mooij & Hofstede, 2011), culture may impact actual purchases in distinct areas differently. Past research asserts that converging technology and disappearing income differences across countries will not lead to standardization of consumer behavior (De Mooij, 2004; De Mooij & Hofstede, 2002). Also, while new technology does not essentially change people, it does strengthen existing behavior (De Mooij, 2004). On the other hand, sport became global because of its cross-cultural capacity to attract people of different locations (Ratten, 2011). The declining birth rate and ageing population of the United States, and the large increase in middle class households in India together with its large population have enticed more professional sport teams to this country (Ratten & Ratten, 2011). Still, it appears no academic studies have empirically analyzed actual behaviors in international sponsorship. The proposed model guiding this research is presented in Figure 4.

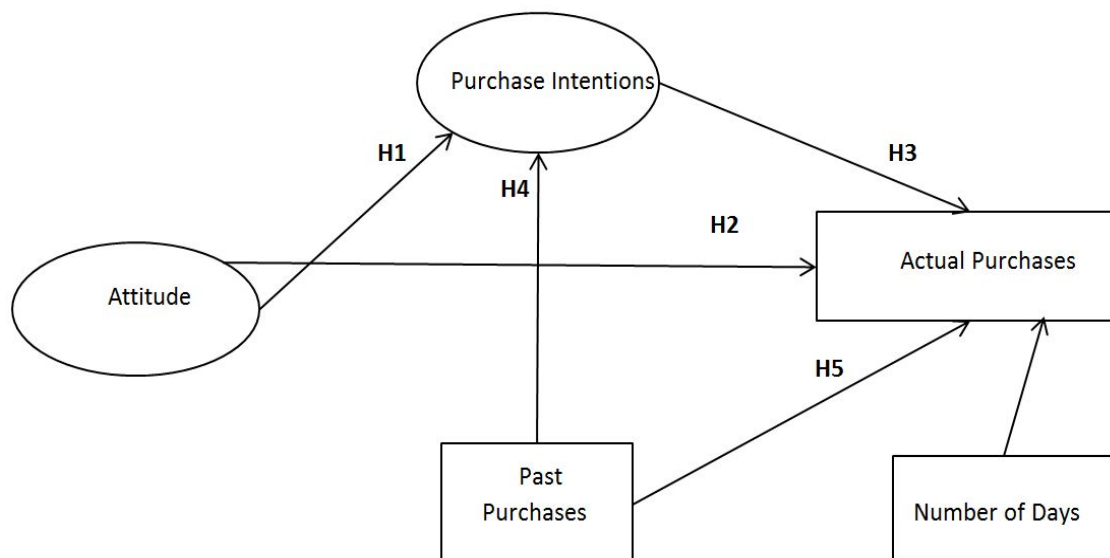


FIGURE 4. Hypothesized Model

Method

To measure sponsorship outcomes and effectiveness, a survey was utilized where participants rated the effectiveness of Chelsea Football Club's (CFC) jersey sponsorship. In addition, the use of actual sponsors, rather than abstract sponsors, should be a central theme in sponsorship research because sport fans may have varying attitudes and intentions toward different companies, teams, and sports (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013).

The jersey sponsor for this study will not be identified, due to potentially commercial sensitive information, but it is a multi-national company that sells durable products such as computers, televisions, mobile phones, printers and refrigerators, and is the largest information technology company in the world (Grobart, 2013).

Participants and Data Collection

Web-based questionnaires were utilized for the collection of data. The online survey was conducted in English, due to it being the most commonly used language in the selected countries. The survey link was advertised to administrators of CFC's official supporter clubs, which were identified from the official CFC website, and were located in the U.S. and India. The survey link was also posted on CFC's official supporter clubs' Facebook pages, Twitter accounts, and forums of these two countries.

The research plan was to administer an initial survey to examine attitude toward the sponsor, purchase intentions, and past purchases. The research then undertook a follow-up survey using the first survey's sample at a later date to collect data regarding actual purchases of CFC's jersey sponsor's products that took place between the initial survey and the follow-up survey. Therefore, the initial survey remained active for 22 weeks, upon which time a total of 524 surveys were returned. The survey software allowed just one response to be recorded from each Internet protocol (IP) address, preventing participants from taking the survey more than once. The researchers also removed 89 questionnaires that were completed by CFC fans from countries other than the U.S. and India, as indicated from the demographic portion of the survey regarding the participant's country of residence. Incorrect information and lack of an e-mail address eliminated 72 surveys by American and Indian CFC fans, for an end result of 363 usable surveys ($n_{\text{American}} = 219$; $n_{\text{Indian}} = 144$). The follow-up survey was directly sent to the e-mail addresses of those 363 valid respondents from the first survey in order to collect actual purchase behaviors.

The follow-up questionnaire resulted in 209 completed surveys, and due to erroneous records, the researcher eliminated 16 surveys; thus, data from 193 respondents was used in the final analysis ($n_{\text{American}} = 120$; $n_{\text{Indian}} = 73$). The profile of the respondents is shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Demographic variable	Country	
	U.S.	INDIA
<i>Gender</i>		
Male (%)	85.00	95.18
Female (%)	15.00	4.82
<i>Age</i>		
18-34 (%)	64.17	97.59
35-54 (%)	30.00	1.20
55 and over (%)	5.83	1.21
<i>Education</i>		
High School or Some College (%)	26.67	14.46
Undergraduate Degree (%)	49.17	56.02
Graduate Degree (%)	24.16	29.52
<i>Annual Household Income</i>		
Less than \$20,000 (%)	19.17	53.61
\$20,000-\$59,999 (%)	24.16	39.16
\$60,000-\$89,999 (%)	21.67	2.41
\$90,000 or more (%)	35.00	4.82
<i>Employment Status</i>		
Employed (%)	63.33	41.57
Unemployed (%)	9.17	4.82
Self-employed (%)	9.17	11.45
Retired/Student (%)	18.33	42.16

The threat of non-response bias (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014; Jordan, Walker, Kent, & Inoue, 2011) was addressed by comparing characteristics of the follow-up survey's non-respondents from the initial survey with the characteristics of the

respondents from the follow-up survey. Furthermore, demographic information of the respondents from the follow-up survey was then compared with known demographics of the population. Comparisons were made on various demographic variables, including age, education, income, and gender. Results of these comparisons indicated no significant differences between the initial sample, follow-up sample, and known U.S. soccer population (Amador, 2010). Literature was only found on *Major League Soccer* fans, where almost 78% were male, 77% were 37 years of age or younger, and more than 48% reported having a Bachelor's degree or higher (Amador, 2010), being roughly similar with the demographics of American fans in the current research. While there is no known demographic data of soccer fans from India, the current study's demographic characteristics are in agreement with the Government of India census data (2011). The country's official census revealed that 50% of its population was below the age of 25, 65% below the age of 35, with a per capita income of \$1,527. Indian CFC fans tended to be younger, better educated, and with lower values of annual household income than the U.S. CFC survey participants.

Measures

The online survey included items adapted from previously validated surveys to measure two areas: attitude toward the sponsors (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008) and purchase intentions (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Hong, 2011). Slight modifications were made to suit the specific needs of this study. The items were arranged in the same order for both countries and contained identical designs. This research also measured past purchase behaviors with one item rated on a two-point scale ranging from 0 (*No Purchase*) to 1 (*Purchase*), and actual purchase behaviors were collected using continuous numeric data

(e.g., *How many <sponsor name> products you bought during the period between the first survey and today?*). This study also employed the number of days between collecting purchase intentions and actual purchases as a control variable (i.e., “number of days” variable, located in Table 7 and Figure 4). The “number of days” variable was calculated using Qualtrics survey software metrics, and was found not to be statistically significant between countries ($p > .191$); therefore, a model comparison between the two analyzed countries could be performed.

Also, Hui and Triandis (1989) and Clarke III (2001) recommended scales with more categories as appropriate for cross-national research, thus this study used Likert-type scales with 10 categories, anchored by ‘*Strongly Disagree*’ (1) and ‘*Strongly Agree*’ (10). In addition, the attentiveness of survey participants was tested by inserting the statement “*On this question please click on ‘Strongly Agree’ so we can ensure you are paying attention*” in one of the sponsorship outcomes’ items to account for measurement error, which is a possible survey error that needs to be minimized to improve survey estimates (Dillman et al., 2014).

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 21 and AMOS 21. Before any analyses were conducted, the normality of the data were assessed by looking at skewness and kurtosis values. First, to assess the measurement model for each country, a CFA was conducted. Internal consistency of the constructs was measured through composite reliability (CR; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009). Convergent validity was evaluated through the average variance extracted (AVE), while discriminant validity was established when AVE for each construct exceeded the squared

correlations between that and any other construct (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Second, in order for country comparisons to be meaningful, the instruments used to measure the constructs of interest have to display adequate cross-national equivalence (De Beuckelaer, 2005). The researchers used the multi-group confirmatory factor analysis (MGCFA) model, as MGCFA is the leading approach to inspect cross-national measurement invariance (Behling & Law, 2000). Third, to assess the structural models and invariance of the proposed model across all two countries, the researchers utilized multi-group structural equation modeling (MGSEM; Byrne, 2010) with actual purchase behaviors as the endpoint of sponsorship effectiveness.

Although this study's sample sizes seems small, the rule of thumb considering a sample size of at least 200 observations can be conservative, and is surely simplistic (Iacobucci, 2010; Wolf, Harrington, Clark, & Miller, 2013). After employing a SEM power analysis program with an anticipated effect size of .2 at a probability level of .05 (Westland, 2010), the researcher concluded that this study necessitates a minimum of 63 respondents for each analyzed country in order to have an acceptable sample size to answer the research hypotheses, and thus confirming the appropriateness of the current samples.

Results

The skewness values for the items used in this study ranged from -2.30 to 1.89, while the kurtosis values ranged from -1.96 to 4.60. Following Hair and colleagues' (2009) suggestion that only variables with skew index absolute values greater than 3 and kurtosis index absolute values greater than 10 are of concern, these values were considered normal and would not limit the use of factor analysis.

Measurement Model

The results of the CFA in the model for each country showed that the standardized factor loadings ranged from .58 to .94 (the U.S.), and from .62 to .91 (India), and were all significant ($p < .001$), hence surpassing the cut-off point of .50 (Hair et al., 2009). As shown in Table 6, all the CR values ranged from .86 to .91 (the U.S.), and from .75 to .90 (India), indicating acceptable levels of reliability for the constructs, according to the recommended .70 threshold (Hair et al., 2009). Moreover, all AVE values were equal to or greater than the .50 standard for convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), ranging from .68 to .77 (the U.S.), and from .52 to .70 (India), indicating acceptable levels of convergent validity for the constructs. In addition, discriminant validity of the measures was accepted given that the AVE for each construct is greater than the squared correlation between the construct and other constructs in the model (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Table 7 lists additional descriptive statistics (i.e., mean and standard deviations) and the correlation matrix, with the correlations among constructs and the square root of AVE on the diagonal. The two diagonal elements of the latent variables for every country were all larger than their corresponding correlation coefficients, which indicated that the metrics had appropriate discriminant validity.

TABLE 6

Factor Loadings, Composite Reliability, and Average Variance Extracted

Constructs/items	Loading ^b	U.S.	
		CR	AVE
<i>Attitude Toward the Sponsor</i> ^a		.91	.77
I like <sponsor name> brand	.942		
<Sponsor name> is a very good brand of <product-category>	.908		
I have a favorable disposition/mood toward <sponsor name>	.796		
<i>Purchase Intentions</i> ^a		.86	.68
I will buy a <product-category> made by <sponsor name>	.929		
Next time I need to buy a <product-category>, I would consider buying <sponsor name>	.888		
I will be more likely to buy a <product-category> made by <sponsor name> over its competitors	.808		
The <sponsor name> sponsorship to <team name> makes me more likely to buy a <product-category> made by <sponsor name>	.585		
Constructs/items	Loading ^b	INDIA	
		CR	AVE
<i>Attitude Toward the Sponsor</i> ^a		.75	.52
I like <sponsor name> brand	.842		
<Sponsor name> is a very good brand of <product-category>	.658		
I have a favorable disposition/mood toward <sponsor name>	.627		
<i>Purchase Intentions</i> ^a		.90	.70
I will buy a <product-category> made by <sponsor name>	.913		
Next time I need to buy a <product-category>, I would consider buying <sponsor name>	.888		
I will be more likely to buy a <product-category> made by <sponsor name> over its competitors	.867		
The <sponsor name> sponsorship to <team name> makes me more likely to buy a <product-category> made by <sponsor name>	.661		

Note:

^aEach item measured on a ten-point Likert-type scale with anchors: 1 = "Strongly Disagree", 10 = "Strongly Agree"

^bAll factor loadings are significant at $p < .001$

TABLE 7

Mean (M), Standard Deviation (SD), and Correlation Matrix

Countries/Variables	M	SD	Correlation Matrix				
			1	2	3	4	5
U.S.							
1. Attitude Toward the Sponsor	8.43	1.82	.90				
2. Purchase Intentions	7.79	2.19	.64	.87			
3. Past Purchases	.85	.36	.21	.44			
4. Actual Purchases	.62	.98	.14	.11	.17		
5. Number of days (1st survey - 2nd survey)	195.44	68.60	.04	.06	.03	.11	
INDIA							
1. Attitude Toward the Sponsor	8.27	1.69	.88				
2. Purchase Intentions	7.84	2.34	.60	.83			
3. Past Purchases	.83	.33	.19	.41			
4. Actual Purchases	.65	.95	.12	.10	.16		
5. Number of days (1st survey - 2nd survey)	198.21	63.13	.02	.12	.07	.10	

Note:

Diagonals in bold are square root of AVE.

In accordance with the aim of this study, the results of the final measurement model using the U.S. [$\chi^2(49) = 113.846, p < .001, \chi^2/df=2.323, TLI = .93, CFI = .95, GFI = .88, RMSEA = .079$], and India [$\chi^2(43) = 108.590, p < .001, \chi^2/df=2.524, TLI = .89, CFI = .92, GFI = .88, RMSEA = .083$] showed an acceptable fit to the data. Although the chi-square goodness of fit index was statistically significant, in general, chi-square-based statistics can be misleading (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). The values for the additional fit indices were close or exceeded the critical values for good model fit, as CFI, TLI and GFI values higher than .90 are considered to have a close fit (Hair et al., 2009). However, TLI and GFI values are sensitive to sample size and, therefore, researchers need to be

cautious with interpretation when assessing model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). This study's RMSEA value for India were slightly over this estimate, as Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested RMSEA values between .05 and .08 to indicate a fair fit, but recent research cautioned about using precise cutoff points for RMSEA (Chen, Curran, Bollen, Kirby, & Paxton, 2008), so the values were considered acceptable.

Measurement Invariance

In a comparative study, it is important that the constructs are equally relevant (or are invariant) to the samples in different countries included in this research. The chi-square difference test between the unconstrained model and the constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 112.032$, $\Delta df = 39$, $p < .001$) was significant, indicating that the restricted model failed the test of measurement invariance across countries. However, scholars proposed the use of alternative goodness-of-fit indexes to assess measurement invariance (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Cheung and Rensvold (2002) found in simulation studies that among many goodness-of-fit indexes, CFI has performed better than other indexes available in structural equation modeling software, and have suggested that a difference of equal to or less than .01 in CFI between two nested models would indicate measurement invariance. The difference in the CFI between the unconstrained model (CFI = .926) and the constrained model (CFI = .921) was only .005, indicating invariance. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested that point estimates and confidence intervals of RMSEA should be also used to compare the unconstrained and constrained models. If point estimates are very close, and confidence intervals have large overlaps, then measurement invariance can be assumed. The point estimates of RMSEA and the RMSEA confidence intervals are almost matching for the unconstrained model (RMSEA

= .078; 90% *CI* = .065, .091) and the constrained model (RMSEA = .077; 90% *CI* = .064, .090). Therefore, the researcher was confident to assume measurement invariance between the unconstrained and the constrained models, considering the small differences in the above goodness-of-fit indexes.

Structural Models

The examination of the structural models included a test of the overall model fit, as well as individual tests of the relationships among constructs for each country. The overall assessment of the structural models indicated an acceptable fit to the data for the U.S. [$\chi^2(23) = 60.972, p < .001, \chi^2/df=2.651, TLI = .86, CFI = .92, GFI = .95, RMSEA = .062$], and India [$\chi^2(23) = 42.699, p < .021, \chi^2/df=1.856, TLI = .85, CFI = .92, GFI = .96, RMSEA = .077$].

Figure 5 shows the standardized regression coefficients for the structural models of both countries. Attitude toward the sponsor showed a significant, direct positive effect on both models on its relationship with purchase intentions ($\beta_{U.S.} = .51, p < .001; \beta_{INDIA} = .46, p < .001$), thus H1 was confirmed. However, attitude toward the sponsor had a direct positive effect but was not significant on actual purchases on both countries ($\beta_{U.S.} = .13, p = .156; \beta_{INDIA} = .10, p = .202$), therefore H2 was not confirmed. Purchase intentions had a direct effect on both countries but were not significant on its relationships with actual purchases ($\beta_{U.S.} = .07, p = .326; \beta_{INDIA} = .06, p = .406$) in both models, when controlling for the number of days between collecting purchase intentions and actual purchases in the model, and as such H3 was also not supported. The association between past purchases and purchase intentions was significant and showed a positive effect for both models ($\beta_{U.S.} = .19, p = .012; \beta_{INDIA} = .18, p = .023$), while the association between past purchases

and actual purchases had a positive effect but was not significant in the U.S. and India ($\beta_{U.S.} = .12, p = .112; \beta_{INDIA} = .10, p = .223$), when controlling for the number of days between collecting purchase intentions and actual purchases in the model, which supported H4 but not H5.

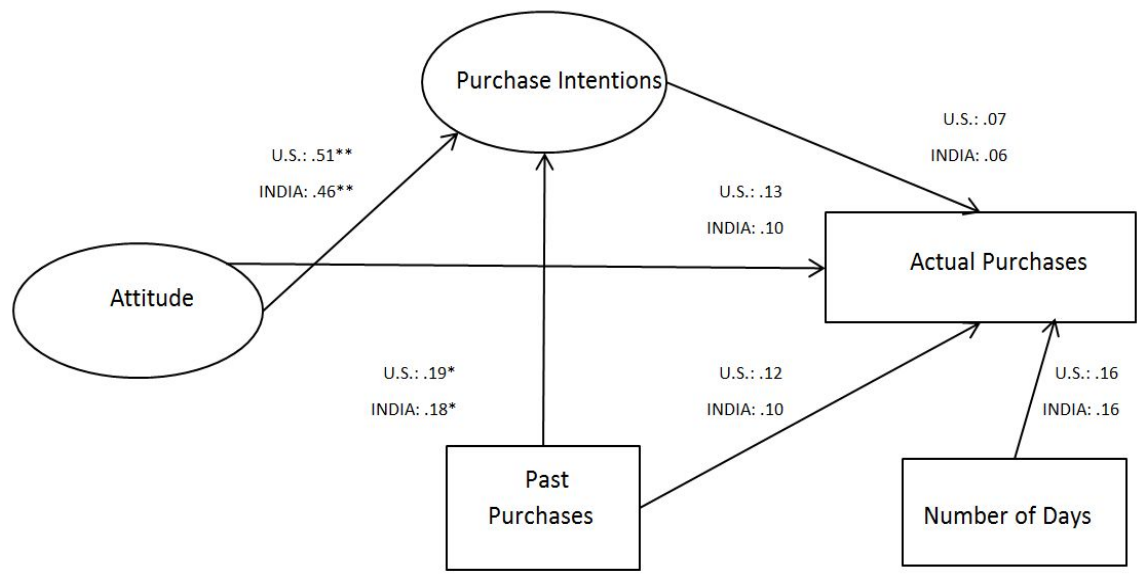


FIGURE 5. Final model. Notes: ** $p \leq .001$, * $p < .05$

Jointly, attitude toward the sponsor and past purchases accounted for 47% of the variance of purchase intentions regarding the U.S. ($R^2 = .47$), and 42% concerning India ($R^2 = .42$). Moreover, attitude toward the sponsor, past purchases, and purchase intentions accounted for 9% of the variance of actual purchases regarding the U.S. ($R^2 = .09$), and 7% concerning India ($R^2 = .07$), when controlling for the number of days between collecting purchase intentions and actual purchases in the model. This control variable was regressed on the endogenous variable of actual purchases; however, its individual effect was not found significant ($\beta_{U.S.} = .16, p = .296; \beta_{INDIA} = .16, p = .292$).

Structural Invariance

MGSEM was used, according to the procedures described by Byrne (2010), to assess the structural invariance of the hypothesized model across the U.S. and India in order to distinguish if the associations among sponsorship outcomes and control variables will have significant different effects across the two analyzed countries.

In the unconstrained model, structural relationships (i.e., regression coefficients) were freely estimated for each country. In the constrained model, all parameters were forced to be equal for both countries. The test of chi-square difference showed that there was no statistical difference between the unconstrained and the constrained model ($\Delta\chi^2 = 19.128$, $\Delta df = 31$, $p = .712$). Moreover, the difference in the CFI between the unconstrained model (CFI = .941) and the constrained model (CFI = .948) was only .007, indicating invariance. Also, results indicated that when all regression coefficients were fixed to be invariant across countries (the constrained model), the model still fit the data very well, and the RMSEA confidence intervals for the unconstrained model (RMSEA = .052; 90% CI = .036, .068) and the constrained model (RMSEA = .056; 90% CI = .040, .071) were overlapping. Therefore, structural relationships among sponsorship outcomes and the control variable were invariant among the U.S. and India.

Discussion and Implications

A great amount of sponsorship literature has focused on understanding the influences of sponsorship outcomes in just one country, however, to the researcher's knowledge, no studies tested an international sponsorship model. The increasing interest on how sponsorship outcomes function at a global level (Amis & Cornwell, 2005; Rines, 2002; Soderman & Dolles, 2013), combined with the scant research measuring the

effectiveness of cross-national sponsorships (Amis & Cornwell, 2005; Mullin et al., 2007; Santomier, 2008), highlight the significance of this type of investigation as this research advances the sport sponsorship theory in several important aspects. This study's results acknowledged for the first time the measurement and structural invariance of a global sport sponsorship model, hence the lack of variation may warrant comparisons of this manuscript's sponsorship outcomes between similar samples from the U.S. and India. Moreover, the findings suggest that, for the most part, the causal relationships among these sport sponsorship outcomes can be impervious to Hofstede and colleagues' (2010) cultural dimensions theory. Also, the results from both analyzed countries indicate that the impact of sponsorship variables such as attitude toward the sponsor, purchase intentions, and past purchases on actual purchases can be doubtful.

The relationship between attitude toward the sponsor and purchase intentions was found not to vary across countries. In fact, attitude toward the sponsor was found to be the major predictor of purchase intentions for both the U.S. and India, confirming the results of previous research (Biscaia et al., 2013; Crompton, 2004). This finding is due most probably to the fact that sport fans from individualist countries, which are characterized by loose ties among people (Hofstede et al., 2010), will likely be disposed to neutralize this "shortcoming" of loose ties. Furthermore, the favorable attitudes highly identified sport fans have toward their peers will extend to team sponsors (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003). Thus, there are special circumstances related to sport that international corporations should be aware of when they attempt to build more effective international sponsorship-linked marketing promotions. To illustrate, global companies should place a strong emphasis on the generation of positive feelings regarding their sponsorship brand

through making the team's supporters aware that their affiliations have the ability to lower ticket prices, reduce team expenses, or assist in attracting and/or retaining star players (Jensen et al., 2012). This is particularly true in the U.S., where some professional sport leagues teams (i.e. Major League Baseball, the National Basketball Association, the National Football League, and the National Hockey League) have yet to implement game-day front of the jersey sponsorship, potentially an important revenue source, particularly for the sport of soccer (Repucom, 2012).

However, despite previous research findings that would infer a greater willingness toward purchase, the attitude toward the sponsor variable was not a significant predictor of actual purchases for the jersey sponsor's products in the U.S. and India. Therefore, it seems that there is no consistency of attitudes and behavior in this study, which is contrary to the attitude-behavior framework developed by Fazio and colleagues (1983). Theories and models relating to marketing and consumer behavior have been mainly developed in an Anglo-Saxon context, notably the U.S; however, these theories have rarely been tested in cultures having different languages and traditions and confronted with diverse environmental conditions, such as Asia (Slater & Yani-de-Soriano, 2010). From this study's results, it seems that there is no uniformity of attitudes and behavior, which suggests that respondents are capable of making errors in predicting their future purchase situation (Auger & Devinney, 2007; Belk et al., 2005). In light of declining growth in professional sport ticket purchases (Booton, 2013; Florio, 2012), professional sport leagues in the U.S. may be encouraged to consider jersey sponsorship. However, positive attitudes toward the sponsor do not predict actual behavior in this study; therefore, the decision to reject the notion of game-day front of the jersey sponsorship is

so far deemed reasonable.

The Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) and the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1985) suggest that a link is present between purchase intentions and behavior. However, this study's results recognized that the purchase intentions variable is not a predictor of actual purchases for the jersey sponsor's products in both analyzed countries. The vast majority of academics have to content themselves with intentions to purchase, which has been sometimes indicated as a possible source of error in the conclusions of academic research (Foxall, 2005). Behavioral intentions do not evidently translate in objectively measured buying behavior in this study, and The Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behavior encounter the same problem. One possible explanation of this intention - behavior inconsistency can be explained by several past studies acknowledging that a large number of intrapersonal and situational variables may have the potential to improve the predictive power of a behavioral model (Foxall, 2005). During the transition between purchase intention and actual buying behavior, the individual interacts with a physical and social environment (Phillips & Bradshaw, 1993). This interaction with environmental factors influences their decision making. Cognitive approaches assume perfect and constant conditions without consideration of environmental or social settings, thus oversimplifying the complex translation of purchase intentions into actual buying behavior (Fukukawa, 2003). In addition, it seems that these environmental and social factors are present in both the U.S. and India, and American fans may not have positive indulgence behaviors toward spending their money on fun-related and leisurely-related activities (e.g., watching their favorite team), compared with their Indian counterparts.

Past purchases of the jersey sponsor's products did predict purchase intentions in both countries, in accord with what has been found in previous research (Shapiro et al., 2013; Trail et al., 2006), but past purchases of the jersey sponsor's products did not predict actual behavior in the U.S. and India, not in line with general academic literature (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Smith et al., 2008), and possibly not in line with Hofstede and colleagues' (2010) cultural dimension of short-term orientation (i.e., respect for traditions). Ouelette and Wood (1998) explained the predictive power of past behavior as the impact of habit on behavior through various processes. When customers had ample opportunity to perform a given behavior frequently in the past, it can be performed automatically. However, it seems that American and Indian fans, who had purchased the jersey sponsor's products previously, had the *intention* to purchase again but ultimately did not report buying the jersey sponsor's products when they were surveyed for the second time. Hence, incorporating past behavior to explain actual behavior in the U.S. and India is not successful, and additional scholarly investigations should inspect the reasons for this inconsistency in the relationship between past and actual behavior in sponsorship.

Finally, past studies acknowledged that the smaller the temporal separation, the better intentions can predict behavior. For example, Morwitz and colleagues (2007) found an association across several countries between intent and behavior when respondents were asked if they would have bought a non-durable product in one month or less. For the current study, the number of days between collecting purchase intentions and actual purchases for the jersey sponsor's products had a variation between approximately four and eight months (see Table 7) and was employed to better explain

behavior; still, this control variable was found not to be a predictor of actual purchases in the U.S. and India. Furthermore, other researchers have maintained that the intent-behavior relationship will be stronger and longer (time wise) for durable goods (e.g., electronics which this study's jersey sponsor is selling) than for non-durable goods (e.g., food) because it is likely that consumers spend more time gathering information and evaluating alternatives when they consider buying durable goods than when they consider purchasing non-durable goods (Morwitz et al., 2007). Nonetheless, this study's intent-behavior relationship was not significant, likely because respondents were biased by social desirability or they just miscalculated their intentions (Auger & Devinney, 2007; Belk et al., 2005). Thus, it can be concluded that social desirability biases and intentions biases can be present in the U.S. and India, and researchers should take this information into consideration when attempting to build a sponsorship model.

Limitations and Future Research

While this research has provided important insights to the continued understanding of sport sponsorship, it also has some limitations. However, these limitations can be suggested starting points of future research. First, this study looked only at an international organization, and as such, the results would not apply to small or locally based companies. Second, this study tested the cross-national application of sponsorship outcomes using just one team and sponsor. Future research will require a wider variety of sponsorship contexts, such as different sports, teams, and sponsor levels to test the validity of the research findings. Third, while this research was developed within two local contexts, it might not be applicable to other countries outside of the two that were examined. Thus, researchers should test these findings with more countries

where sponsorship has experienced growth, such as the United Kingdom, China and Brazil. Fourth, the level of team identification for the CFC fans was not controlled in these research analyses; however, the researchers targeted only CFC supporter clubs, which, per this study's invariance results, are homogenous groups that would not cast doubt on the validity of the research findings. Fifth, the current study considered only five variables, and other variables may help to further explain sponsorship effectiveness. Future studies ought to test cross-national differences with other sponsorship effects, such as word of mouth, goodwill, and image transfer. Sixth, the data for this research was collected with the use of the purposive sampling method, which may have contributed to the non-randomization of the sample. Moreover, while the sample collected was acceptable for the current study, a larger sample would augment the soundness of the current study.

While the current study does have some limitations, it provides valuable information for assisting multi-national companies to better impact their consumers in a global context. Given these results and their broad implications, further investigation on the way countries influence the relationships among key variables in sponsorship contexts is warranted.

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APPENDIX A**IRB APPROVAL**

UNIVERSITY of
NORTHERN COLORADO



Institutional Review Board

DATE: February 17, 2014

TO: Noni Zaharia
FROM: University of Northern Colorado (UNCO) IRB

PROJECT TITLE: [564813-1] Implementing Purchase Behaviors in a Cross-National
Analysis of Sponsorship Effectiveness

SUBMISSION TYPE: New Project

ACTION: APPROVAL/VERIFICATION OF
EXEMPT STATUS DECISION DATE: February 13, 2014

Thank you for your submission of New Project materials for this project. The University of Northern Colorado (UNCO) IRB approves this project and verifies its status as EXEMPT according to federal IRB regulations.

We will retain a copy of this correspondence within our records for a duration of 4 years.

If you have any questions, please contact Sherry May at 970-351-1910 or Sherry.May@unco.edu. Please include your project title and reference number in all correspondence with this committee.

This letter has been electronically signed in accordance with all applicable regulations, and a copy is retained within University of Northern Colorado (UNCO) IRB's records.

APPENDIX B**CONSENT FORMS**UNIVERSITY *of*
NORTHERN COLORADO**CONSENT FORM FOR HUMAN PARTICIPANTS
IN RESEARCH****UNIVERSITY OF NORTHERN COLORADO****Project Title**

Implementing purchase behaviors in a cross-national analysis of sponsorship effectiveness

Researchers

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Purpose and Description

This study will attempt to examine whether behavioral intentions in sport sponsorship are related to past and actual purchase behaviors of sport consumers. As a participant in this research, you will be asked to answer survey questions about who the Chelsea Football Club's shirt sponsor is, and you will also rate the sponsorship effectiveness of Chelsea Football Club's shirt sponsor.

The risks inherent in this study are no greater than those normally encountered

during your everyday experiences. The survey should only take approximately 10 minutes to complete. You will not need to provide your name or any other identifiable information, except for your email address in case you voluntarily would like to participate for a 1-minute follow-up survey regarding purchases occurring during the period between the initial and the follow-up surveys. However, even though email addresses are collected in the first survey, the survey software used by the researchers (i.e., Qualtrics) will automatically anonymize responses when survey data will be collected for analysis; therefore, your email address will not be attached to your survey's answers, and, as a result, you are anonymous in your responses to our questions. Only the researchers will have access to the data, which will be stored on Qualtrics.com. The demographic information requested (age, gender, race, etc.) won't identify you, as the Qualtrics software encrypts the data so that it cannot be traced back to the original source.

Understanding the reasons adults purchase or not a specific product/service from a company that provides sport sponsorship can provide great insight for everybody in the sport industry looking to boost their revenues. The improvement in how the effectiveness of sport sponsorship is measured stands to benefit not only the entire sport industry, but also the sport consumers. You do not stand to benefit directly from their participation, other than the compensation of \$5 USD if you voluntarily want to participate in the follow up survey.

Participation is voluntary. You may decide not to participate in this study and if you begin participation you may still decide to stop and withdraw at any time. Your decision will be respected and will not result in loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Having read the above and having had an opportunity to ask any

questions please complete the questionnaire if you would like to participate in this research. By completing the questionnaire, you will give us permission for your participation, and you certify you are 18 years of age or older. You may keep this form for future reference. If you have any concerns about your selection or treatment as a research participant, please contact the Office of Sponsored Programs, Kepner Hall, University of Northern Colorado Greeley, CO 80639, USA; +1-970-351-2161.

UNIVERSITY *of*
NORTHERN COLORADO



**CONSENT FORM FOR HUMAN PARTICIPANTS
IN RESEARCH**

UNIVERSITY OF NORTHERN COLORADO

Project Title

Implementing purchase behaviors in a cross-national analysis of sponsorship effectiveness

Researchers

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Purpose and Description

Thank you for taking part in the initial survey!

The purpose of this follow-up survey is to collect data regarding purchases occurring during the period between the initial and the follow-up surveys. As a participant in this research, you will be asked to answer questions in order to rate your purchase behavior regarding Chelsea Football Club`s shirt sponsor (i.e., Samsung, a multi-national company, and the largest information technology company in the world that sells products such as computers, televisions, mobile phones, printers and refrigerators).

The risks inherent in this study are no greater than those normally encountered during your everyday experiences. The survey should only take approximately 1 minute to complete. You will not need to provide your name or any other identifiable information. Only the researchers will have access to the data, which will be stored on Qualtrics.com. The email addresses are provided by the survey software, Qualtrics, and they do not link participants with their survey responses. The demographic information requested (age, gender, race, etc.) won`t identify you, as the Qualtrics software encrypts the data so that it cannot be traced back to the original source.

Understanding the reasons adults purchase or not a specific product/service from a company that provides sport sponsorship can provide great insight for everybody in the sport industry looking to boost their revenues. The improvement in how the effectiveness of sport sponsorship is measured stands to benefit not only the entire sport industry, but also the sport consumers. The subjects do not stand to benefit directly from their participation, other than the compensation of \$5 USD.

Participation is voluntary. You may decide not to participate in this study and if you begin participation you may still decide to stop and withdraw at any time. Your decision will be respected and will not result in loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Having read the above and having had an opportunity to ask any questions please complete the questionnaire if you would like to participate in this research. By completing the questionnaire, you will give us permission for your participation, and you certify you are 18 years of age or older. Compensation of \$5 USD will be provided through an Amazon gift card email upon your participation. You may keep this form for future reference. If you have any concerns about your selection or treatment as a research participant, please contact the Office of Sponsored Programs, Kepner Hall, University of Northern Colorado Greeley, CO 80639, USA; +1-970-351-2161.

APPENDIX C

SURVEY INSTRUMENT

`Implementing purchase behaviors in a
cross-national analysis of sponsorship
effectiveness` Initial Survey

1. Please answer the following question to the best of your knowledge. Please keep in mind that there is no "right" or "wrong" answer, and please choose one answer. In your opinion, what is the meaning of the word "*sponsorship*"?

- The buying and selling of goods.
- A form of marketing in which a person or a company pays for all or some of the costs associated with a project or program in exchange for recognition.
- The business of designing and writing advertisements

2. The word "*sponsorship*" means a form of marketing in which a person or a company pays for all or some of the costs associated with a project or program in exchange for recognition. For example, the company BWIN has a shirt/jersey *sponsorship* with Real Madrid.

3. On the next page you have twenty (20) seconds to answer a single question, then you will be automatically re-directed to the following page. Please do not search for the answer online. We are only interested in what YOU already know - not whether you can search for this information online or whether you can ask a friend. For example, you will be asked to write the current shirt/jersey sponsor of Borussia Dortmund, and you will be presented with one picture. To exemplify, the answer is EVONIK.

4. Please fill in the blanks the current shirt/jersey sponsor of CHELSEA FC:

5. The following section contain statements relating to SAMSUNG`s sport sponsorship agreement with CHELSEA FC. Please indicate your level of agreement to these statements by choosing the appropriate number from 1 to 10. The scale ranges from 1, meaning you STRONGLY DISAGREE to a statement, to 10, meaning you STRONGLY AGREE to a

statement. There are NO right or wrong answers and there is NO time limit for your responses.

SPONSORSHIP FIT

There is a close fit between SAMSUNG and CHELSEA FC.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
SAMSUNG and CHELSEA FC have many similarities.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
It makes sense that SAMSUNG sponsors CHELSEA FC.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
My image of CHELSEA FC is consistent with my image of SAMSUNG.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

ATTITUDE TOWARD THE SPONSOR

I like SAMSUNG`s brand.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
SAMSUNG is a very good brand of products/services.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
On this question please click on `Strongly Agree` so we can ensure you are paying attention.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
I have a favorable disposition / mood toward SAMSUNG.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

GRATITUDE (the quality or feeling of being grateful or thankful)

I feel grateful to SAMSUNG for its sponsorship to CHELSEA FC.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
I feel thankful to SAMSUNG for its sponsorship to CHELSEA FC.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
I appreciate SAMSUNG.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

PAST PURCHASES

I already purchased a product/service made by SAMSUNG.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
I already purchased a product/service from SAMSUNG because its sport sponsorship had a positive effect.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
The fact that SAMSUNG is a sponsor of CHELSEA FC had an influence on my past purchase decisions.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
I already purchased a product/service from SAMSUNG to show support for CHELSEA FC.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

INTENTION TO PURCHASE

I will buy a product/service made by SAMSUNG.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Next time I need to buy a specific product/service, I would consider buying SAMSUNG`s.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
I would be more likely to buy a product/service made by SAMSUNG over its competitors	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
The SAMSUNG`s sponsorship to CHELSEA FC makes me more likely to buy a product/service made by SAMSUNG.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

DEMOGRAPHICS

6. What is your country of residence in the last two years? _____
7. How old are you?
18-25 _____
26-34 _____
35-54 _____
55-64 _____
65 or over _____
8. What is the highest level of education you have completed?
Less than High School _____
High School _____
2-year College Degree _____
4-year College Degree _____
Masters Degree _____
Doctoral Degree _____
Professional Degree (JD, MD) _____
9. What is your gender?
Male _____
Female _____
10. Is English your native language (the first language you spoke as a child)?
Yes _____
No _____
11. What is your current marital status?
Single, never married _____
Married without children _____
Married with children _____
Divorced _____
Separated _____
Widowed _____
Living with partner _____
12. What is your employment status?
Employed _____
Unemployed _____
Self-employed _____
Retired _____
Student _____
Other _____

13. What is your combined annual household income in U.S. dollars?
 Less than 20 000 _____
 20 000 - 39 999 _____
 40 000 - 59 999 _____
 60 000 - 89 999 _____
 90 000 or more _____
14. Are you the primary decision-maker in your family with regard to making purchases?
 Yes _____
 I make purchase decisions together with other members of my family _____
 No _____
15. Was anything not working properly or unclear? Please leave any other optional feedback below. All comments are very helpful! _____
16. Your email is very important for our research. Please provide your e-mail address in the text box below if you would like to be contacted for a follow up survey. We are an academic institution, we will not spam your e-mail and we will not share your e-mail with any 3rd parties! _____

`Implementing purchase behaviors in a cross-national
 analysis of sponsorship effectiveness`
 Follow-up Survey

1. The following section contains only statements relating to the period between the first SAMSUNG – CHELSEA FC survey you completed in the summer of 2013 and today. Please indicate your level of agreement to these statements by choosing the appropriate number from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 10 (Strongly Agree). There are NO right or wrong answers, please just answer truthfully.

ACTUAL PURCHASE BETWEEN *(date when the respondent filled in the first survey)* AND TODAY

This sport sponsorship resulted in my purchase of SAMSUNG`s products/services. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

I purchased SAMSUNG`s products/services to show support for CHELSEA FC. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

On this question please click on `Strongly Agree` so we can ensure you are paying attention. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

I purchased SAMSUNG`s products services to show support for SAMSUNG. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

The fact that SAMSUNG is a sponsor of CHELSEA FC had an influence on my purchase decisions. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2. To the best of your knowledge, did you buy a SAMSUNG product/service between (*date when the respondent filled in the first survey*) and today?

No _____

Yes _____

3. If you bought a SAMSUNG product/service, how many SAMSUNG products/services you bought during the period between the first SAMSUNG – CHELSEA FC survey you completed and today? _____

4. If you bought a SAMSUNG product/service, how many dollars/pounds/rupees did you pay in total for those SAMSUNG products/services during the stated period?

5. Was anything not working properly or unclear? Please leave any other optional feedback below. All comments are very helpful! _____