THE IMPACT OF JUNIOR SPORTS SPONSORSHIP ON CONSUMER-BASED BRAND EQUITY

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Abstract

Sponsorship is a fast-growing marketing and communications tactic, often used as a brand building tool. Despite its popularity, the credibility of sponsorship has come under question, due primarily to a measurement deficiency (Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013). Academics and practitioners alike are seeking more holistic ways to track and measure the impact of sponsorship on business outcomes such as brand equity.

Research to date has focused on sponsorship's hierarchy of effects to understand what factors it is comprised of, and how those factors, influence consumer knowledge, perceptions and behaviour. Unlike traditional forms of marketing communications, such as advertising, sponsorship can generate the consumer knowledge effects of image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill for a business. These consumer knowledge effects occur through association with popular activities like community events, sports, the arts, causes, individual teams or celebrities (Pappu and Cornwell, 2014). Yet, a number of gaps remain in the literature including if and how the consumer knowledge effects generated by sponsorship have an impact on sponsor brand equity. This research extends knowledge of this area by empirically testing the impact of sponsorship on sponsor brand equity—using Keller's (1993) notion of consumer-based brand equity (CBBE) as a central framework.

To date, sponsorship research has tended to centre on professional sport settings. As a result, there is a paucity of research regarding how sponsor CBBE is affected by sponsorship of community based activities, referred to as grassroots activities (Day, 2010), where a sponsor is primarily seeking community relations outcomes. Using junior sport for context, this research addresses this gap by empirically examining the impact of sponsorship of grassroots activities on sponsor CBBE. The research question of interest is:

RQ. How does sponsorship of grassroots activities impact on sponsor CBBE?

To address the research question, three research objectives were developed, being:

- **RO1**—To explore companies' objectives and CBBE measurement practices for sponsorship of grassroots activities;

- **RO2**—To explore consumer perceptions of companies' sponsorship of grassroots activities; and

- **RO3**—To develop a model of consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the subsequent impact on sponsor CBBE.

A two-stage mixed-method design was used in the research. In Stage 1, three exploratory studies were undertaken. Stage 1a comprised a case study historical data analysis of six years of brand-tracking data supplied by an Australian company. Stage 1b comprised depth interviews with eight sponsorship managers from across Australia, while Stage 1c comprised a focus group and eight depth interviews conducted with Australian adult consumers. For Stage 2 of the research an online survey was conducted nationally, with Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) as the primary analytical technique. The survey sample comprised Australian adults (n = 309) who were involved with junior sport.

This research makes theoretical and practical contributions. The primary theoretical contribution of this research is the finding that *consumer moral orientation* and *consumer moral judgement* are important factors not previously explored in the sponsorship hierarchy of effects. Specifically, it was found that sponsorship of grassroots activities, such as junior sport, evoke strong affective responses from consumers regardless of the level of involvement the consumer has with the sponsored activity. Those responses can be positive or negative based on the consumer's perception of community benefit or detriment resulting from the sponsorship.

A further contribution of this research is the adaption and empirical testing of the CBBE framework to provide relevant measures for the impact of sponsorship of grassroots activities on sponsor CBBE. The final research model was shown to have high validity and reliability. Overall, this research addresses apparent gaps in the literature by extending the understanding of sponsorship's impact on sponsor CBBE and focusing on the context of grassroots, and specifically junior sport, sponsorships.

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List of Abbreviations

CFA – Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CBBE – Consumer-Based Brand Equity

CSR – Corporate Social Responsibility

EFA – Exploratory Factor Analysis

IMC – Integrated Marketing Communications (mix)

SEM – Structural Equation Modelling

Statement of Original Authorship

The work contained in this thesis has not been previously submitted to meet requirements for an award at this or any other higher education institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

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When commencing this PhD, I likened it to climbing a mountain. It couldn't be that hard I thought, as so many have made such a climb before. In hindsight, I didn't know just how much I didn't know! Fortunately, I had two amazing mountain guides to educate and encourage me and to keep me moving forward through many a perceived impasse. To Associate Professor Maria Raciti my principal supervisor, just saying thank-you feels incredibly inadequate. I know I tested your patience many a time and yet you were always there for me. Your tolerance, knowledge and capacity to give tough love with a smile has helped and changed me in ways no words can express. To Professor Meredith Lawley my co-supervisor, your humour, wisdom and questioning helped clear the fog that sometimes enveloped us on the journey. To the both of you, a heartfelt thank-you for guiding me along the right paths to the summit.

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The lesson this journey has taught me is that every mountain top is within reach if you just keep climbing.

Publications Relevant to this Research

Journal Articles

Vance, L., Raciti, M. & Lawley, M. 2016, 'Beyond brand exposure: Measuring the sponsorship halo effect'. *Measuring Business Excellence* vol. 20, no. 3, pp. 1-14.

Vance, L, .Raciti M. & Lawley M. 2016, 'Sponsorship selections: Corporate culture, beliefs and motivations', *Corporate Communications: an International Journal* vol. 21, no.4, pp. 483-499.

Conference Proceedings—refereed

Vance, L., Raciti, M. & Lawley, M. 2013, 'Comparing the impact on a sponsor's brand of community relations focused, cause-related and commercially oriented sponsorships: a case study', *Proceedings of the 2013 ANZMAC Conference,* Auckland, New Zealand, pp. 1-7.

Doctoral Colloquium

Presentation at the 2014 ANZMAC Doctoral Colloquium, Griffith University, Brisbane, Australia, November 29-30 (Reviewers: Professor Harmen Oppewal, Associate Professer Cynthia Webster).

Work in progress discussions

Associate Professor Ravi Pappu, University of Queensland, October 24, 2014 (meeting on University of Queensland campus).

Professor Jill Sweeney, University of Western Australia, November 29, 2014 (meeting at the 2014 ANZMAC Doctoral Colloquium, Brisbane, Australia).

Professor Florien Riedmuller, Nuremberg Institute of Technology, July 22, 2015 (meeting with visiting researcher at University of the Sunshine Coast).

1. Introduction

1.1 BACKGROUND

Sponsorship is a fast-growing marketing and communications tactic, particularly in sport. From international sporting events down to junior sport carnivals, sponsors are omnipresent (Cornwell and Kwak, 2015). This is due to the belief that sponsorship can deliver brand, business and community relations outcomes for sponsors (Grohs and Reisinger, 2014). Despite its growth, the measurement of sponsorship performance remains problematic (Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013). Academics and practitioners alike are seeking more holistic ways to track and measure sponsorship performance (Narayen et al., 2016; Walraven et al., 2016). Consumer-based brand equity (CBBE) is an accepted marketing measurement framework (Keller, 2016). However, it lacks empirical validation in sponsorship contexts (Newton, 2013).

The past three decades have seen considerable growth in sponsorship research (Johnston and Spais, 2015). Seminal reviews by Cornwell and Maignan (1998) and Walliser (2003) showed the early literature had focused on strategic management factors with some extension into understanding of sponsorship's consumer knowledge effects of image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill. Consumer behaviour responses to sponsorship became more of a focus for research during the 2000s (Johnston and Spais, 2015). More recently, the dynamic nature of sponsorship relationships and networks emerged as a research stream (see Farrelly et al., 2008; Olkkonen and Tuominen, 2008). In the current decade, the research focus has turned to memory-related outcomes (Cornwell and Humphreys, 2013) and importantly, performance measurement (Kourovskaia and Meenaghan, 2013; Narayen et al., 2016; Walraven et al., 2016).

A review of the literature identified three important gaps. First, there is a lack of application of the CBBE framework to measure sponsorship performance. Second, there has been limited exploration of negative consumer responses to sponsorships. Third, the majority of sponsorship research has been conducted into professional sports settings with little focus on sponsorship of grassroots activities such as junior sport. These gaps are important when considering the use of sponsorship for community relations outcomes.

This research seeks to address these gaps in three ways. First, sponsor objectives and measurement practices will be investigated. Second, adult consumer perceptions of sponsorship will be explored from a community relations perspective. Third, a model will be developed and tested to measure the impact of sponsorship of grassroots activities on sponsor CBBE. Contextually, this research will focus on sponsorship of junior sport in Australia.

1.2 RESEARCH QUESTION AND OBJECTIVES

The central question of this research asks:

RQ. How does sponsorship of grassroots activities impact on sponsor CBBE?

This thesis argues that sponsorship of grassroots activities evokes affective responses amongst consumers due to the impact it has on local community issues. As a result, sponsorship of grassroots activities impacts a sponsor's CBBE outcomes such as brand associations, sense of brand community and behavioural intentions.

Drawing on the literature from two disciplines, sponsorship and CBBE, the following research objectives are established:

RO1 – To explore companies' objectives and CBBE measurement practices for sponsorship of grassroots activities;

RO2 – To explore consumer perceptions of companies' sponsorship of grassroots activities; and

RO3 – To develop a model of consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the subsequent impact on sponsor CBBE.

The above objectives are designed to firstly investigate the factors involved in consumers' perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities. Secondly, the development and validation of a model for measuring these factors will provide a valuable tool for practitioners and a theoretical contribution by addressing the gap in the literature where the CBBE framework has not been empirically tested in a grassroots sponsorship context. Having established the research question and objectives, justification for this research follows.

1.3 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE RESEARCH

There are three grounds, theoretical, practical and community, on which this research is justified. First, there are existing gaps within the literature where theoretical contributions can be made to expand the current stock of knowledge. Second, despite its growth, sponsorship practice lacks holistic performance measurement models. Third, there are growing community concerns regarding some sponsorship of grassroots activities and junior sport in particular. Discussion of these justifications follows.

1.3.1 THEORETICAL ISSUES

Despite a growing body of research into sponsorship, three apparent gaps were identified from the literature review (Chapter 2). First, measurement of CBBE outcomes of sponsorship has been inconsistent. Second, there is a limited understanding of negative responses to sponsorship. Third, there is a dearth of research into the sponsorship of grassroots activities. Each of these gaps will be discussed in turn.

Much sponsorship research has focused on how sponsorship works as a marketing and communications tactic (Walliser, 2003) with models established to explain sponsorship's hierarchy of effects and the generation of consumer knowledge effects (see Meenaghan, 2001; Cornwell et al., 2005; Alexandris and Tsiotsou, 2012). Despite these models, sponsorship performance measurement is problematic and studies into sponsorship outcomes have produced varying results (see Rowley and Williams, 2008; Alexandris and Tsiotsou, 2012). Most studies have focused on measuring discrete outcomes for sponsors such as consumers' recall of the sponsor or purchase intent. What is lacking in the literature is empirical testing of a more holistic measurement model that captures cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes. CBBE is a well utilised conceptual framework for developing measurement models for marketing tactics (see Vazquez et al., 2002; Pappu et al., 2005; Keller, 2016). Yet the apparent gap is the application of the CBBE framework in sponsorship measurement.

In the main, a positive perspective of sponsorship has framed studies in the field. In contrast, little attention has been paid to if and when sponsorship may generate negative responses. Over-commercialisation has been one area of focus for this topic (see Carrillat and d'Astous, 2009) and researchers are only recently turning to broader studies of the issue (Grohs et al., 2015; Lee and Mazodier, 2015). Sponsors whose products, such as alcohol, gambling, tobacco and junk food, are considered anti-social

has generated public consternation and has led to calls for restrictions on sponsorship that promotes those products (Jones, 2010; Pettigrew et al., 2012). To date there has been little consideration of this issue in the sponsorship literature.

The predominant setting for both sponsorship investment and research has been professional sports (Johnston and Spais, 2015; IEG, 2016). Sponsorship of grassroots activities was identified in the 1990's as an effective method for building community relations (Mack, 1999), but scant research has been conducted in this space since. The most recent studies into sponsorship of grassroots activities have focused on sponsor awareness (Miloch and Lambrecht, 2006) and linkages to corporate social responsibility (CSR) (see Plewa and Quester, 2011) and self-congruity (see Quester et al., 2013). However, little attention has been paid to what level the factors identified in other sponsorship settings may influence consumer perceptions of grassroots sponsorship.

1.3.2 PRACTITIONER ISSUES

Sponsorship offers distinct relationship building opportunities with select target audiences and is part of a growing trend of indirect marketing (Cornwell and Kwak, 2015). International Events Group (IEG—an international authority with over 30 years' experience of providing sponsorship industry analytics and insights) reports that annual international sponsorship investment now exceeds US$57b and it continues to outstrip annual growth in direct advertising expenditure (IEG, 2016). While some 70% of this investment continues to be into professional sports, companies are increasingly turning to sponsorship of grassroots activities to augment their sponsorship portfolios and enhance community relations (Sponsorship Australasia, 2011; IEG, 2016). In Australia, over 60% of children aged 5–14 years participate in junior sport (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015b). Therefore, sponsorship of junior sport is viewed as an attractive marketing opportunity and is becoming more prevalent (Day, 2010; Bainbridge, 2013).

While the popularity of sponsorship amongst marketers and its use as a brand building tool is evident, holistic performance measurement continues to challenge the industry (Meenaghan, 2013). Around 30% of companies don't measure sponsorship performance (Newton, 2013). Of those that do, there remains a heavy reliance on advertising-based brand exposure and sponsor recall metrics (Newton, 2013). Those metrics do not capture the outcomes in terms of consumer perceptions and behaviour and despite sponsorship managers asserting sponsorship contributes to CBBE (Cornwell

et al., 2001), the lack of generalizable CBBE based measurement models to measure performance is a problematic gap for the industry (Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013; Grohs, 2016).

1.3.3 COMMUNITY ISSUES

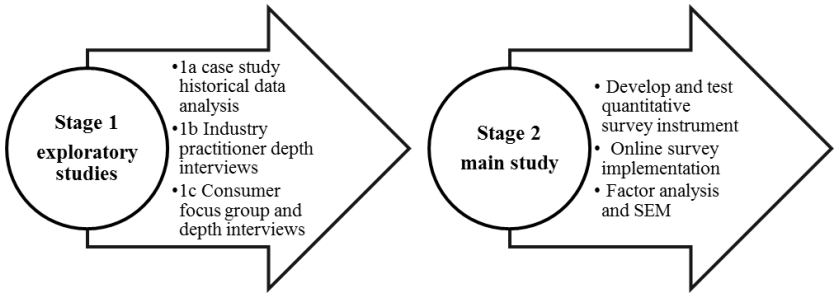
While there has been scant research into sponsorship of grassroots activities, there have been related studies into community health and other societal issues that have criticised some sponsorship of junior sport (see Pettigrew et al., 2012; Holt, 2013; Watson et al., 2016). Those studies indicate a level of community dislike for some sponsorships of grassroots activities which is in contradiction of the literature whereby sponsorship of grassroots activities is posited to be effective at generating positive community goodwill (Mack, 1999; Day, 2010). This issue justifies the need to address the gap in the literature for understanding consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities.

In summary of this section, these theoretical, practitioner and community issues show an understanding of consumer responses to sponsorship of grassroots activities is an important stream of research to investigate. The research methods used in this study are discussed next.

1.4 METHODOLOGY

This research is undertaken within a post-positivist paradigm. The research consists of two stages (Figure 1.1). Stage 1 comprises three exploratory studies to inform the Stage 2 main study. A theoretical framework was developed from the literature (Chapter 2) with a conceptual model established from findings of the exploratory studies in Stage 1 (Chapter 3). The conceptual model is tested using an online survey in the Stage 2 main study (Chapters 4 and 5).

Figure 1.1 Research design



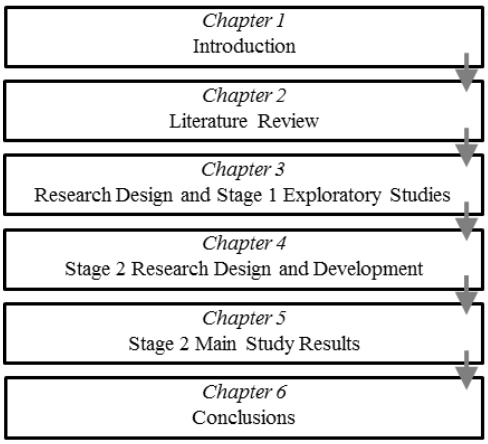
Source: developed for this research

For the exploratory studies, thematic analysis of the qualitative data was manual. The data analytic techniques used for the main study are factor analysis and structural equation modelling (SEM). Next the outline of this thesis is presented.

1.5 OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

This thesis is structured into six chapters as shown in Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2 Chapter outline of this thesis



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Chapter 1 provides an overview to the research and justification for the research. Key terms are defined and delimitations of the research are established.

Chapter 2 reviews the literature and discusses how CBBE has been applied in CSR. From the literature, a theoretical framework is developed (Figure 2.6).

In Chapter 3 a justification for the post-positivist paradigm and mixed method design for this research is provided (Section 3.2). Following this, the exploratory studies are reported (Section 3.3). Section 3.4 presents a summary of emergent findings. The conceptual model (Figure 3.5) and hypotheses are presented and ethical considerations (Section 3.5) are addressed.

In Chapter 4, details of the Stage 2 main study survey design and development process are provided (Sections 4.2 and 4.3). Section 4.4 provides details and results from testing of the survey instrument. Factor analysis was employed to revise the measurement scales and develop a final research model (Figure 4.4) and hypotheses for the main study. Ethical considerations for the main study are addressed in Section 4.6.

In Chapter 5 the results for the main study are reported. Section 5.2 provides a profile of the survey respondents and Section 5.3 describes the preparation of the data for analysis. The results from factor analysis of the research model are detailed in Section 5.4 and Section 5.5 presents the results of SEM.

The sixth and final chapter brings the research together by drawing conclusions for the research objectives (Section 6.2) and research question (Section 6.3) through comparison with the literature. Implications for theory are presented at Section 6.4 with implications for practice presented at Section 6.5. Limitations for this research are discussed at Section 6.6 and implications for future research at Section 6.7.

Having established the background and outline for this thesis, definitions of the key terms used in this thesis are provided next.

1.6 DEFINITIONS

The literature review of Chapter 2 shows there is either ambiguity of meaning or different identifying terms for some constructs relevant to this research. This section provides clarity of meaning for such terms used in this thesis. The terms are listed in alphabetical order.

Affective responses. Affective is an adjective relating to feelings or emotions (Macquarie, 2012). Sponsorship can result in the emotionally based consumer knowledge effects of image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill for the sponsor (Meenaghan, 2001). This thesis applies the term affective responses to these effects.

Consumer-Based Brand Equity. The literature describes the broader concept of brand equity from two perspectives. From an accounting perspective, it can be viewed as separable assets, such as logos and intellectual activity rights, which add financial value to a brand (Feldwick, 1996). However, this research views brand equity from the marketing perspective first conceptualised as customer-based brand equity by Keller (1993). It is noted in the literature the terms ‘customer’ and ‘consumer’ have been used interchangeably (see Hoeffler and Keller, 2002; Vazquez et al., 2002). This thesis uses the term consumer-based brand equity (CBBE), see Section 2.3.

Consumer. The diversity of activities that may be sponsored leads to various terms being used for consumers targeted by sponsorships. For example, when considering consumers who attend or participate in sponsored activities, the terms ‘fan’

used in a sporting setting or 'audience' used in an arts setting are not applicable to consumers participating in a charity fun run. Additionally, individuals who have not directly attended or participated in an activity could still be exposed to sponsorship-linked marketing through publicity, advertising or promotion occurring beyond the actual event environment. Therefore, this thesis uses the term 'consumer' generically when referring to any individual exposed, directly or indirectly, to a sponsorship and/or sponsorship-linked marketing.

Fit. Sponsor/activity fit refers to the level of perceived congruence between a sponsor and the sponsored activity (Cornwell et al., 2005). The literature shows a number of other terms are also used to refer to congruence including 'alignment', 'similarity' and 'relevance' and based on studies by Fleck and Quester (2007) and Close and Lacey (2013) the term 'fit' was adopted for this research.

Grassroots activities. This term is used collectively for local community or regional level activities. These are typically amateur based activities such as junior sport or community arts events and are usually run by, or have high involvement of, volunteers (Day, 2010).

Sponsorship hierarchy of effects. Models for hierarchy of effects are commonly used in marketing and communication disciplines to explain how consumers are moved from awareness of a brand or product (cognition) through to affective (feeling) and then behavioural responses (Solomon et al., 2014). In the sponsorship hierarchy of effects, it is posited that consumer exposure to a sponsorship leads to sponsor brand awareness, image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill and ultimately positive consumer behaviour (Meenaghan, 2001; Cornwell et al., 2005; Alexandris and Tsiotsou, 2012).

1.7 DELIMITATIONS OF SCOPE

The nature of this research means two delimitations of scope are apparent. First, a key delimitation is geographical. This research explores community perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities, which by their nature are usually based in local communities or a particular region. The scope of this research is delimited to the Australian community. In doing so the research contributes to a growing but still limited body of knowledge of sponsorship in Australia.

Second, this research is delimited to sponsorship of grassroots activities. Furthermore, it was deemed necessary to focus on one type of grassroots activity (see Section 4.2.2). Hence, the research is delimited to sponsorship of junior sport in Australia. The justifications for focusing on junior sport were its popularity in Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015b), the likelihood of it attracting sponsors and the topical nature of some sponsor involvement (Bainbridge, 2013; Chapman and Kelly, 2016).

1.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

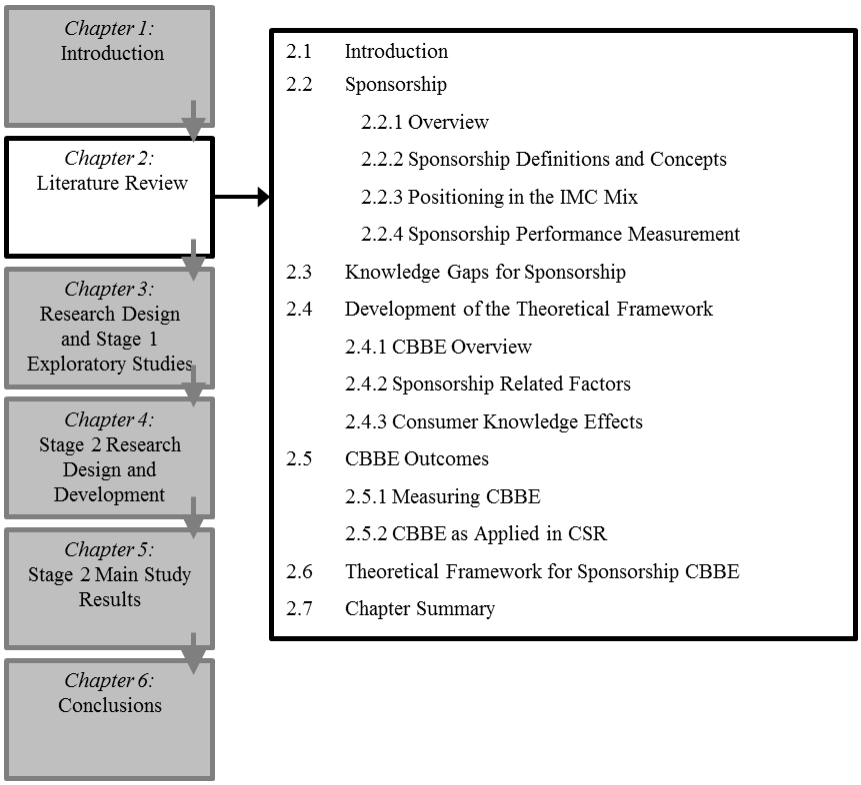
This chapter establishes overviews for this research. It provides a context for investigation of how sponsorship of grassroots activities impacts sponsor CBBE. It introduces the research question and objectives and outlines the research methods. Justification for the research is based on theoretical, practitioner and community issues. Key definitions and broad delimitations are given. Next, Chapter 2 presents the literature review and theoretical framework for the research.

2. Literature Review

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 provided an overview of this research. This chapter presents a review of sponsorship and CBBE related literature. Relevant research issues are identified for development of a theoretical framework for this research. Figure 2.1 details how the chapter is organised.

Figure 2.1 Outline of Chapter 2



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Section 2.1 introduces the chapter. Section 2.2 details the parent discipline of sponsorship. Definitions and key concepts are provided followed by discussion of its place in the integrated marketing communications (IMC) mix and performance measurement. Section 2.3 discusses knowledge gaps for sponsorship. Section 2.4 discusses development of the theoretical framework. Section 2.5 explores CBBE outcomes for sponsorship and Section 2.6 presents the final theoretical framework for sponsorship CBBE and Section 2.7 provides a chapter summary.

2.2 SPONSORSHIP

This section reviews the parent discipline, sponsorship. First, an overview of the discipline is provided. Then definitions of sponsorship and the key concepts and objectives underpinning its usage are clarified. Then its position in the IMC mix is discussed followed by sponsorship performance methods.

2.2.1 OVERVIEW

Annual investment in sponsorship has grown significantly in the past four decades and in 2015 exceeded US$57b (IEG, 2016). While the majority of this investment is directed to professional sport, corporate sponsorship of arts, causes and community events is becoming more common As such, sponsorship is now prevalent in marketing and communications practice (Cornwell and Kwak, 2015).

Sponsorship offers advantages over other forms of marketing communications (Crimmins and Horn, 1996; Meenaghan, 1999). Previous studies have reported that sponsors accrue consumer image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill by placing their brand at the epicentre of popular activities (Bibby, 2009; Alexandris and Tsiotsou, 2012; Grohs and Reisinger, 2014). Consequently, in an increasingly cluttered marketing environment, companies are using sponsorship as a brand building tool to increase brand awareness and establish stronger ties with specific target audiences (Chien et al., 2008; Meenaghan et al., 2013; Newton, 2013).

The literature predominantly focuses on positive goodwill as a sponsorship effect. Nonetheless, despite its popularity amongst marketers, sponsorship attracts criticism and recent studies show some sponsorship can cause negative goodwill (see Carrillat and d'Astous, 2009; Crompton, 2014; Grohs et al., 2015; Lee and Mazodier, 2015). For example, sponsorships promoting products that are considered anti-social, such as alcohol, tobacco, gambling and junk food, have generated public consternation (Pettigrew et al., 2012; Holt, 2013; Alexander, 2014). Additionally, some sponsorships that are perceived to be driven more by the personal interests of senior executives than a strategic corporate priority have been criticized as a financially wasteful divergence from core business (Andrews, 2012). As a result, there is increased pressure from both corporate and community stakeholders for greater levels of accountability in sponsorship investment and performance measurement (Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013; Newton, 2013).

Sponsorship occurs in many varied settings. These settings include sport, the arts and cause-related programs. The scale of sponsorships also ranges from international and large-scale events down to grassroots activities. Industry reports show that some 70% of sponsorship investment is directed towards professional sport (IEG, 2016). This situation has been attributed to the extensive popularity, media coverage and audience reach of professional sport (Cahill and Meenaghan, 2013; Grohs and Reisinger, 2014; Johnston and Spais, 2014). Hence, the majority of academic research has also focused on professional sport sponsorship settings (Cornwell, 2008; Johnston and Spais, 2014). While studies have shown that sponsorship works in similar ways in arts and cause-related settings (Olson, 2010; Plewa and Quester, 2011), very few studies have investigated sponsorship of grassroots activities.

Grassroots activities are broadly described by Day (2010) as locally supported and financed community-based activities that typically involve volunteers but are unlikely to attract a large media profile. While there is a growing appetite for companies to engage with markets at a community level (Gande et al., 2009), the sponsorship of grassroots activities can polarise public opinion (Bainbridge, 2013). So far, however, there has been little discussion about the impact sponsorship of grassroots activities has on sponsor CBBE. Hence, this is the focus of this research.

As well as varied settings, there are also varied terminologies used in sponsorship practice and theory. To provide clarity and direction for this research, key definitions and the constructs of sponsorship that are central to this research are discussed next.

2.2.2 SPONSORSHIP DEFINITONS AND CONCEPTS

Through the latter half of the 20th century sponsorship evolved from what was little more than an opportunity for advertising and corporate hospitality, or a personal interest indulgence by a CEO or Chair, into a prevalent and versatile marketing and communications tactic (Meenaghan, 1991; Crimmins and Horn, 1996). Accordingly, as more academic focus was applied to sponsorship, understanding of its processes and effects has also evolved. As a relevant starting point for further review, Table 2.1 lists chronologically various definitions prescribed to sponsorship over four decades. Following is a discussion of three conclusions drawn from the definitions.

Table 2.1 Definitions of sponsorship

Author/Year	Definition	Discussion
Meenaghan (1983, p. 9)	The provision of assistance either financial or in-kind to an activity (e.g. sport, musical event, festival, fair or within the broad definition of the Arts) by a commercial organisation for the purpose of achieving commercial objectives.	One of the earliest academic definitions that positions sponsorship in a commercial context.
Gardner and Shuman (1987, p.11)	An investment in causes or events to support corporate objectives (for example, by enhancing corporate image) or marketing objectives (such as increasing brand awareness). These are usually not made through traditional media buying channels.	Introduces the notion of multiple corporate and/or marketing related objectives, and specifically identified the opportunity for image transfer beyond brand awareness.
Sandler and Shani (1989, p. 9)	The provision of resources (e.g., money, people, equipment) by an organisation directly to an event or activity in exchange for a direct association with the event or activity. The providing organisation can then use this direct association to achieve either their corporate, marketing or media objectives.	Identifies the potential for exchange of resources other than just a financial purchase or investment. By using the terms 'exchange' and 'association', this definition suggests more of a partnering approach as opposed to exploitation by the sponsor.
Crimmins and Horn (1996, p.12)	Sponsorship is a means of persuasion that is fundamentally different from traditional advertising as it persuades indirectly.	Whilst not specifically a definition, this description identifies the core difference between sponsorship and advertising as being an indirect communication.
Cornwell and Maignan (1998, p. 11)	Sponsorship involves two main activities: (1) an exchange between a sponsor and a sponsee whereby the latter receives a fee and the former obtains the right to associate itself with the activity sponsored, and (2) the marketing of the association by the sponsor, i.e. sponsorship-linked marketing.	Identifies the elements of exchange as separate from marketing of the association. Provides the term sponsorship-linked marketing to focus on the practice of 'leveraging' the association.
Masterman (2007, p. 30)	Sponsorship is a mutually beneficial arrangement that consists of the provision of resources of funds, goods and/or services by an individual or body (the sponsor) to an individual or body (rights-holder) in return for a set of rights that can be used in communications activity, for the achievement of objectives for commercial gain.	A comprehensive definition applied in a commercial context that reinforces the notion of mutual benefit for both sponsor and rights-holder.

First, in these definitions it is shown that sponsorship can be provided to a variety of events, activities, causes, individuals and/or associated bodies (Meenaghan, 1983). Further to this point, Mack (1999) and Day (2010) observe that, at the grassroots level, sponsorship can be provided to a wide and diverse range of activities such as local community arts programs, community events, environmental and cause-related projects

as well as amateur and junior sport Taking a lead from Meenaghan (2001) and to provide consistency, this research will use the term ‘activity’ when broadly discussing what is being sponsored. Additionally, while various terms are used to refer to the parties involved as transactors of a sponsorship, the terms ‘sponsor’ and ‘rights-holder’ identified by Masterman (2007) were adopted for this research.

Second, a theme emerges in the definitions positioning sponsorship as a commercially oriented exchange between two parties resulting in mutual benefits. Consequently, it is acknowledged within the literature that the opportunity to exploit the association and the expectation of a return on sponsorship investment, precludes philanthropy or donations (that are given without expectation of acknowledgement or return) from being considered as sponsorships (Meenaghan, 1983; Crimmins and Horn, 1996; Cornwell and Maignan, 1998). Nonetheless, the outcomes sought from sponsorship can range from commercially oriented brand exposure and sales results to more corporate related brand image and community relations outcomes (Cornwell et al., 2005; Bibby, 2009; Day, 2010; Madill and O'Reilly, 2010). This diversity in outcomes sought from sponsorship has contributed to the challenge of establishing generalizable metrics for sponsorship performance (Meenaghan, 2013).

Third, ambiguity remains for how sponsorship is positioned in relation to other methods of communication such as advertising or public relations (Ryan and Fahy, 2012; Newton, 2013; Floter et al., 2016). Hence, there is a need to clarify its role within the IMC mix.

2.2.3 POSITIONING IN THE IMC MIX

The diversity of sponsorship applications and outcomes means varied perspectives remain on its specific role. On the one hand it is viewed as a direct replacement to, or more progressive form of, advertising that is capable of driving brand awareness and consumer behaviour (Bibby, 2009; Cahill and Meenaghan, 2013). Alternatively, many companies use sponsorship to drive public relations agendas relating to corporate image and reputation (Cornwell, 2008; Cunningham et al., 2009). This implies that sponsorship has as much an impact on brand image and community perceptions as it may have on direct commercial and consumer behaviour outcomes for a sponsor (Farrelly et al., 2008; Cobbs, 2011).

While sponsorship's ability to generate the consumer knowledge effects of image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill is widely acknowledged in the literature, the path to commercial outcomes such as product sales has been harder to prove given the potential for other factors to influence consumer decision-making post their experience of, or exposure to, a sponsorship (Meenaghan, 2013). This has not only led to critical issues in relation to performance measurement but also, when considering new communication technologies such as social media, has further complicated sponsorship's positioning in the IMC mix (Meenaghan et al., 2013).

Cornwell (1995) first addressed the positioning issue by developing the notion of 'sponsorship-linked marketing'. This positioned sponsorship as a brand-building tool at the centre of marketing and communications activity used to promote or 'leverage' a sponsor's association with an activity. Regardless of the objectives sought by companies, contemporary sponsorship is considered a form of indirect marketing as it is peripheral to consumers' experience at, or of, an activity but central to the IMC mix targeting those consumers (Cahill and Meenaghan, 2013; Chanavat and Bodet, 2014; Donlan and Crowther, 2014).

Turning to a practitioner perspective, Cornwell et al. (2001) identified a belief amongst sponsorship practitioners that, like other marketing activities, sponsorship ultimately makes a contribution to CBBE. Yet there is only limited application of measurement frameworks such as CBBE within sponsorship practice (Newton, 2013). Effective sponsorship performance measurement continues to be problematic for the industry and is discussed next.

2.2.4 SPONSORSHIP PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT

The literature shows sponsorship is viewed as an effective and versatile marketing and communications tool for delivering CBBE outcomes (Cornwell et al., 2001; Bibby, 2009; Olson, 2010). Yet, sponsorship measurement has proven problematic and presents a credibility issue for the industry (Meenaghan, 2013). Despite the significant levels of expenditure involved in sponsorship, and the growing calls for governance accountability, the American Association for National Advertisers reveals some 30% of companies don't measure sponsorship performance at all (Newton, 2013). Of those that do, measurement is often limited to audience and media exposure as key performance measures, and cost per impression formulae borrowed from advertising to

determine financial values (Meenaghan, 2013; Newton, 2013). Such measurement techniques do not consider the consumer knowledge effect of sponsor recall or the more complex affective responses of image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill that may be generated by sponsorship exposure.

Cornwell et al. (2001) showed many sponsorship managers believe sponsorships deliver long-term CBBE outcomes through increased awareness and improved perceptions of their brands. Yet, if performance evaluation is limited to brand exposure, or at best sponsorship recall, then a critical gap between objectives and performance measurement is evident and evaluation is little more than *'educated guesswork'* (Meenaghan, 2013, p. 388). While there is a need to measure the short-term tangible brand exposure from sponsorships, the focus of sponsorship measurement should also include the affective responses to its consumer knowledge effects and the subsequent impact on sponsor CBBE outcomes (Ryan and Fahy, 2012). Consequently, there have been calls for further research into sponsorship measurement and in particular, development of metrics to capture outcomes of the consumer knowledge effects that can be applied across the varying sponsorship settings (Cornwell, 2008; Alexandris and Tsiotsou, 2012; Meenaghan, 2013; Johnston and Spais, 2014).

In summary of this section, the literature was reviewed to provide an overview, key definitions and concepts and identify key issues relating to sponsorship. The knowledge gaps identified from the review are discussed in more detail next as a prelude to development of a theoretical framework for this research.

2.3 KNOWLEDGE GAPS FOR SPONSORSHIP

Three gaps were identified within the existing body of sponsorship knowledge for this research to focus on. The gaps are: 1) a lack of consistency in measurement of sponsorship effects and CBBE outcomes, 2) a limited understanding of negative consumer responses to sponsorships, and 3) a lack of studies into sponsorship of grassroots activities. Discussion of these gaps follows.

Gap 1: *a lack of consistency in the measurement of sponsorship effects and CBBE outcomes.*

While the ability to measure sponsorship recall and sponsor brand awareness has been comprehensively addressed, there is still a limited understanding of how the

consumer knowledge effects of image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill can be best measured for sponsorship (Cornwell, 2008; Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013). As a result, studies of sponsorship have yielded inconsistent results for consumer knowledge effects and CBBE outcomes (Rowley and Williams, 2008; Bibby, 2009; Alexandris and Tsiotsou, 2012).

What is lacking in the literature is a sponsorship study using a holistic framework for CBBE. Nonetheless, there has been significant progress using the CBBE framework for measuring outcomes of marketing activities in more general marketing situations (Pappu et al., 2005; Kapferer, 2012). In particular, Hoeffler and Keller (2002) provided a conceptual adaptation of the CBBE framework to show how CSR activities can impact CBBE. CSR activities are undertaken for similar objectives to sponsorship with those being community and stakeholder relations and image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill (Polonsky and Speed, 2001). Therefore, the concepts proposed by Hoeffler and Keller (2002) were explored to incorporate them into a more holistic model for measuring consumer responses to sponsorship of grassroots activities.

Gap 2: *a limited understanding of negative consumer responses to sponsorship*.

The early reviews by Cornwell and Maignan (1998) and Walliser (2003) identified a need for further understanding of consumer perceptions of sponsorship. However, the issue of negative consumer responses to sponsorship has only become prominent in recent times. While factors such as over-commercialisation and sponsor intrusion have been shown to cause negative responses from consumers (Meenaghan, 1999; Carrillat and d'Astous, 2009), there remains a lack of studies from the sponsorship sector into negative responses.

This gap has begun to be addressed in recent studies. Grohs et al. (2015) identified negative responses to rival team sponsors amongst highly involved football fans in Germany. Similarly, a study by Lee and Mazodier (2015) found ethnocentrism produced negative responses to international sponsors during the 2012 London Olympics. Whereas, Crompton (2014) theorizes negative responses can come from operational risks, whereby a sponsor imposes changes to scheduling or rules of sporting events, and reputational risks where sponsors such as alcohol and tobacco companies are perceived as detrimental to society.

However, other research domains, such as public health and social marketing, have highlighted scenarios where negative consumer judgements of such sponsorships are evident (Jones, 2010; Pettigrew et al., 2012). There has been growing public criticism of some sponsorships where products considered to be anti-social are being promoted (Caldwell, 2009; Jones, 2010; Holt, 2013). A challenge for sponsorship is that the media appears more willing to focus attention on negative criticisms of sponsorship than on positive stories emanating from the sector (Bainbridge, 2013; Holt, 2013; Alexander, 2014). This is important for sponsors where their brands are being judged by consumers from the broader community who may have no direct involvement with, or attachment to, the sponsored activity. However, little is known about what impact negative judgements of sponsorship have on sponsor CBBE.

Gap 3: *a lack of research into sponsorship of grassroots activities.*

It is regularly reported some two thirds of international sponsorship investment is directed at professional sports (IEG, 2014). Consequently, the majority of research has been conducted within that setting (Johnston and Spais, 2014); however, the generalizability of findings from these studies into professional sports is problematic.

There have been studies into other sponsorship settings such as the arts (Quester and Thompson, 2001) and CSR (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Plewa and Quester, 2011) where the findings have reflected those from professional sports studies. Olson (2010) tested models for high level sponsorship effects across sports and arts sponsorships and found they worked the same way in both settings. Yet others have suggested key factors such as consumer judgement of sponsor motives may not play as important a role in professional sports sponsorships as opposed to other settings due to a level of acceptance for commercialisation of professional sports (Rifon et al., 2004). Nonetheless, this notion, along with many other sponsorship concepts, lacks full understanding due to the paucity of studies conducted in other sponsorship settings.

In contrast to large scale professional sports settings, to date there has been only a small number of studies into sponsorship of grassroots activities. The majority of these have focused on sponsor objectives (Mack, 1999) and sponsor recognition (Miloch and Lambrecht, 2006). Day (2010) conceptually outlined the potential value of sponsorship of grassroots activities in relation to community relations outcomes. A more recent study by Quester et al. (2013) of a CSR and local sporting context focused on factors such as

the level of perceived sponsor/activity fit and image transfer that had previously been established as relevant in the broader sponsorship literature. A limitation noted by Quester et al. (2013) was their study investigated only one community-based sporting club. Their recommendation to extend research into various types of grassroots sports, sponsors and scenarios was taken up for this research.

In summary, this section explored three key knowledge gaps identified in the literature to provide justification and a basis for this research. Development of the theoretical framework for this research is discussed next.

2.4 DEVELOPMENT OF THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this section a theoretical framework for exploring the impact of sponsorship of grassroots activities on sponsor CBBE is developed based on the CBBE framework conceptualised by Keller (1993). To begin with, an overview of CBBE is provided, then factors involved in sponsorship as a brand building tool are discussed, then consumer knowledge effects from sponsorship are discussed and added to the framework. Following this, the literature review was extended to explore adaptations of the CBBE framework in both general marketing (Pappu et al., 2005) and CSR applications (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002) to establish relevant CBBE outcomes for the context of sponsorship of grassroots activities. Finally, the theoretical framework for this research is completed using these adaptations.

2.4.1 CBBE OVERVIEW

The broader concept of brand equity was developed in the mid to late 20th Century to evaluate the productivity of marketing spend (Aaker, 1991) and definitions and application of brand equity have been evolving since. Having strong brand equity is viewed as being financially beneficial to an organisation as a source of potential long-term future revenue (Keller, 1993; Netemeyer et al., 2004). In competitive and dynamic markets, brand equity provides competitive advantage (Kapferer, 2004) and it has now become integral to marketing research (Severi and Ling, 2013). Nonetheless, the sponsorship literature shows it has had fragmented application within the sponsorship industry (Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013; Newton, 2013).

Different streams of brand equity research and application have evolved and two key perspectives have emerged. First, the company's view of the commercial value of

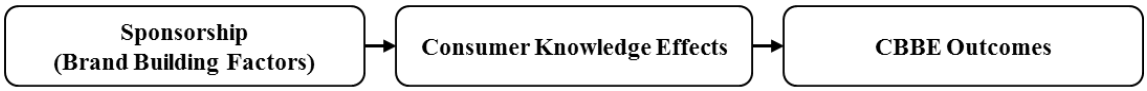
their brand and second, a consumer's judgements of the brand's value to themselves (Krishnan, 1996; Abratt and Bick, 2003). However, most conceptualisations of brand equity are based on three components: 1) value, 2) consumer perceptions, and 3) brand elements. That is, the value derived from consumer perceptions of the brand elements of a particular product or service, rather than from the product or service itself (Wood, 2000; Keller, 2003; Kapferer, 2012).

Keller (1993), provided CBBE as a seminal conceptualisation of brand equity based on a consumer behaviour perspective and CBBE has subsequently become prominent in marketing research (Netemeyer et al., 2004; Pappu et al., 2005; Severi and Ling, 2013). CBBE is a psychological and memory-based view that sees brand equity as a set of knowledge and beliefs that exist in the minds of consumers (Keller, 1993). It defines how a brand is perceived by consumers (Keller, 1993; Pappu et al., 2005). From this, a set of constructs has emerged by which the results of marketing activities can be measured.

In the CBBE framework Keller (1993) positions marketing and communications activities as brand building tools that result in consumer knowledge effects which can be measured as CBBE outcomes. CBBE was advocated as providing *'an ideal framework'* for understanding sponsorship effects and outcomes by Cornwell and Maignan (1998, p. 17). As this research was concerned with consumer perceptions and judgments of sponsorship of grassroots activities, the CBBE framework was adopted.

The seminal model for building CBBE (Figure 2.2) is used as a starting point for development of a theoretical framework for this research. Using this model, sponsorship was positioned as a brand building tool with resultant consumer knowledge effects antecedent to CBBE outcomes. Factors related to sponsorship as a brand building tool are discussed next.

Figure 2.2 CBBE framework for sponsorship

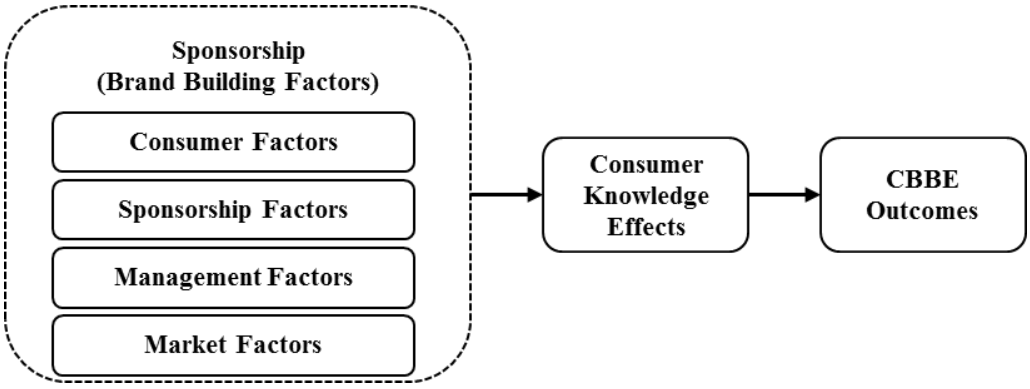


Source: adapted from Keller (1993)

2.4.2 SPONSORSHIP RELATED FACTORS

Having established a definition and positioning of sponsorship as a brand building tool, the literature regarding related factors was explored. A seminal conceptualisation of the sponsorship hierarchy of effects was provided by Meenaghan (2001). In that study, the factors of sponsor/activity fit and consumer involvement with the activity were identified as important influences on consumer reactions to sponsorship-linked marketing (Meenaghan, 2001). Theoretical understanding of the sponsorship hierarchy of effects was extended by Cornwell et al. (2005) who grouped the influencing factors into consumer, sponsorship, management and market factors. Hence, the theoretical framework for this research draws on Meenaghan (2001) and Cornwell et al. (2005) with the factors identified for sponsorship's effectiveness as a brand building tool shown as antecedent influences on consumer knowledge effects within the CBBE framework (Figure 2.3).

Figure 2.3 Sponsorship CBBE framework with sponsorship related factors



Source: adapted from the extant literature

These factors have been explored in a number of studies with a number of sub-factors identified. Following is a discussion for the four factor groups.

Consumer Factors

Given the literature predominantly views sponsorship from a consumer perspective, it is relevant to begin with consumer-related factors that influence sponsorship outcomes. When a consumer participates in a sponsored activity it is likely they will be exposed to the related sponsorship-linked marketing. Yet, Chester (2007) in a study of Australian sporting events, found exposure to sponsorship alone was not particularly important in shaping a consumer's response. The literature identifies three further factors as being influential. These are: 1) consumer activity involvement; 2) the

social alliance between consumers; and 3) a consumer's previous experience and knowledge of a sponsor. These three factors will be discussed in turn.

A consumer's activity involvement is described as '*the extent that consumers identify with, and are motivated by their engagement and affiliation with a sponsored activity*' (Meenaghan, 2001, p. 106). It is posited that highly involved consumers are more likely to exhibit the outcomes of recognition, enhanced perceptions and patronage of, and satisfaction with, a sponsor (Gwinner and Swanson, 2003). A number of studies in sporting settings have supported this hypothesis.

To illustrate, Bibby (2009) in researching the Adidas sponsorship of the New Zealand All Blacks found that, despite the team only coming third in the 2003 World Cup, the brand perception that '*Adidas is a brand for winners*' held steady amongst All Black fans along with an increased likelihood for them to purchase Adidas apparel. Alexandris and Tsiotsou (2012), in researching consumers at college basketball in the USA, found team attachment had both a direct and indirect relationship with behavioural intentions through its influence on sponsor image and the consumers' attitudes toward the sponsorships. While Quester and Thompson (2001), in a similar sense, found that involved arts audiences are 'grateful' for the role sponsors play in enabling activities they are involved in and are therefore more likely to return patronage to the sponsor.

Alternatively, Rowley and Williams (2008) found highly involved consumers at British music festivals did not retain long term loyalty to the alcohol brands that had exclusive supplier rights to those events. In fact, over-commercialisation of activities by sponsors has been found in some cases to negatively impact consumer perceptions as it is deemed intrusive and spoils the experience for highly involved consumers (Meenaghan, 1999; Carrillat and d'Astous, 2009). These alternate findings show high levels of consumer activity involvement are not the sole driver of positive sponsorship outcomes.

Social alliance theory suggests pre-existing and strong alliances within consumer groups is what provides the cognitive path for image and goodwill transfer to sponsors who associate themselves with that group (Madrigal, 2001; Cornwell, 2008). That is, sponsors can access goodwill within an involved group, such as a sporting team's fan base, through association with their team. It is also suggested that higher levels of bonding and consumer excitement at sponsored activities lowers consumers' cognitive

defence mechanisms thereby increasing the potential for marketing messages to succeed (Meenaghan, 2001; Geldard and Sinclair, 2005; Bibby, 2009). Additionally, a recent study by Grohs et al. (2015) found negative perceptions of a rival team negatively affect perceptions of its sponsors. From these studies, a consumer's social alliance and activity involvement appear to be closely interrelated and can result in both positive and negative effects.

The nature of grassroots activities, where there is high involvement of volunteers and strong community alliances (Mack, 1999; Day, 2010), suggests these factors would generate positive consumer responses. The use of sponsorship of grassroots activities for community relations objectives is observed in the literature (Dolphin, 2003; Cornwell, 2008). Yet, a lack of studies into outcomes from the sponsorship of grassroots activities provides scope to investigate the level of influence, either positive or negative, these factors have.

Finally, studies by Speed and Thompson (2000), Gwinner and Swanson (2003), Roy and Cornwell (2003) and Grohs and Reisinger (2014) show that a consumer's previous knowledge and beliefs about the sponsor are part of the consumer cognitive processing leading to judgements of the sponsorship scenario. For highly involved consumers, sponsorship may reinforce or enhance their previous perceptions of a sponsor.

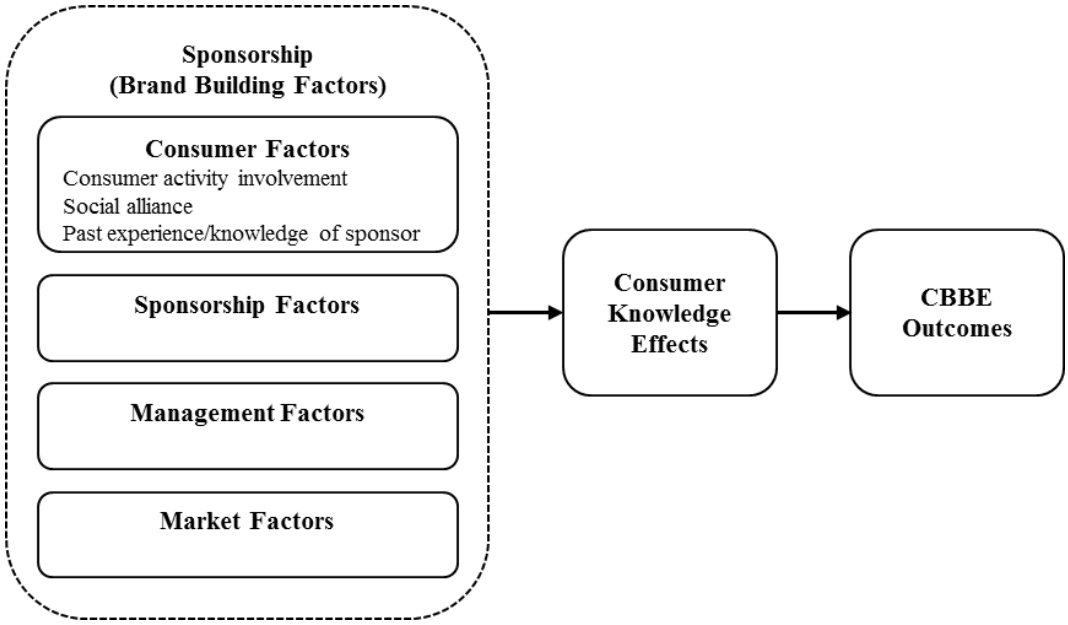
However, given the peripheral nature of sponsorship and sponsorship-linked marketing, these findings also have relevance when considering consumers who experience sponsor messages outside of an activity and in low, or no, involvement situations. For instance, a sponsor's logo may be observed within post activity media coverage, or when consumers wear a team jersey to other social functions. In all such circumstances, it has been shown that a consumer's previous knowledge of the sponsor influences their judgements of sponsor motivation and other factors such as perceived fit between the sponsor and sponsored activity.

With sponsorship of grassroots activities it is observed that sponsors are often smaller local businesses (Mack, 1999). As such, consumers may have no prior experience of the sponsor and their judgements are being formed as opposed to affirmed or re-aligned. Alternatively, when large well known corporations sponsor grassroots activities, a consumer's beliefs about that sponsor would intuitively form part of their

judgement of the sponsor's involvement. Currently the literature provides no evidence of the level of influence these factors have when grassroots activities are sponsored. Although a community health study by Pettigrew et al. (2012) showing consumers have a negative view of fast food companies' sponsorship of community events suggests judgements of sponsor motives are important.

Therefore, it is clear from the literature that consumer related factors are critical to positive sponsorship outcomes. As such the three consumer factors identified from the literature were added to the theoretical framework in Figure 2.4.

Figure 2.4 Sponsorship CBBE framework with consumer factors



Source: adapted from the extant literature

Sponsorship Factors

Along with the consumer factors discussed previously, a range of sponsorship factors can influence the cognitive processing of sponsorship-linked marketing by consumers. These factors include 1) the status of the sponsored activity, 2) the consumer experience of the activity, and 3) the perceived fit between sponsor and activity. These factors are discussed in turn.

Other factors directly related to the sponsorship are also critical. As such they are discussed next.

Status of sponsored activities

First, the image or status of sponsored activities and the experience for consumers at those activities are interrelated and are also an extension to the consumer factor of activity involvement (Gwinner, 1997; Meenaghan, 2001). Activity status initially relates to the public profile of a sponsored activity (Crimmins and Horn, 1996). For example, the Olympics have an international status whereas an amateur theatre production would have a more localised community profile. An activity with international status will likely raise more awareness of a sponsorship due simply to the volume of consumer reach. Yet, an amateur theatre production would have far less reach but could have higher affective relevance for its consumers.

Consumer experience

In examining consumer responses to a range of sponsorship scenarios, Speed and Thompson (2000) found a personal liking for an activity and its perceived status to be significant in predicting consumer interest and favour for a sponsor's product. Similarly, Gwinner and Swanson (2003, p. 286), using social alliance theory to examine consumer identification within an American college football study found *'team identification'* can be predicted by *'perceived prestige of, and association with, the university and team'*.

As was found with consumer activity involvement, there are conflicting findings within the literature on the relative importance of a sponsored activity's status. By way of illustration, a broad study of consumer response to sponsorships of Australian Football and the Australian Tennis Open by Chester (2007) showed the status of these activities had limited bearing on consumer responses. Chester questions the validity of sponsoring such major activities '*for the sake of it, as some large organisations appear to do*' (Chester, 2007, p. 184).

These conflicting findings from the literature suggest that, although the status and relative importance of an activity to a consumer appear to influence their response to sponsorship, other factors may have greater influence. Hence, consideration of the consumer experience at an activity has importance.

The literature supports the ability of sponsorship to promote goodwill by drawing on the high levels of excitement and entertainment for consumers at sponsored activities (Speed and Thompson, 2000; Cahill and Meenaghan, 2013). Yet sponsorship has also

been shown to produce negative effects when it has detracted from the activity experience through over-commercialisation (Meenaghan, 1999; Carrillat and d'Astous, 2009). This leads to the question of how a sponsor's role in an activity is perceived or judged by the consumer. Hence, the third sponsorship factor that has received considerable attention in the literature is the consumer's judgement of sponsor/activity fit (Fleck and Quester, 2007; Olson, 2010; Close and Lacey, 2013).

Perceived fit between sponsor and activity

The notion of fit between a sponsor and the sponsored activity is posited to facilitate an understanding and acceptance of message delivery by justifying the sponsor's presence (Gwinner, 1997; Meenaghan, 2001; Masterman, 2007). A lack of perceived fit can lead to consumers being suspicious of sponsor motives. This has particular relevance for companies wishing to engage in sponsorship to achieve reputational outcomes (Rifon et al., 2004).

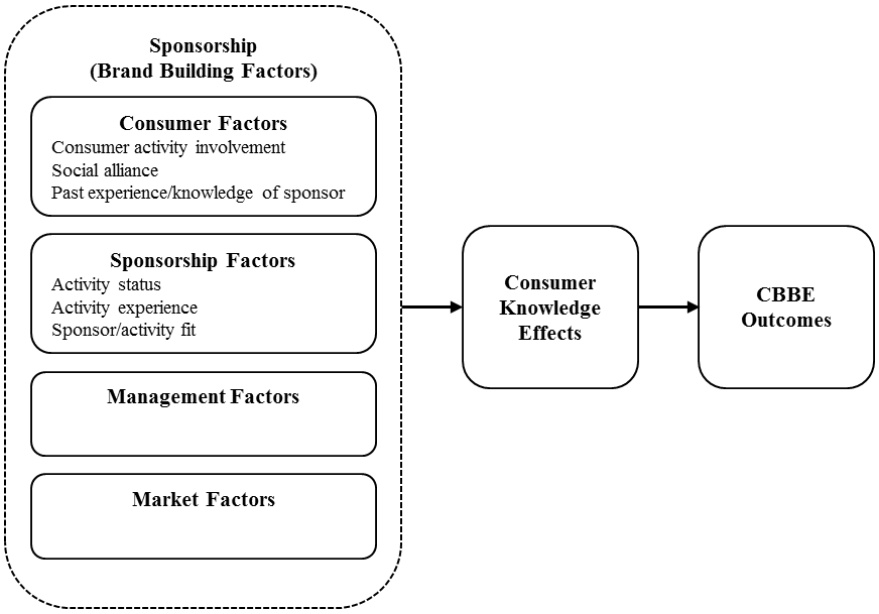
Positing that fit arises from two distinct sources, expectancy and relevancy, Fleck and Quester (2007) developed and tested a scale for evaluating fit in sponsorships. Their findings indicate, whilst obvious fit would seem advantageous and an apparent disconnect seem detrimental, a sponsorship that requires a moderate level of relevance processing is most effective at generating awareness and stimulating a positive affective response (Fleck and Quester, 2007). Based on attribution and balance theory, this is due in part to the need for the consumer to understand the relevance and meaning behind the sponsor's presence and to balance this with their previous perceptions of both parties (Fleck and Quester, 2007).

A study by Close and Lacey (2013) of responses to sponsorship of an international cycling event showed perceptions of fit influenced attendees' attitudes to the sponsors but had no impact on attitudes to that event. Whereas, Chester (2007) found differences in the impact of fit across the varied scenarios of an alcohol brand sponsoring football versus a cosmetic brand sponsoring the Australian Tennis Open. Alcohol brands have a long history of sport sponsorship in Australia and may therefore be perceived as a relevant fit. Yet this was found not to be the case in the study by Chester (2007), where the cosmetic brand pairing with the Australian Tennis Open was found to have stronger and more positive effects for the sponsor than the alcohol brand sponsoring football. So, while there is support for the importance of fit as a mediating factor in sponsorship

effectiveness, the sponsorship scenario is also a relevant consideration for consumer processing of sponsor and activity pairings.

In summary, there are three key sponsorship factors identified from the literature that may mediate consumer knowledge effects. These are added to the theoretical framework in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5 Sponsorship CBBE framework with sponsorship factors



Source: adapted from the extant literature

Sponsorship-linked marketing is generally peripheral to the activity and as such the consumer and sponsorship related factors looked at so far are somewhat beyond the control of the sponsor. Nonetheless, they lead to cognitive elaboration and consumer judgements of a sponsor's presence and motives (Pappu and Cornwell, 2014). Therefore, a sponsor needs to be conscious of the impact of factors it has control over. As such management factors are discussed next.

Management Factors

Along with the consumer and sponsorship factors discussed previously, three management factors relating directly to the actions of sponsors may also influence sponsorship effects.

These are:1) a sponsor's policy; 2) the style and ubiquity of their sponsorship-linked marketing; and 3) the sponsor's motivation. These factors are discussed next.

Sponsor's policy

First, a company's sponsorship policy guides the why, what and how of a company's sponsorship practices and therefore the discussion of management factors begins with policy (Cunningham et al., 2009). Sponsorship policy is important because the subsequent sponsorship-linked marketing is the basis on which consumers assess the sponsor's role in their enjoyment of a sponsored activity (Cunningham et al., 2009). Sponsorship policy should guide sponsorship selections, the leveraging of the opportunities presented by a sponsorship and performance measurement (Masterman, 2007; Cornwell, 2008).

In public domains, sponsorship selections are often portrayed as an indulgence by CEOs or senior executives to pursue personal interests and hobbies (Andrews, 2012). While this may sometimes be the case, the motive of executive personal interest is widely regarded in contemporary practice as being unjustifiable from a corporate governance perspective (Crimmins and Horn, 1996; Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013; Johnston and Paulsen, 2014). Sponsorship selection may be based upon rankings and weightings prescribed for selection criteria articulated in a sponsorship policy and aligned to strategic priorities and target audiences (Johnston and Paulsen, 2014). Selection criteria generally focus on marketing, sales and brand building related objectives (Masterman, 2007; Meenaghan, 2013) with perceived fit between sponsor, sponsored activity and the defined target markets of both the sponsor and the activity being fundamental to strategic sponsorship selection (Close and Lacey, 2013). Given the dearth of studies into sponsorship of grassroots activities, the prevalence or rigorousness of such practice in that context is unclear.

Style and ubiquity of sponsorship-linked marketing

The second key management factor is sponsors' leveraging of sponsorship opportunities. The aim is to build awareness and justification for the sponsorship amongst consumers through sponsorship-linked marketing (Cornwell et al., 2005). By way of illustration Grohs et al. (2004) proposed that, based on classical conditioning theory and mere exposure effects, increased sponsorship-linked marketing leads to greater awareness and therefore image transfer. Their study of attendees of a World Ski Championship found that sponsors whose messages created higher recall had a more positive post-event image (Grohs et al., 2004). Similarly, Quester and Thompson's

(2001) study of the Adelaide Arts Festival found the sponsor who invested most in sponsorship-linked marketing achieved the highest levels of awareness and image transfer whereas a sponsor who made no further investment beyond the cost of the sponsorship received no such benefits.

However, the amount and characteristics of sponsorship-linked marketing activities have also been found to influence consumer responses in negative ways (Carrillat and d'Astous, 2009; Grohs and Reisinger, 2014). Intrusiveness, over-commercialisation and even exploitation were found by Carrillat and d'Astous (2009) to detract from the experience of an activity and make consumers suspicious of the sponsor's motivation and question their sincerity. Situations such as these undermine the central tenet of sponsorship whereby the sponsor is meant to play the role of a positive partner to the activity. Over-commercialisation and perceived exploitation can even result in public backlash (Holt, 2013; Alexander, 2014). Therefore, the question that remains unanswered by the literature is, how much sponsorship is too much?

Sponsor's motivation

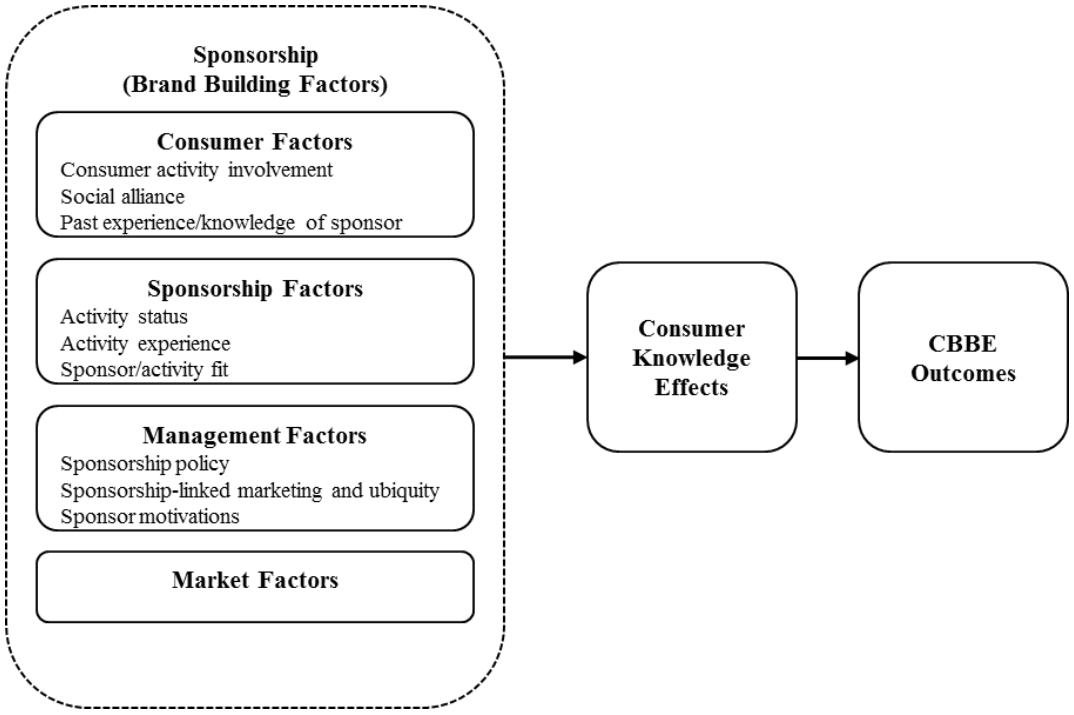
The third management factor to consider is sponsor motivations. The literature shows that a key consideration in consumer responses to sponsorship-linked marketing is their judgement of sponsor motivation or sincerity. (Rifon et al., 2004; Cornwell et al., 2005; Olson, 2010). When comparing sports and arts sponsorship scenarios, Olson (2010) found sponsor sincerity to be only slightly more significant for the arts scenario than that of sports. However, Rifon et al. (2004) questioned if consumer judgements of sponsor motivation play a more significant role in community focused sponsorship scenarios than they do in professional sports scenarios where there may be a higher acceptance of commercialisation amongst consumers. Findings by Becker-Olsen et al. (2006) showed, in a CSR sponsorship scenario, judgements of profit-driven sponsor motives significantly lessened positive consumer responses.

As a result, the literature shows variation in the impact of sponsor motivation. However, no matter what the scenario, best practice sees sponsorship-linked marketing used to enhance the consumer's experience of the sponsored activity, justify the sponsor's presence and communicate their sincerity to increase the likelihood of sponsor recall and a positive response (Speed and Thompson, 2000; Meenaghan, 2001; Carrillat and d'Astous, 2009; Cunningham et al., 2009). This has been found to be especially

relevant in cause-related sponsorship scenarios where consumers are receptive to sponsorship being offered to more needy recipients and yet are more sensitive to sponsor exploitation (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Madill and O'Reilly, 2010; Pettigrew et al., 2012).

In summary, there are three key management factors identified from the literature that may mediate sponsorship's consumer knowledge effects. These are added to the theoretical framework in Figure 2.6.

Figure 2.6 Sponsorship CBBE framework with management factors



Source: adapted from the extant literature

A sponsor's policy that drives the selection, motivation for and leveraging of sponsorship opportunities are critical factors within their control. Yet, other market factors may not be, as discussed next.

Market Factors

One of the justifications given for companies tending to use sponsorship over more traditional marketing communications tactics is the level of clutter in the marketplace (Meenaghan, 1999).

Yet, two market factors: 1) the overabundance of sponsors, and 2) the tactics of competitors who are not sponsors of an activity, can diminish the effectiveness of sponsorship. These factors are discussed in turn.

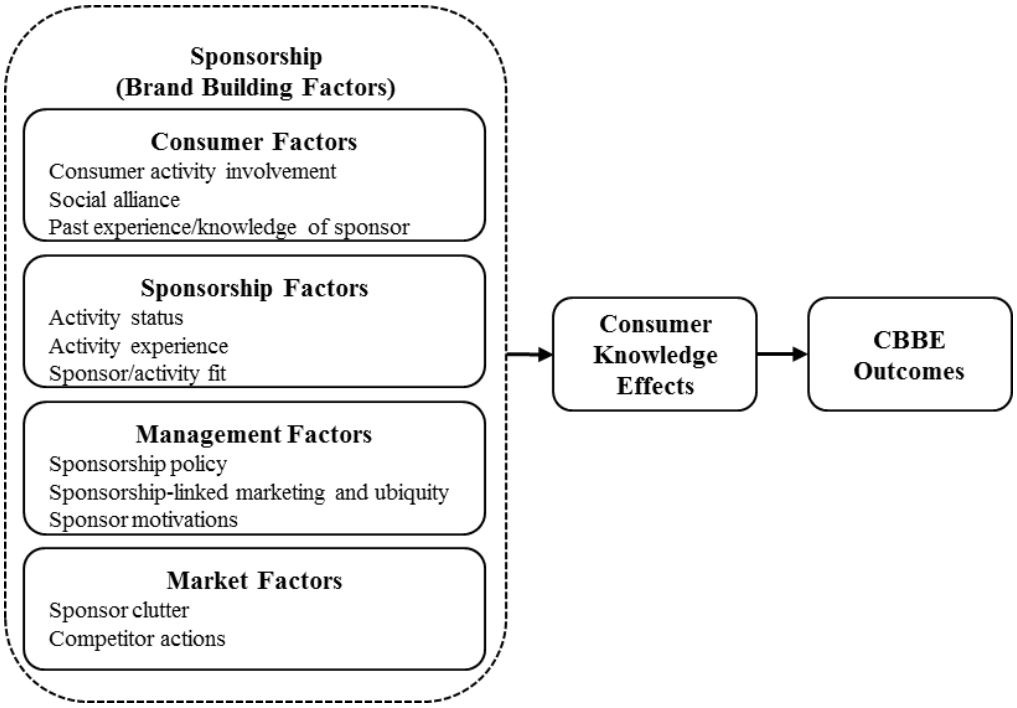
Some activities see a plethora of sponsors' logos, advertising and various promotions that not only confuse the consumer but also detract from the experience (Geldard and Sinclair, 2005; Masterman, 2007). Referred to as sponsor clutter, this can lead to perceptions of over-commercialisation and negative responses from consumers (Cornwell et al., 2005; Carrillat and d'Astous, 2009). Additionally, the presence of some sponsors (such as alcohol and gambling companies) can potentially negatively impact a consumer's experience of an activity and their responses to the sponsorship (Rowley and Williams, 2008).

Sponsor clutter, over-commercialisation and exploitation are issues that can be controlled by a rights-holder. Yet rights-holders are often motivated to accept such situations by the level of funding or promotion required for their activities. Nonetheless, sponsors can avoid these situations by choosing not to be associated with rights-holders that are not considerate of such issues. (Geldard and Sinclair, 2005; Masterman, 2007).

As with most marketing tactics, sponsorship often operates in a competitive market environment and a far more difficult factor for both the sponsor and the rights-holder to control is competitor actions. Brands may be identified by consumers as sponsors of an activity, even when they are not sponsors, simply because of their existing market presence, or previous and similar sponsorship undertakings (Cornwell, 2008). Some companies go so far as to undertake 'ambush marketing' to promote perceptions of association with an activity without actually being a sponsor (Meenaghan, 1996; Fahy et al., 2002). While rights-holders and some legislators make attempts to minimise ambush marketing (Cornwell, 2008) it is still prevalent, as seen at the 2012 Olympics (Fishburne, 2012), and beyond the control of a sponsor.

In summary, the two market factors identified from the literature have been added to the theoretical framework in Figure 2.7.

Figure 2.7 Sponsorship CBBE framework with sponsorship related factors



Source: adapted from the extant literature

While there is a degree of accord within the literature regarding the definitions and factors involved in sponsorship as a brand building tool, various studies have provided varying results on the consumer knowledge effects of these factors as discussed next.

2.4.3 CONSUMER KNOWLEDGE EFFECTS

The previous section discussed factors involved in sponsorship's use as a brand building tool. This section covers three consumer knowledge effects resulting from exposure to a sponsorship and associated sponsorship-linked marketing: 1) sponsorship recall, 2) image transfer, and 3) sponsorship-generated goodwill.

Within the emotion charged atmosphere of a sponsored activity it is believed consumer defence mechanisms that may rebuff traditional advertising are more easily breached (Meenaghan, 1999). As such, Geldard and Sinclair (2005) describe sponsorship as an opportunity to communicate *with* rather than *at* a desired target audience and sponsorship generates consumer knowledge effects beyond the initial recalling of a sponsor's presence (Crimmins and Horn, 1996; Jiffer, 1999; Meenaghan, 2001). These knowledge effects, resulting from a consumer's cognitive processing of the sponsorship messages and their emotional involvement with the activity, are

affective in nature and include the transfer of image attributes and generation of positive sentiments towards the sponsor. Referred to as a halo of goodwill, these knowledge effects in turn influence future consumer responses toward the sponsor's brand (Cornwell, 1995; Crimmins and Horn, 1996; Gwinner, 1997; Meenaghan, 2001). Understanding these knowledge effects is important when considering the literature shows there is the possibility of both positive and negative responses from consumers (Crompton, 2014; Grohs et al., 2015).

Sponsorship recall, which results in sponsor brand awareness, was an early focus of research into sponsorship effects (Cornwell and Maignan, 1998; Walliser, 2003). Whereas image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill, as affective responses integral to the differentiation of sponsorship from other marketing tactics, became a focus for more recent academic studies (Ryan and Fahy, 2012). A review of the literature regarding these three consumer knowledge effects—sponsorship recall, image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill—follows.

Sponsorship Recall (sponsor brand awareness)

Brand awareness is described by Keller (1993) as an essential cognitive element of CBBE. It relates to brand recognition and recall, and leads to affective and behavioural consumer responses (Keller, 1993).

Sponsors use sponsorship-linked marketing to build awareness of their association with an activity as this promotes memory and learning about their brand (Cornwell and Humphreys, 2013). Therefore, sponsorship recall through brand exposure at an activity is a primary objective for most sponsors, as this acts as a measure of sponsor brand awareness. Sponsor brand awareness would be an essential element for sponsor CBBE and antecedent to the effects of image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill (Cornwell et al., 2001; Ryan and Fahy, 2012; Johnston and Paulsen, 2014). Hence, it is the primary consumer knowledge effect included in the theoretical framework.

Accordingly, much of the early research into sponsorship focused on drivers of sponsorship recall (Ryan and Fahy, 2012). There are methodological issues arising from using either free recall within the setting of a sponsored activity, or cued recall in more experimental based studies leading to a lack of reliability for results (Cornwell and Humphreys, 2013). Nevertheless, sponsorship recall remains the default metric for

sponsor brand awareness and ultimately, sponsorship performance measurement (Newton, 2013).

The apparent ease with which to measure sponsor recall, and assumptions that it inevitably leads to positive affective responses, has however, led to a dearth of more holistic measurement practice whereby practitioners stop short of measuring the affective responses (Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013). This is critical as, despite high sponsor recall, studies have found varying results for the effects of image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill (Chester, 2007; Bibby, 2009). Hence, beyond sponsor brand awareness, image transfer is discussed next.

Image Transfer

Image transfer is identified as a key affective response to sponsorship recall (Meenaghan, 2001). The literature shows image characteristics of a sponsored activity (such as passion, endurance, winning performance or greatness of a sporting team) can be transferred to a sponsor's brand through association (Madrigal, 2001; Alexandris et al., 2007). This concept is similar to the well-established advertising practice of using celebrity endorsements (Gwinner, 1997). Citing the Meaning Transfer Model, Gwinner (1997), found the perceptions a consumer has of the image and attributes of a particular event, team or individual 'rub off' on the sponsor's brand image.

Meenaghan (2001) suggests image transfer can occur from sponsorship at three levels. First, it can occur at the generic level whereby sponsorship in general is seen to be beneficial to society. Second, it can occur at the category level (i.e. sports, arts or cause-related) and third, at the individual activity level (i.e. a particular sporting team, cause or cultural event).

As discussed in Section 2.4.1, a number of factors influence image transfer including event status, sponsor/activity fit and sponsorship exposure. As an example, Grohs and Reisinger (2014) found a positive event image and high perceived fit positively influence sponsor image, although higher levels of sponsorship exposure may reduce this value due to perceived over-commercialisation.

Given the range of possible mediators for image transfer, there is an acknowledged lack of generalisability for previous studies that have primarily been conducted into large scale professional sporting activities (Olson, 2010). A further limitation of the literature is a lack of studies into image transfer in sponsorship of

grassroots activities. This is critical when considering sponsorship of grassroots activities, as it is often undertaken for the purpose of enhancing a sponsor's brand image in the community (Mack, 1999; Day, 2010). As such image transfer was further explored in the broader area of CBBE literature (Section 2.5) where enhanced brand image is identified as a CBBE outcome and key element of CBBE measurement models. Next the effect of sponsorship-generated goodwill is discussed.

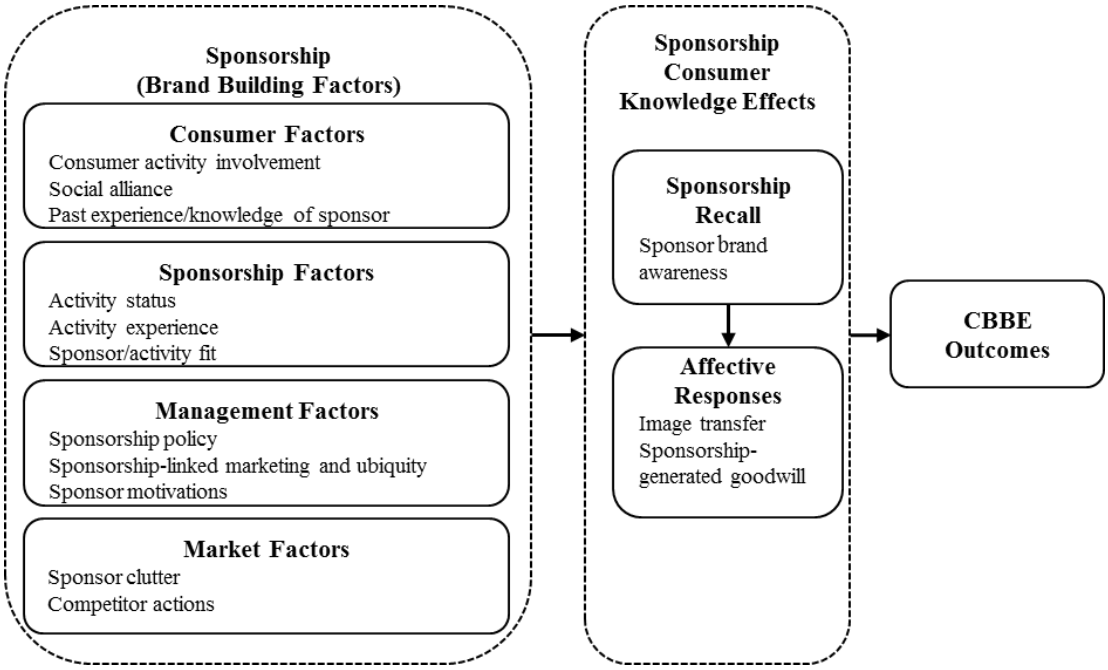
Sponsorship-Generated Goodwill

Sponsorship-generated goodwill is the concept that positive consumer sentiment towards a sponsor is generated in return for the perceived benefits from their provision of sponsorship (Meenaghan, 2001). Essentially, the consumer's perception of a sponsor as an enabler of an activity, which the consumer is positively engaged with, results in a halo of goodwill through which the consumer makes judgements about the sponsor's brand. (Fahy et al., 2002). Halo effects in consumer research are defined as "*a tendency for a consumer's perceptions of one dominant brand association to influence their other perceptions about a brand*" (Leuthesser et al., 1995). So rather than a financially quantifiable object, sponsorship-generated goodwill is a consumer's intangible affective response to sponsorship exposure.

Sponsorship-generated goodwill is a broadly accepted and researched construct at the core of sponsorship's differentiation from other forms of marketing and communications (Crimmins and Horn, 1996; Jiffer, 1999; Madrigal, 2001; Dolphin, 2003; Cornwell, 2008). As with image transfer, Meenaghan (2001) suggests goodwill can also be generated at three levels as in the generic, category and individual sponsorship levels. Similarly, sponsorship-generated goodwill has also been shown to be influenced by many of the factors identified in Section 2.4.1 and in turn influences other CBBE outcomes such as perceptions of brand image, brand associations and potentially brand loyalty (Olson, 2010; Alexandris and Tsiotsou, 2012; Grohs and Reisinger, 2014; Pappu and Cornwell, 2014).

In summary, sponsor brand awareness, image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill are consumer knowledge effects sought from sponsorship. These effects are mediated by a consumer's cognitive processing of the factors involved in sponsorship's use as a brand building tool as shown in Figure 2.8.

Figure 2.8 Sponsorship CBBE framework with consumer knowledge effects



Source: adapted from the extant literature

Having reviewed the sponsorship literature in terms of brand building factors and consumer knowledge effects, the issue of sponsorship performance measurement in terms of CBBE outcomes is considered next.

2.5 CBBE OUTCOMES

Having explored how sponsorship related factors and consumer knowledge effects are positioned in the CBBE framework (Figure 2.8), this section explores measurement models for CBBE outcomes in relation to their potential for use in measuring sponsorship outcomes. First, an overview of CBBE measurement strategies is provided. Then, as CBBE has previously been applied in CSR scenarios, the literature review was expanded to include the field of CSR. By doing so, a number of relevant examples were found of the CBBE framework being adapted for application in situations where, as in sponsorship of grassroots activities, enhanced community relations were a key objective through the generation of image transfer and goodwill (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Hoeffler and Keller, 2002; Becker-Olsen et al., 2006).

From this review a final theoretical framework was developed for this research.

2.5.1 MEASURING CBBE

CBBE is the differential outcome that brand strength has from consumer responses to the marketing of a brand (Keller, 2003). It takes time to build CBBE and the process involves using brand building tools, such as sponsorship, to generate consumer knowledge effects that result in brand related outcomes (Keller, 2003).

The performance indicators for CBBE, rather than considering an ultimate financial amount listed on a balance sheet, focus on the outcomes of the consumer knowledge effects under the assumption that brand strength leads to brand value (Srivastava and Shocker, 1991).

As such, the level of CBBE is derived from what consumers have experienced and learned about the brand over time that contributes to their knowledge, perceptions and, ultimately, behaviour regarding the brand (Keller, 2003). CBBE outcomes exist in the memory of consumers but can be tracked over time to gauge the success of ongoing marketing campaigns (Aaker, 1996).

In conceptualising CBBE, Keller (1993) used a memory-based associative network model to describe how the outcomes of a consumer's brand knowledge is comprised of two dimensions; namely: 1) brand awareness and 2) perceptions of the brand's image. Brand awareness is based on the strength of recall and recognition. Perceptions of brand image are based on the types, strength, favourability and uniqueness of brand associations a consumer attributes to the brand (Keller, 1993).

There have been numerous interpretations and revisions of the CBBE outcomes model since the conceptualisation by Keller (1993). Most notably the variations in these interpretations relate to the notion of brand associations, that is, the attributes that a consumer links or associates with the brand and that create meaning of the brand for the consumer (Pappu et al., 2005).

By way of example, Anselmsson et al. (2007) found specific brand associations related to environmental friendliness and social image, as well as quality attributes related to taste and ingredients, were relevant inclusions for the grocery product sector. Whereas Netemeyer et al. (2004), in a study focused on fast moving consumer goods, found perceptions of quality and value to be more predicative of brand-related responses than other associations of familiarity and image consistency.

What these studies show is that while different attributes of a brand often show a strong inter-relation, they can be organised within different dimensions and the order of dimensions and inter-relationships for brand associations is dependent on the study context (see Vazquez et al., 2002; Netemeyer et al., 2004; Pappu et al., 2005; Anselmsson et al., 2007; Severi and Ling, 2013).

While there is no universal model for CBBE outcomes, Pappu et al. (2005) provided a four-dimension model with brand awareness being distinct from brand associations along with perceived quality and brand loyalty. Their model was found to fit across a range of brand and marketing scenarios (Pappu et al., 2005). As such their model was adopted as a basis for the development of the CBBE outcomes measurement model for this research. The four dimensions and definitions are provided in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Pappu et al. (2005) CBBE factors

CBBE Dimension	Definition
Brand awareness	Refers to the strength of a brand's presence in a consumer's mind.
Brand associations	Made up of brand personality and organisational associations, brand associations provide the meaning of a brand for a consumer.
Perceived quality	This is the consumer's subjective evaluation of product or service quality.
Brand loyalty	The attachment that a consumer has to the brand through commitment to buy a product or a tendency to remain loyal to the brand (i.e. purchase intent and customer retention).

Source: (Pappu et al., 2005)

A limitation noted by Pappu et al. (2005) in their model was their dimension of brand associations focused only on brand personality and organisational level associations. However, this model has shown to be generalizable and has subsequently been adapted in other studies where relevant attributes have been added within the dimensions to suit the study context (see Anselmsson et al., 2007; Severi and Ling, 2013).

Keller (2003) notes consumer considerations of corporate image influence brand equity '*when the corporate brand plays a prominent role in the branding strategy adopted*' (p. 358). Such is the case in sponsorship and therefore adaption of the organisational level brand associations dimension in CBBE outcome models is appropriate for application in sponsorship studies. With sponsorship, the aim is to build brand associations as an antecedent to behavioural responses which would normally occur well after the sponsored activity. Therefore, as suggested by Cornwell et al.

(2001), sponsorship makes a greater contribution to general elements of CBBE such as brand awareness and brand associations than to a product's functional elements such as perceived quality and value for cost. In addition, elements related to judgements of trust, sincerity and credibility would also need to be considered for sponsorship (Olson, 2010; Pappu and Cornwell, 2014).

To date sponsorship studies have considered these elements as discrete variable outcomes rather than within a holistic framework. However, CBBE frameworks have been utilised in research into the consumer effects of CSR (Werther and Chandler, 2005; Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Torres et al., 2012).

Given that there are links between CSR and sponsorship, particularly with sponsorship of grassroots activities where positive local community relations are a desired outcome (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Plewa and Quester, 2011), the literature review was extended to look at how the CBBE framework has been applied in CSR.

2.5.2 CBBE AS APPLIED IN CSR

The contribution CSR can make to CBBE was confirmed by Torres et al. (2012) who found by analysing panel data from 57 international brands across a six-year period that CSR '*when visible and credible can affect customer brand metrics*' (p. 15). It is argued that CSR enhances relationships with multiple stakeholders leading to consumer loyalty, shareholder investment, supplier support and public advocacy (Maignan and Ferrell, 2004). As such, meeting CSR expectations is posited to help establish organisational credibility and contribute to CBBE (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002), even to the point of providing brand insurance against management lapses (Werther and Chandler, 2005).

The links between sponsorship and CSR, with its sub-disciplines of cause-related marketing and societal marketing, have long been established (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Plewa and Quester, 2011). The links are based on the altruistic foundations of all of these disciplines as well as shared objectives for enhancing corporate image, reputation and community relations (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Dolphin, 2003). Therefore, sponsorship of charitable causes, community events and other grassroots activities are often included in a company's sponsorship portfolios and/or CSR programs (Cornwell, 2008; Day, 2010).

The concept of CSR is based on stakeholder theory (Maignan and Ferrell, 2004; Duarte et al., 2010) and so the importance of a multi-stakeholder view of the impact of CSR on brand equity is consistently endorsed in the literature (Murray and Vogel, 1997; Maignan and Ferrell, 2001; Moura-Leite and Padgett, 2011). Keller (2003) considers corporate level CBBE, based on image and reputation, to consist of responses by multiple stakeholders and relevant constituencies to brand related activity. This suggests knowledge effects amongst the broader community as relevant constituencies, who become aware of marketing related activity, also has an effect on CBBE.

Stakeholder theory also has relevance for sponsorship. The literature shows sponsorship is a network based phenomenon operating on multiple levels (Olkkonen et al., 2000; Olkkonen and Tuominen, 2008; Ryan and Fahy, 2012). Given that enhanced community relations is a desired outcome for many sponsors (Madill and O'Reilly, 2010; Quester et al., 2013), the impact of sponsorship-linked marketing on the broader community as stakeholders is an important consideration. This is evident for example from studies highlighting community concerns around fast food sponsorship in junior sport (Pettigrew et al., 2012). Hence, measuring a sponsor's relationship with local communities would be a relevant function of a CBBE outcomes model.

In adapting the CBBE framework for a multi-stakeholder perspective inclusive of community, Hoeffler and Keller (2002) proposed that corporate societal marketing programs can help build CBBE by six means: 1) building consumer awareness, 2) enhancing brand image; 3) establishing brand credibility; 4) evoking brand feelings; 5) creating a sense of brand community; and 6) eliciting brand engagement.

Given the similarities between corporate societal marketing and sponsorship of grassroots activities (Quester et al., 2013) the CBBE outcomes model proposed by Hoeffler and Keller (2002) warranted consideration for this research. Table 2.3 shows how the six dimensions proposed by Hoeffler and Keller (2002) are aligned with the dimensions in the more general CBBE measurement model prescribed by Pappu et al. (2005).

Table 2.3 CSR dimensions aligned to CBBE dimensions

Hoeffler and Keller (2002) CSR Dimensions	Definition	Pappu et al. (2005) CBBE Dimensions
Building consumer awareness	Recognition of the brand and linking the brand to certain associations such as the CSR activity	Brand awareness
Enhancing brand image	Creating brand meaning, what it is characterised by and what it stands for in the minds of consumers	Brand associations
Establishing brand credibility	The extent to which the brand is perceived to have trustworthiness, expertise and likeability	Perceived quality
Evoked brand feelings	The extent to which the brand evokes social approval and self-respect in the minds of consumers	
Creating a sense of brand community	The level of kinship or affiliation consumers feel with other people associated with the brand	Brand loyalty
Eliciting brand engagement	The level of willingness to invest time or other resources into the brand beyond purchase and consumption (e.g. positive word-of-mouth and advocacy)	

Source: adapted from Hoeffler and Keller (2002) and Pappu et al. (2005)

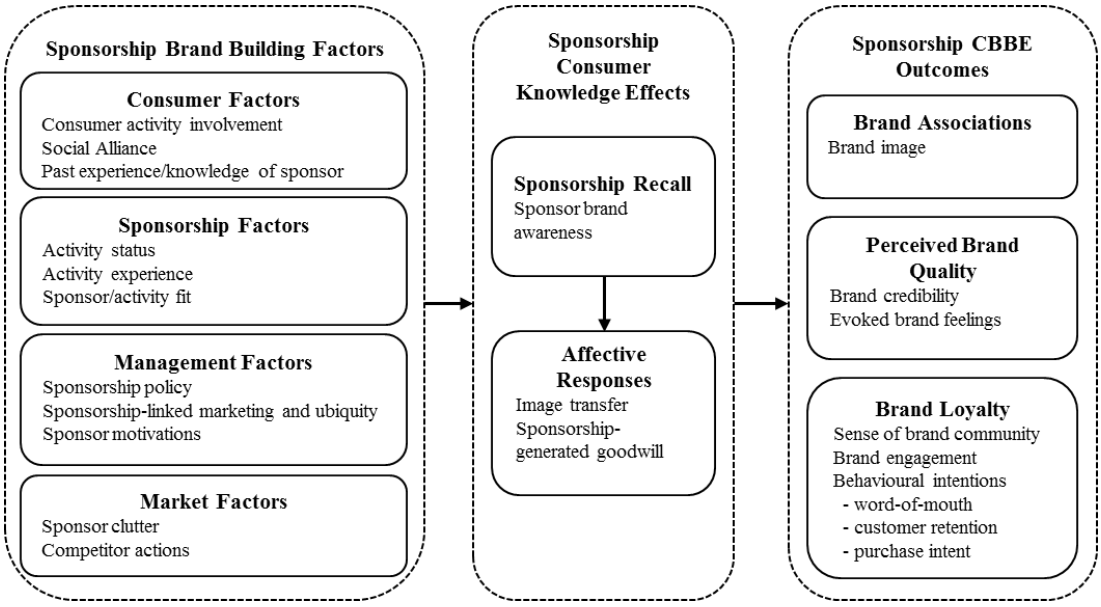
The literature from this section has shown that CSR related activity is able to generate brand equity and that the CBBE framework can be adapted as a model for measurement of CSR brand equity outcomes. Given the similarities identified between sponsorship and CSR related marketing activities, whereby such activities both have image transfer and generation of goodwill objectives as well as impacts on multiple stakeholders including local communities (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Fahy et al., 2002; Cornwell, 2008; Olson, 2010) it was considered feasible to adapt and use the CBBE framework for evaluating sponsorship of grassroots activities. Based on this, the theoretical framework is completed and discussed in the next section.

2.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR SPONSORSHIP CBBE

In this section a theoretical framework for exploring the impact sponsorship of grassroots activities has on sponsor CBBE is presented and discussed. Based on the CBBE framework conceptualised by Keller (1993) the sponsorship literature was reviewed to determine the relevant brand building factors and consumer knowledge effects involved with sponsorship of grassroots activities.

The adaptations of the CBBE framework in both general marketing (Pappu et al., 2005) and CSR related applications (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002) were examined to establish relevant CBBE outcomes. The theoretical framework is shown at Figure 2.9.

Figure 2.9 Theoretical framework for sponsorship CBBE



Source: developed for this research from the extant literature

In the theoretical framework, the sponsorship brand building factors are, as independent variables, influencing sponsorship consumer knowledge effects, the mediating variables. Consumer knowledge effects (mediators) then influence the dependent variables, being sponsorship CBBE outcomes. The theoretical framework established a basis to proceed with the three research objectives as detailed in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 Justification of theoretical framework

Research Objective		Theoretical Framework Justification
RO1: To explore companies' objectives and CBBE measurement practices for sponsorship of grassroots activities;	☑	Provided perspectives from which to explore the Stage 1a historical data analysis and for development of lines of questioning for the Stage 1b industry practitioner depth interviews.
RO2: To explore consumer perceptions of companies' sponsorship of grassroots activities.	☑	Provided a basis for development of lines of questioning for the Stage 1c exploratory studies with consumers.
RO3: To develop a model of consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the subsequent impact on sponsor CBBE.	☑	Provided a framework of factors and constructs for the adaption or development of measurement scales to be used in the proposed Stage 2 main study.

In summary, the theoretical framework was developed from relevant sponsorship, CBBE and CSR literature. It provided a sound theoretical basis from which the proposed mixed method research could be undertaken.

2.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented a review of the relevant literature for this research. The immediate disciplines of sponsorship and CBBE were explored along with reference to CSR. While there has been growth over recent decades in the use of sponsorship as an IMC tool, and similar growth in sponsorship research, three key gaps were identified from the sponsorship literature. These were: 1) a lack of consistency in measurement of sponsorship effects and CBBE outcomes, 2) a limited understanding of negative consumer responses to sponsorship, and 3) a lack of research into sponsorship of grassroots activities, particularly in Australia.

CBBE was found to be a relevant basis for, and was used for, the development of the theoretical framework that formed the foundation for this research.

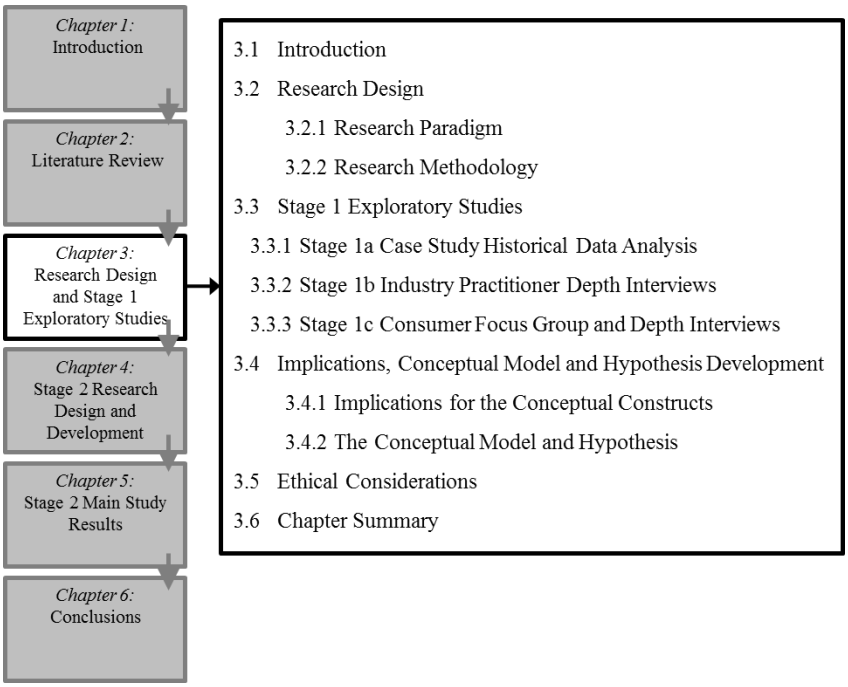
The next chapter provides justification for the research methodology and findings from the Stage 1 exploratory studies leading to development of the conceptual model for the Stage 2 main study.

3. Research Design and Stage 1 Exploratory Studies

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 provided a review of literature of the parent and immediate disciplines of this research, guiding the development of a theoretical framework and research objectives. This chapter justifies the research design and details the exploratory studies of the research leading to development of a conceptual model. Accordingly, this chapter is organised into six sections as shown in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1 Outline of Chapter 3



Source: developed for this research

The chapter begins with a brief introduction (3.1). The research design is presented in Section 3.2 with details and results of the Stage 1 exploratory studies presented in Section 3.3. Section 3.4 discusses development of the conceptual model and hypotheses. Ethical considerations for the research program are discussed in Section 3.5 with a conclusion presented in Section 3.6

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

This research used a mixed method approach consisting of two stages – Stage 1 comprised exploratory studies that informed the quantitative Stage 2 main study detailed in Chapters 4 and 5. Stage 1 addressed the research objectives as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Justification for Stage 1exploratory studies

Research Objective		Stage 1 Exploratory Studies Justification
RO1: To explore companies' objectives and CBBE measurement practices for sponsorship of grassroots activities.	☑	Investigated real-world examples of sponsorship practice.
RO2: To explore consumer perceptions of companies' sponsorship of grassroots activities.	☑	Identified and investigated emerging themes for how consumers consider and respond to sponsorship experiences.
RO3: To develop a model of consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the subsequent impact on sponsor CBBE.	☑	Provided key insights for development of the conceptual model.

The aim of the Stage 1 exploratory studies was to investigate real-world examples of sponsorship practice and consumer perceptions of sponsorship practice. Findings from the exploratory studies informed the development of conceptual model tested in the Stage 2 main study. Next the research paradigm is discussed.

3.2.1 RESEARCH PARADIGM

This section compares the four key research paradigms in order to justify the post-positivist paradigm adopted for this research. The post-positivist paradigm was determined to be appropriate given the nature and objectives of this research.

Determining the research paradigm for particular categories of research is clarified through an understanding of the philosophical issues within research (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). A paradigm expresses how the world should be viewed and understood (Crotty, 1998) and clarity of paradigm is crucial to the business of inquiry (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Within the social sciences four main paradigms are used to guide research. The paradigms are positivism, critical theory, constructivism and post-positivism (or critical realism) (Crotty, 1998; Guba and Lincoln, 2005). These paradigms involve three central assumptions: 1) *ontology* - systematic accounts of existence; 2) *epistemology* – ways of understanding and explaining how we know; and 3) *methodology* – research methods and approaches (Crotty, 1998; Guba and Lincoln, 2005). A comparison of these paradigms in relation to this research is provided in Table 3.2 (p. 47).

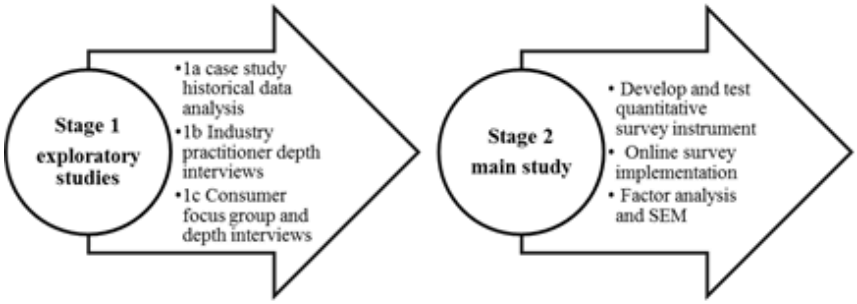
Although it is argued that there is some convergence occurring amongst the paradigms (Guba and Lincoln, 2005; Creswell and Clark, 2011), this research was undertaken within the post-positivist paradigm. It was characterised by researcher objectivity and allowed the researcher relative flexibility in data collection methods (Healy and Perry, 2000). Given that post-positivism can comprise both qualitative techniques and quantitative survey methods within a single study, it was the most appropriate paradigm for this research which employed mixed methods.

Post-positivism suggests that reality does exist but due to the complexity of the world and the limitations of the human mind, reality cannot be grasped concretely. As a result the one reality is modelled for others to review from their perception (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The post-positivist perspective asserts that individuals form their own relationships with the world that surrounds them and that these individuals create their own perceptions of a single reality (Guba and Lincoln, 2005). This study explored individuals' relationships with, and perceptions of, sponsorships. Next the research methodology is described.

3.2.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Having selected post-positivism as the paradigm from which to undertake this research, the multistage methodology employed is now justified. The research was conducted in two stages as shown in Figure 3.2. The Stage 1 exploratory studies included: Stage 1a case study historical data analysis; Stage 1b industry practitioner depth interviews and Stage 1c consumer focus group and depth interviews. The Stage 2 main study, involved an online survey for conclusive research (see Chapters 4 and 5).

Figure 3.2 Research methodology



Source: developed for this research

Table 3.2 Alternative research paradigms and assumptions of the research

	Positivism	Critical Theory	Constructivism	Post-Positivism	This Research:
Ontology	*Naïve realism*: Reality is real and apprehensible.	*Historical realism:* Reality is shaped by a number of forces; the views of the researcher are emancipated.	*Relativism:* Multiple realities constructed by the individuals and the researcher.	*Critical realism*: Reality is 'real' but imperfectly apprehensible.	*- attempted to understand a complex, real-world situation where sponsorship is used to influence consumer perceptions.*
Epistemology nature of reality	*Objective:* Natural and governed by universal law; interpreted in same way by all as true findings are gathered through a disinterested researcher.	*Subjective:* Created by people rather than by nature; values mediated findings.	*Subjective:* Socially constructed rather than found; interpreted differently by different people as passionate respondents create the findings.	*Modified objective:* Independent reality and influence of researcher; researcher has some participation in interpreting but some objectivity is maintained.	*- aimed for objectivity, although absolute objectivity is unachievable.*
Methodology	*Surveys and experiments:* Focus is on quantitative testing.	*Dialogical:* Researcher is transformative using action research.	*Hermeneutical:* Researcher is a passionate participant using action research and depth structured interviews.	*Mixed:* May involve case studies, convergent interviews, triangulation, qualitative and quantitative research.	*- required collection of depth situational information from various viewpoints and qualitative, quantitative cross-sectional and longitudinal data.*

Source: Adapted from Easterby-Smith et al. (2008); Guba and Lincoln (2005); Healy and Perry (2000), and Orlikowski and Baroudi (1991).

The choice of mixed methods for this research allowed for the triangulation of data to facilitate validity (Hair et al., 2003; Creswell and Clark, 2011). This strategy ensured rigour to the research and depth to the findings (Zikmund et al., 2013). Next the Stage 1 exploratory studies are detailed.

3.3 STAGE 1 EXPLORATORY STUDIES

Exploratory research is used to generate preliminary insights that help to clarify the research question, enhance research familiarity and identify further research issues (Churchill, 1996; Hair et al., 2003). Exploratory research was required for this study to explore gaps in knowledge of how perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities by Australian consumers impacts sponsor CBBE.

The Stage 1 exploratory studies comprised three studies. These studies allowed the researcher to explore specific topics required for development of the conceptual model and Stage 2 main study. The three exploratory studies will be discussed in turn with the Stage 1a case study historical data analysis next.

3.3.1 STAGE 1A CASE STUDY HISTORICAL DATA ANALYSIS

For the purpose of this study secondary data provided by a large Australian company that employed sponsorship as a lead marketing tactic was analysed. The data provided were drawn from a longitudinal brand-tracking survey conducted over a six-year period (2005–2010) to monitor the company's marketing programs. A company representative responsible for the research was also interviewed by phone and responded by email to further questions posed by the researcher.

Historical analysis of secondary data is a cost effective method for the initial evaluation of concepts that can later be tested through primary research (Yin, 2003; Feinberg et al., 2008). The data was analysed for exploration of the research objectives as shown in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Justification of Stage 1a case study historical data analysis

Research Objective		Stage 1a Justification
RO1: To explore companies' sponsorship objectives and CBBE measurement practices for grassroots activities.	☑	Provided a real-world example of sponsor practice in regards to sponsorship evaluation for impact brand equity.
RO2: To explore consumer perceptions of companies' sponsorship of grassroots activities.	☑	Identified consumer responses to various sponsorships contained in a company's sponsorship portfolio.
RO3: To develop a model of consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the subsequent impact on sponsor CBBE.	☑	Compared the impact the company's sponsorships of grassroots activities had on company brand attributes with its other sponsorship examples.

Stage 1a: Background

The company was a government owned non-competitive supplier of electricity to approximately 700,000 consumers spread over a large area of regional Australia. Six sponsorships undertaken by the company during the six-year period were included in the study and provided a range of sponsorship types. The sponsorships cannot be identified due to commercial confidentiality but the study group comprised two sponsorships of professional sports properties and four of grassroots properties.

Table 3.4 provides codes for these sponsorships to identify them throughout this study. The four grassroots properties were a mix of two community-based sports and two cause-related properties.

Table 3.4 Coding of sponsorships in the study data

Sponsorship Type	Code
Professional sport	PS1
Professional sport	PS2
Community based sport	CBS1
Community based sport	CBS2
Cause-related activity (Environment)	CRA1
Cause-related activity (Community health)	CRA2

The brand-tracking program, carried out by a commercial research organisation, was a quantitative study consisting of 60 weekly telephone interviews conducted across the company's market region. Over 15,500 interviews were conducted during the study period. Respondents were sourced from the company's customer base and had to be >18 years of age and be solely or jointly responsible for payment of their household's utility bills (i.e. electricity, telephone, gas, water).

During the interviews, recall levels of the company's advertising, marketing and communications activity (including sponsorships) were ascertained along with respondents' perceptions of brand attributes. Those perceptions were measured using scales based from 0 (strongly disagree) to 10 (strongly agree). Using this data, comparisons could be made between the responses of those who could recall, and those who could not recall, the company's sponsorships. The difference in the ratings was attributed as the level of goodwill generated by a sponsorship. The five brand attributes provided for analysis in this study are shown in Table 3.5. Each variable was designed to measure consumer-focused brand attributes that the company considered to be

strategic priorities based on qualitative research they had conducted into their customers' expectations in the year prior to this study period.

Table 3.5 Brand attribute variables utilised from the study data

Brand attribute	Variable wording
Trustworthiness	'The company is a trustworthy organisation'
Sense of community	'The company is an active participant in the local community'
Innovation	'The company is an innovative organisation'
Safety	'The company places safety first'
Customer service	'The company is committed to customer service'

Stage 1a: Analysis

The data was analysed in two stages using Microsoft Excel. The six sponsorships were compared based on: 1) levels of consumer recall of each sponsorship (expressed as a percentage of the total sample) and 2) impact of recall on the five brand attributes (expressed as the sponsorship-generated goodwill difference in ratings from those who could recall versus those who could not recall the sponsorship).

The company data were provided as annual means of both sponsorship recall for each of the six sponsorships and the impact that recall had against each of the five brand attribute variables. To calculate mean sponsorship recall figures for each of the six sponsorships, the annual means were added together and divided by the number of years (six). To calculate an overall sponsorship-generated goodwill measure for each of the sponsorships, the impact results for the five brand attribute variables were added together and divided by five, thus providing a composite score.

Findings from analysis of the study data are reported next.

Stage 1a: Findings

This section provides a summary of key findings from the analysis of the historical data that are relevant to the research objectives. Each research objective is discussed individually.

RO1: *To explore companies' objectives and CBBE measurement practices for sponsorship of grassroots activities.*

The company representative indicated the company had two primary objectives for its sponsorship program: 1) to increase brand awareness and 2) to enhance image

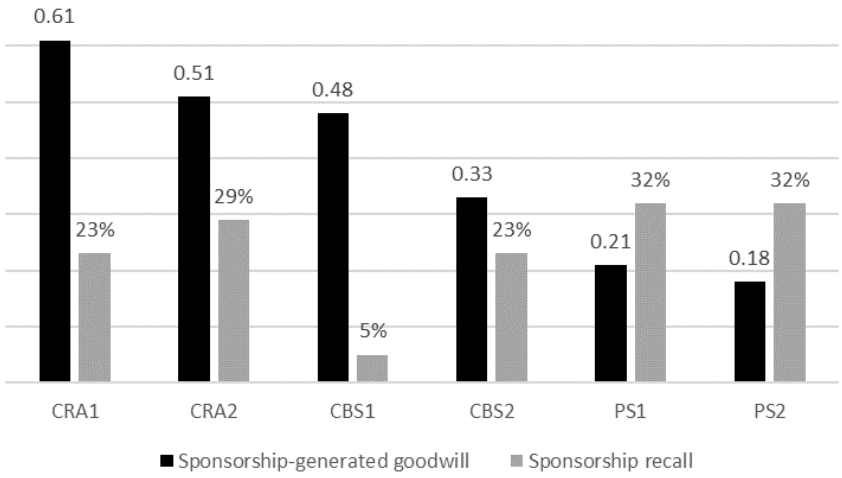
and reputation. This finding supports the literature and aligns with the theoretical framework of this research where sponsorship is considered a versatile brand building tool (see Meenaghan, 2001; Cornwell, 2008).

It is evident the company went to some length to monitor the performance of its sponsorships. Therefore, against an industry backdrop where it is claimed some 30% of companies do not actively measure sponsorship performance (Cahill and Meenaghan, 2013), this case study provides a pertinent subject. The study shows a company's sponsorship outcomes can be measured through consumer research.

RO2: *To explore consumer perceptions of companies' sponsorship of grassroots activities.*

While sponsorship awareness is prerequisite to generating sponsorship effects (Cornwell et al., 2005; Grohs and Reisinger, 2014), it is the level of sponsorship-generated goodwill that would ultimately translate to CBBE outcomes for a sponsor (Cornwell and Humphreys, 2013). Figure 3.3 illustrates the differences in performance of the company's sponsorships based on sponsorship recall and sponsorship-generated goodwill.

Figure 3.3 Sponsorship-generated goodwill and sponsorship recall levels



Source: developed for this research

In terms of sponsorship recall, the two professional sport sponsorships (PS1 and PS2) achieved the highest levels. This is consistent with the literature where higher levels of recall are attributed to the greater extent of media coverage that professional sports enjoy in comparison to other sponsorship properties (Ryan and Fahy, 2012; Cahill and Meenaghan, 2013). However, CRA2 also achieved high sponsorship recall which

in this case is attributed to high levels of company initiated promotion of their association with that cause-related sponsorship.

In terms of impact on the company's brand attributes, the data show that all of the sponsorships had a positive effect across all five of the brand attributes thereby providing support for the assumption that sponsorship generates goodwill for a sponsor (Meenaghan, 2001). Yet, in contrast to the levels of sponsorship recall, Figure 3.3 shows that the level of sponsorship-generated goodwill was highest for the grassroots sponsorships and lowest for the professional sports sponsorships.

These findings align with the literature suggesting community relations oriented sponsorships are more effective at generating goodwill for a sponsor when provided to sponsorship rights-holders who are perceived as *'more needy'* than commercially oriented sponsorships such as professional sport (Olson, 2010, p. 195). The results also support the proposition that sponsorships, through generating goodwill, provide a positive halo effect across brand associations resulting in enhanced image and reputation (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Hoeffler and Keller, 2002).

RO3: *To develop a model of consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the subsequent impact on sponsor CBBE.*

In relation to RO3, the findings above demonstrate that evaluating sponsorship on recall levels alone is an inadequate practice. While sponsorship recall is an essential antecedent in a hierarchy of sponsorship effects (Meenaghan, 2001), the effect it has on consumer perceptions is critical. However, it is noted the variables used to measure the company's brand attributes were not validated CBBE variables grounded in academic research as observed in other studies (see Pappu et al., 2005). Therefore, they could not be generalised for other sponsorship settings. As a result, there were limitations for using this case study to explore all of the factors included in the theoretical framework of this research. Despite these issues, Stage 1a provided key insights into how a research model could be developed for measuring the impact sponsorship has on sponsor CBBE.

Consumer judgements of CSR related activities are based on perceptions of community benefit and values or morals based filters (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Rundle-Thiele, 2006). The sponsorship-generated goodwill results in this data suggested that those filters could also be relevant factors in the development of measurement models for determining impact on sponsor CBBE. To build on these findings, further

insights into those judgement filters were sought from the Stage 1b and Stage 1c studies of the exploratory research. The next section provides details of Stage 1b industry practitioner depth interviews.

3.3.2 STAGE 1B INDUSTRY PRACTITIONER DEPTH INTERVIEWS

The Stage 1b study comprised depth interviews with eight sponsorship managers of large companies in Australia. The interviews were conducted to investigate industry practice regarding sponsorship and in particular how its impact on a sponsor's CBBE may be being measured. This exploratory study addressed the research objectives as detailed in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6 Justification of Stage 1b

Research Objective		Stage 1b Justification
RO1: To explore companies' sponsorship objectives and CBBE measurement practices for grassroots activities.	☑	Provided an opportunity to corroborate the extant literature or identify any previously unexamined objectives and practices.
RO2: To explore consumer perceptions of companies' sponsorship of grassroots activities.	☑	Provided an opportunity to investigate practitioners' views on consumer perceptions about their sponsorships and develop lines of enquiry for the next stage of exploratory research that will focus specifically on this research objective.
RO3: To develop a model of consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the subsequent impact on sponsor CBBE.	☑	Provided an opportunity for industry input into the development of the conceptual model of this research.

Next, justifications for using depth interviews in this stage of the exploratory research is discussed.

Stage 1b: Depth Interview Justification

Depth interviews provide opportunities for dialogue and to explore the sometimes complex answers given by experts (Zikmund et al., 2013). Due to the labour-intensive nature of depth interviews, it is impractical to undertake a large number of them (Crouch and McKenzie, 2006). Nonetheless, depth interviews are commonly used where the purpose is to identify what common practices exist rather than determining the volume of those practices (Walker, 1985).

As the required respondents were senior executives located across three states within Australia, and because of the commercial and confidential nature of the discussions involved, it was more suitable to conduct one-on-one, face-to-face

interviews rather than to arrange group discussion. Therefore, depth interviews were considered the most appropriate data collection method for this stage of the research. A summary of the depth interview process is contained in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7 Industry practitioner depth interview process details

Process Step	Details
Target participant group	Senior sponsorship managers
Identification of potential respondents	Via the professional networks of the researcher
Interview settings	Respondents were met at a time and location of their convenience with the interviews between 45 and 60 minutes in duration
Interview Protocol (attached as Appendix A)	Interview questions were open-ended and guided by a script drawn from an interview protocol only when further probing was required. The questions contained in the interview protocol were revised following feedback from the research supervisors then tested with a sponsorship manager similar to those chosen for the participant group. The respondents were required to complete a short pre-interview survey to provide descriptions of their company's sponsorship portfolio and their own sponsorship industry experience
Analysis	Each interview was audio recorded (after the respondent's agreement was granted) and supported with hand written notes. Thematic analysis using a manual process was used to ensure full immersion for the researcher

Justification for the purposive sample is discussed next.

Stage 1b: Purposive Sample

The sample was purposively selected to provide a broad representation of sponsorship portfolios and objectives. Fifteen companies that overtly engage in sponsorship and operate with sponsorship budgets in excess of $1million were approached to participate in the research throughout May and June of 2014.

Eight companies agreed to participate. The eight managers interviewed had a median nine years of experience in senior sponsorship management roles. Table 3.8 provides summary details of the respondents and their companies. For confidentiality, all interviewees and their companies were assigned a code from A through to H.

Table 3.8 Profile of Stage 1b respondents

Code	Sponsorship industry experience	Time in this role	Industry	Description of company	Sponsorship budget	% of marketing budget
A	11y	1.5yrs	Banking and Insurance	National brand providing finance and insurance services	>$5m	17%
B	10y	10yrs	Fast Moving Consumer Goods	International brand providing a diverse range of beverage products	>$5m	40%
C	8y	1.5yrs	Electricity Supply	Electricity generator and retailer operating across multiple Australian states	$1m - $2m	20%
D	6y	2.5yrs	Retail Consumer Goods	International brand providing home appliances and technology	>$5m	n/a*
E	18y	4yrs	Banking and Insurance	National brand providing finance and insurance services	>$5m	10-15%
F	6.5y	1.5yrs	Energy	ASX listed international company providing oil and gas developments	$1m - $2m	30%
G	17y	5.5yrs	Mining and Infrastructure	ASX listed international company in major contracting	$2m - $5m	n/a*
H	4y	4yrs	Insurance and Motoring Services	State based motoring organisation providing 1.2m members with general insurance, travel and motoring support	$2m - $5m	10-15%

*These respondents chose to withhold this detail

Six of the eight companies (A, B, C, D, E and H) operated in business-to-consumer markets. Companies F and G operated in business-to-business markets but, with an operational focus on construction of large infrastructure projects, they focused on generating positive community relations from their sponsorship programs. Company H, while operating in a business-to-consumer market, was a member based organisation and company E, while also business-to-consumer, operated in a highly competitive market. Both company H and company E targeted community relations from their sponsorships for strategic brand differentiation.

The objectives for undertaking sponsorship vary along a continuum from commercially oriented to community relations oriented (Dolphin, 2003). It was

considered important to select a sample of companies to reflect a range of sponsorship types and outcomes sought.

Table 3.9 provides details of how each company's sponsorship portfolio was structured. Based on the information derived from the pre-interview surveys and further comments made during the interviews, the companies were arranged in order (left to right) of the commercial to community relations continuum. The sample included companies at either end of the continuum and a number that maintain a mixed portfolio of sponsorship types.

Table 3.9 Comparison of sample companies' sponsorship portfolios

	commercial vs community relations continuum **commercial** ⟷ **community relations**							
Sponsorship Types	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
Professional sport	80%	70%	60%	60%	40%			
Entertainment/Music	10%	15%	3%					
Arts & cultural		5%	23%	30%	20%	55%		
Grassroots activities	5%	10%	6%		40%	45%	100%	2%
Cause-related programs	5%		8%	10%				98%

Based on the above data, the range of companies, their objectives for sponsorship, and the knowledge and experience of the interview respondents, was considered sufficient for this study.

Next is a discussion of the analysis and findings from the depth interviews.

Stage 1b: Depth Interview Analysis and Findings

This section presents findings from the Stage 1b industry practitioner depth interviews. After each interview was concluded, the audio recordings were transcribed verbatim by the researcher and supplied to the interview respondents for verification as to their accuracy in representing the discussions.

An interview analysis template was developed to record themes and insights from the interview recordings and transcripts. Within the template, summary tables were used to collate findings relating to the research objectives. The analyses of all eight interviews were provided to the research supervisors for validation. Additionally, two independent researchers were provided with four each of the interview analyses to review the findings. These reviews provided confirmation of the findings. Next is

presentation and discussion of the findings in relation to each of the three research objectives.

RO1: *To explore companies' objectives for sponsorship and CBBE measurement practices for grassroots activities.*

During the interviews, respondents were asked to consider 12 sponsorship objectives identified from the literature (Dolphin, 2003; Masterman, 2007). They were asked to identify which objectives had the highest priority for their company and rank them in order of most relevance to their company. The rankings for objectives applied by each of the interview respondents are provided in Table 3.10 (p. 58) with the scale indicating a six for the highest priority down to a zero for non-selection (*note:* some respondents gave equal rankings to some objectives).

When discussing their responses, a theme of *driving commercial capacity* emerged as an underlying objective for all respondents. This could be in the form of direct consumer related objectives; for example: practitioner D noted *'we're a company that needs to move a lot of boxes and devices so driving revenue is right up there'*. Alternatively, *driving commercial capacity* was also related to enabling infrastructure operations in communities as noted by practitioner G '*for us it's about acquiring a social license to operate [in a community]'.* As a result, *driving commercial capacity* was also included in Table 3.10 (p. 58).

Ratings for that objective were based—and allocated—on the strength and repetition of respondents' comments associated with that theme. The objectives are ranked in order of the highest combined scores received from all of the respondents. For consistency with Table 3.9 (p. 56) the respondents are listed from left to right (A through to H) in relation to their commercial and/or community relations orientation.

Table 3.10 Company objectives for undertaking sponsorship

Objectives identified from the literature and provided on cue cards to practitioners (Ratings scored on a scale of 0 =not selected to 6 =highest priority)	**Degree of priority for interview respondents commercial v's community relations continuum** **commercial** ⟷ **community relations**								Total
	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	
To drive commercial capacity*	5	5	5	6	3	2	3	1	30
To enhance brand image/reputation	4	5	5	0	5	6	0	3	28
To demonstrate Corporate Social Responsibility	5	3	4	0	2	4	3	6	27
To communicate brand positioning	3	0	0	5	6	3	5	5	27
To promote brand awareness	0	6	6	2	4	1	1	1	21
To enable stakeholder engagement	2	2	2	4	0	5	4	0	19
To generate brand loyalty	6	4	0	0	3	0	0	2	15
To drive sales revenue	3	1	0	6	0	0	0	0	10
For networking and hospitality opportunities	0	0	1	4	0	0	2	0	7
To exclude competitor	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4
To support employee relations	1	0	0	0	1	2	0	0	4
To showcase products or services	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Sponsorship mandated by a company head for personal motivations (Chairman's Choice)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

*Identified from the interviews with rating estimated from levels and strength of participant comments

In summary, the respondents' responses show they primarily used sponsorship to enhance brand associations (related to image, reputation and place in the community) in the belief this ultimately leads to commercial success. Yet in moving the discussion to sponsorship measurement practices, the respondents identified inherent challenges to link the outcomes of sponsorship to actual commercial results. For example, practitioner B noted:

> *'these things are very hard to measure, because a spike in sales can be a reflection of a number of things. It might be that a sporting star is seen with your product, or it could be that a promotional price is run, or it could be that your competitor was out of stock. We just don't know exactly what percentage falls to sponsorship'.*

The topic of brand equity measurement was specifically explored during the interviews. It was found that factors described in CBBE frameworks (i.e. brand awareness, associations, image and reputation and loyalty) all figured prominently as highly rated objectives for the respondents. Yet, the responses indicated that CBBE frameworks were either not applied at all, or at best applied superficially, within their measurement practices. Practitioner G noted that *'brand equity is just not a term that's even used in our organisation'* despite the company's sole focus on sponsorship of grassroots activities to drive community and stakeholder relations outcomes. The findings show there was a common belief amongst the respondents that sponsorship delivers CBBE outcomes but that demonstrating proof of this was problematic.

The respondents' main measurement focus was on the tangible sponsorship outputs of audience and media exposure rather than intangible CBBE outcomes. Size and relevance of the event, audience reach and target market alignment, potential media exposure along with leveraging opportunities were all viewed as key criteria when selecting sponsorships. These criteria then became the default metrics against which sponsorship performance was measured. This finding aligns with the literature that shows a prevalence for measuring sponsorship outputs rather than CBBE outcomes (Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013).

Hence it was concluded the companies are mostly reliant on assumptions that audience fit and volumes of exposure translate to CBBE outcomes from sponsorships. An example of this is the response relating to measurement of image transfer and

sponsorship-generated goodwill from practitioner B: *'tangible you can measure, intangible you can't measure and you just need to some degree come up with a thought pattern that would say yes it was successful or no it wasn't successful'.*

The challenges of measurement were attributed to the logistics and cost of gaining broad consumer feedback on specific sponsorship events. The respondents indicated these challenges were amplified with sponsorship of grassroots activities, noting the smaller scale of this type of event and level of volunteerism as further contributing factors. By way of illustration, practitioner F commented: '*because they're all community groups it's very hard to get them to do anything… like my main objective is to get a photo with them to prove we've done it'.*

Of the eight companies, only D and E indicated that brand-tracking data (as explored in the Stage 1a study) was used for sponsorship measurement. For D and E there was still only a limited level of linking sponsorship performance to CBBE outcomes measured in the brand-tracking. As with the data collected in Stage 1a, the variable items measured in their respective brand-tracking research were company specific rather than grounded in CBBE research. This highlights the issue of inconsistent measurement practice across the industry.

In summary, there is evidence of a separation between sponsorship objectives and performance measurement particularly with sponsorship of grassroots activities. That is, CBBE outcomes such as enhanced brand image, credibility, sense of community and behavioural intentions are prime objectives sought from sponsorships yet are rarely measured effectively, especially for sponsorship of grassroots activities. This evidence supports findings from the literature (see Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013). This finding lends support to pursuit of Research Objectives 2 and 3 which are now discussed in relation to findings from the Stage 1b study.

RO2: *To explore consumer perceptions of companies' sponsorship of grassroots activities.*

While this research objective was concerned with consumer perceptions it was relevant also to explore practitioners' own perceptions, as well as their understanding of consumer perceptions, of sponsorship of grassroots activities.

The literature shows that companies seeking high levels of exposure from sponsorship gravitate to professional sports while those seeking to enhance community relations focus their efforts on community or cause-related activities (Cornwell, 2008). This view is supported by findings from these interviews. For example, practitioner F acknowledged advantages and disadvantages for the various sponsorship types but their sponsorship strategy is very much driven by community relations objectives based on a belief *'this can best be achieved through arts and culture and grassroots community events'*. Alternatively, practitioner B stated: *'professional sports [sponsorships] are best at achieving our underlying objective of sales and revenue'*.

The respondents in these interviews saw a distinct difference between what the different types of sponsorship can best achieve. For the most part the companies employ a mixture of sponsorships across their portfolios with the various types of sponsorship being employed according to varying objectives. Practitioner A saw value in sponsoring grassroots activities for providing PR opportunities to negate bad publicity that can occur in their industry but stated: *'the scale of professional sports delivers awareness for taking our brands into new markets'*.

In contrast to the scale of exposure achieved by professional sport, there were consistent views expressed that sponsoring grassroots activities provided more depth in terms of empathy and positivity towards sponsors. Practitioner E presented this view in stating:

> *'the empathy towards our brand from that type of relationship as opposed to say a sports team, is significantly higher, in my experience people look at sport and see that companies sponsoring sport probably just have large cheque books and generally tend to be off the back of a chairman's choice nine times out of ten, so we definitely see arts, community, that philanthropic type of context as one that delivers far greater outcomes for us…"*.

In summary, whilst being appreciative of the goodwill benefits available from sponsorship of grassroots activities, the majority of the respondents considered the challenges associated with such sponsorships generally outweighed the value returns. As a result, they perceive professional sports sponsorship, while more expensive, to be better value for money. This finding aligns with the literature; However, it highlights

the need for developing an applicable model for sponsorship of grassroots activities that could better explain and demonstrate subsequent impact on sponsor CBBE.

RO3: *To develop a model of consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the subsequent impact on sponsor CBBE.*

For RO3 the aim of this Stage 1b study was to provide opportunity for industry input into the development of the research model. The practitioner depth interviews revealed inherent challenges for linking the perceived goodwill effects generated from sponsorship of grassroots activities to CBBE outcomes. As a result, the companies were reliant on feedback from the sponsored properties and internal stakeholders to evaluate and justify such sponsorships.

Nonetheless, there were two findings from the study that have relevance for RO3. First, establishing a set of CBBE metrics grounded in research would be of significant value to practitioners. Practitioner B observed:

> *'what we need…or I suppose the step change in sponsorship is identifying how to measure the intangibles. If someone could come up with [such] a mechanism, then there would be a step change of how people invest in sponsorships of any degree'.*

Second, practitioner H noted their company surveyed its members to determine perceived appropriateness for their sponsorships. This goes beyond ascertaining perceptions of fit and level of consumer involvement with the activity that are identified in the literature (Alexandris and Tsiotsou, 2012; Close and Lacey, 2013). Determining perceived appropriateness of a sponsorship provided a direction to explore with the consumer focus group and depth interviews conducted in the Stage 1c study.

In summary, what has become apparent through the practitioner interviews is these companies place a high significance on brand association and loyalty outcomes of sponsorships yet in general, tend to focus their tactical execution and evaluation on the more tangible outputs relating to brand awareness. That approach is amplified for their sponsorships of grassroots activities. Hence, there is a disconnect between what matters and what is measured. These points add importance to RO3. Given that CBBE *'resides*

in the minds of consumers' (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002, p. 79), the next step was to explore community held perceptions of sponsorships.

3.3.3 STAGE 1C CONSUMER FOCUS GROUP AND DEPTH INTERVIEWS

This section provides details of a study comprising a focus group and eight depth interviews undertaken to explore consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities. This stage of the exploratory research addresses the research objectives as detailed in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11 Justification of Stage 1c

Research Objective		Stage 1c Justification
RO1: To explore companies' sponsorship objectives and CBBE measurement practices for grassroots activities.	☑	Provided an opportunity to explore consumer perceptions of sponsor motives for incorporation into the conceptual model.
RO2: To explore consumer perceptions of companies' sponsorship of grassroots activities.	☑	Provided an opportunity to explore how consumers appraise sponsorships and their reactions to sponsorship of grassroots activities.
RO3: To develop a model of consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the subsequent impact on sponsor CBBE.	☑	Explored the cognitive processes and identified factors involved in consumer judgements of sponsorship to enable development of the conceptual model.

Stage 1c Focus Group

A focus group was considered to be a relevant starting point for this stage of the exploratory research. Focus groups are one of the most frequently used methods in marketing research to gain insights and understandings into consumer perceptions that may not be overtly obvious (Feinberg et al., 2008).

The focus group respondents were sourced from an Australian university community and comprised ten individuals (four males and six females) all over 18 years of age. Nine of the respondents were students under 25 years of age working in a range of part-time occupations while the other was a full-time lecturer over 60 years of age. Their frame of reference for sponsorship experience was limited to exposure at various events they had previously attended. Their personal interests and pastimes were varied in nature.

A discussion guide, based on the principal researcher's sponsorship industry experience and themes emanating from the literature review, was used selectively to prompt group discussion. Respondents were encouraged to identify and discuss any sponsorships they could recall as examples but were also shown actual sponsorship

examples for professional sport and grassroots activities related to junior sport, arts/cultural programs and cause-related events, to explore their reactions toward the different sponsorship examples.

The focus group, conducted in July 2014, was moderated by the researcher with the research supervisor acting as observer of the proceedings. An audio recording of the focus group was made with the permission of respondents and later transcribed to confirm the observations and notes made by the researcher and research supervisor during the focus group and debrief. Following is a discussion of findings relating to the research objectives.

RO1: *To explore companies' objectives for sponsorship and CBBE measurement practices for grassroots activities.*

In response to RO1 the focus group was used to explore consumer perceptions of sponsor motivations. Appraisal of sponsor motivations has been identified in the literature as a factor in consumers' cognitive processing of sponsorship messages. It is shown to mediate sponsorship-generated goodwill for the sponsor (Meenaghan, 2001; Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Rifon et al., 2004; Cornwell et al., 2005). Therefore, the focus group discussion was begun by asking what the respondents thought sponsorship was and why companies undertook sponsorship?

The group identified a range of sponsorship scenarios from sponsoring of high profile sporting teams through to charitable campaigns. While there were very few accurate examples of sponsors identified, the group concluded that corporate sponsorship *'is like advertising'* where companies *'seek exposure to promote themselves'*.

In regard to sponsor motivations, the group identified two themes. First, suggesting that sponsorship was *'done to promote businesses as a cue to later consumption'* and second, *'done to change people's perceptions'*. A young male in the group stated sponsorship made him suspicious of the company, made him question if they were *'only doing it to divert attention from bad things they were doing'*.

Following this comment, the group identified a number of scenarios to which they expressed negative reactions to sponsorship and raised concerns around some companies' unethical motivations for undertakings sponsorships. For example, they

believed it was wrong to *'promote bad lifestyle habits at sporting events'*. One young female in the group noted that for her it was *'ironic'* that the only sponsorship she could actually recall was from an alcohol company at a high-profile football event she attended when she was a child. She stated that *'even as a child I thought it was wrong for them to be doing that'*.

In summary, the group likened sponsorship to advertising but identified it had greater potential than advertising to change perceptions. This finding is consistent with the seminal work of Meenaghan (1999). However, as they needed to be prompted to consider accurate sponsorship examples it demonstrated a general inattention to sponsorship. The exception to this was where sponsorship was considered to have anti-social implications. Most of the group could recall sponsorship examples they personally judged as inappropriate. This indicated that moral judgements were being applied to the sponsorship examples with a mediating effect on both sponsor recall and sponsorship-generated goodwill.

RO2: *To explore consumer perceptions of companies' sponsorship of grassroots activities.*

The focus group respondents were shown actual scenarios across various types of sponsorship to prompt discussions from which their perceptions could be determined. In contrast to scenarios of professional sporting sponsorships, sponsorship related to junior sport or community causes generated more positive reactions. Comments such as: *'it's good in terms of giving to kid's football'* and *'if it's helping out the community then it's a good thing'* exemplified the positive sentiments regarding sponsorship of grassroots activities. However, concerns were raised regarding fast food and confectionary companies supporting junior sport which provided further evidence that moral judgements were being applied by the respondents.

The findings relating to RO2 could be summarised as two distinct themes. First, that sponsorship of grassroots activities was viewed more favourably than other sponsorship types due to a perception that it provided greater community benefits. This type of sponsorship appeared more likely to generate consumer goodwill which supports conclusions drawn from the Stage 1a study and findings advanced by Mack (1999), Quester and Thompson (2001) and Cornwell et al. (2005). Second, the focus group showed moral judgements were being applied on all sponsorship scenarios with these

becoming more pronounced when the respondents considered grassroots examples. This finding aligned with community health related research highlighting public concerns in this area (Pettigrew et al., 2012). These findings are now considered in relation to RO3.

RO3: *To develop a model of consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the subsequent impact on sponsor CBBE.*

The findings identified above add to the understanding of how consumers judge sponsorship scenarios. As such, they give rise to a key consideration for development of the conceptual model. That is, to what degree do a consumer's morality based judgements impact sponsorship knowledge effects and sponsor CBBE outcomes?

To date, consumer judgements of sponsor/activity fit has been a focus of sponsorship research and shown to impact the level of sponsor recall (Fleck and Quester, 2007; Close and Lacey, 2013). It is argued that obvious fit takes less consumer attention to process and therefore results in less memory triggers (Cornwell, 2008). This focus group showed sponsor recall was strongest when driven by negative moral judgements. Such scenarios raise the potential for increased negative impact on a sponsor's CBBE by increasing a sponsor's recall but adversely impacting on brand associations and loyalty.

Including morality judgements in a model for cognitive processing of sponsorship messages has been scarcely considered in the literature. Yet, similar concepts such as community norms and ethical beliefs are considered to be key factors in consumer responses to CSR related marketing (Torres et al., 2012; Chernev and Blair, 2015) which has been likened to sponsorship, particularly in grassroots settings (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Maignan and Ferrell, 2004). Therefore, this finding was considered critical for the development of the conceptual model.

Additionally, the focus group indicated that community outcomes from sponsorship was a critical judgement criterion for consumers. Potentially this is due to the situation where sponsorship, although viewed as a contemporary marketing activity initially benefiting the sponsor, also provides benefits for the rights-holder and their related communities (Dolphin, 2003). Therefore, in terms of generating goodwill from consumers it is important that all of these parties to a sponsorship are seen to benefit. This finding suggests the inclusion of community focused metrics within the conceptual

model's CBBE framework, as proposed by Hoeffler and Keller (2002) for CSR activities, would also be relevant for sponsorship settings.

In summary, the focus group provided important findings for development of the conceptual model. Nonetheless focus groups, while useful for exploring group ideas, have limitations for discussing sensitive topics where individuals may be likely to conform with group consensus rather than speak out (Zikmund et al., 2013). It had proved difficult for the researcher to recruit an adequately diverse range of respondents. This focus group comprised mostly young adult university students and subsequently lacked a diversity of thinking. There was also an element of social bias observed in the group discussions regarding morality issues in sponsorship. Therefore, it was concluded that depth interviews would provide opportunity for purposive sample selection and more detailed probing of the issues raised in the focus group with less potential for social bias. The results of those depth interviews are discussed next.

Stage 1c Consumer Depth Interviews

The consumer focus group identified a number of issues to explore in more depth using one-on-one interviews. A summary of the consumer depth interview process is contained in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12 Consumer depth interview process

Process Step	Details
Target participant group	Interviews with eight adult consumers from the general Australian population.
Identification of potential respondents	Via social networks of the researcher and research supervisors.
Interview settings	Respondents were met at a time and location of their convenience with the interviews up to one hour in duration.
Interview Protocol (attached as Appendix B)	Respondents completed a short pre-interview survey that captured general demographic data. Interview questions were open-ended and guided by a script drawn from an interview protocol only when further probing was required.
Analysis	Each interview was audio recorded (after the respondent's agreement was granted) and supported with hand written notes. Thematic analysis using a manual process was used to ensure full immersion for the researcher.

A total of eight interviews were conducted throughout August, 2014. The sample was purposively selected to be representative of the Australian adult population that could be expected to have been exposed to sponsorship-linked marketing. Table 3.13

provides demographic details of the respondents. The respondents were generally middle aged, married with small families and there was an even distribution of gender.

Previous research has indicated that an individual's level of attachment to, or involvement with, sponsored activities can influence the level of goodwill generated by a sponsorship (Meenaghan, 2001; Quester and Thompson, 2001; Olson, 2010). Therefore, the respondents were asked to indicate on a scale of zero to five (with zero being 'no interest' and five being 'extremely interested') their level of interest in sport, the arts and community activities. Those responses are also noted in Table 3.13.

An interview analysis template was developed to record themes and insights from the interview audio recordings and transcripts. The analyses of all eight interviews were provided to the research supervisor and co-supervisor for validation of the findings. Additionally, two independent researchers were provided with four each of the interview analyses to review the findings. These reviews provided confirmation of the findings. Findings in relation to each of the three research objectives are next.

Table 3.13 Stage 1c consumer depth interview participant details

Code	Gender	Age range	Life status	No. of children	Sport interest	Arts/cultural interest	Community activities interest
CM1	Female	26 - 35	Single	0	1	5	4
CM2	Male	36 - 45	Married	2	4	0	2
CM3	Female	36 - 45	Married	2	1	4	3
CM4	Male	36 - 45	Married	2	5	0	2
CM5	Female	36 - 45	Married	3	0	5	4
CM6	Male	46 - 60	Married	3	2	1	3
CM7	Female	46 - 60	Married	3	0	2	0
CM8	Male	46 - 60	Married	2	2	0	0

Note: Level of interest was self-rated by the respondents using a scale of zero to five with zero being 'no interest' and five being 'extremely interested'.

RO1: *To explore companies' objectives for sponsorship and CBBE measurement practices for grassroots activities.*

All of the respondents indicated they believed companies undertook sponsorship as a marketing related tactic. This was evidenced by comments such as '*I see companies paying money basically to market their products on either the sporting field or motor cars or whatever'* (CM8).

In elaborating on this theme some of the respondents also identified the potential for more altruistic objectives on behalf of the sponsors. For example, *'its financial support for various artistic and community ventures I guess'* (CM1) and *'it's getting involved and taking an interest in a group, or a community'* (CM3). The comments from these particular respondents highlighted their noted interest in grassroots related activities. This had given them a broader experience of sponsorship than those who initially identified sponsorship of major sporting events.

This study was not designed to specifically explore CBBE measurement practices. Nonetheless, the interviews did reveal how sponsorships can affect consumer responses and perceptions. For example, a negative judgement of sponsorship was shown to influence behavioural intentions as in:

> *'I was watching the gold medal match [netball] and as a lover of the game I found it a bit intrusive, they're sticking on all the sponsors' ads in the middle of the game and it actually puts you off buying their product. I know everyone on social media was saying the same thing' (CM1).*

These findings were consistent with the literature showing consumers understand sponsorship as a marketing and communications tactic (Cornwell and Humphreys, 2013). They also support the literature showing perceived over-commercialisation of events through sponsorship can result in negative consumer reactions (Meenaghan, 1999). As such the findings show the importance for sponsors to not just measure sponsorship recall but to also measure the impact of sponsorship on their CBBE.

RO2: *To explore consumer perceptions of companies' sponsorship of grassroots activities.*

To explore this research objective, the respondents were asked to give their opinions on different sponsorship examples. The literature suggests highly involved consumers of a sponsored activity will have more positive reactions to sponsors of that activity (Cornwell et al., 2005). Some research has supported this proposition (see Bibby, 2009) while other research has contradicted it (see Rowley and Williams, 2008).

These consumer depth interviews also showed varying results in terms of reactions to sponsorship examples. For example, CM5 (a male who identified as a highly passionate football follower) had very negative reactions to sponsors he saw as

contributing to over-commercialisation of the sport. Whereas CM2 (a male who identified as an avid follower of professional surfing) was well aware of sponsors of the World Surfing Tour and indicated that as a result he had intentionally sought out their products for purchase.

This contrast in reactions was also evident when discussing sponsorship of the arts. The most highly identified arts follower in the interviews noted being *'very supportive of these sponsors'* (CM7) while another who participated as an actor in community theatre productions noted that she *'doesn't take much notice of them [sponsors].'* (CM1).

However, when considering sponsorship of grassroots activities, the contrast in reactions was far less apparent. All of the respondents had positive reactions to these sponsorship examples based on the perception that the community benefit outweighed the sponsor's benefit. This was evidenced by the comment from CM3:

> *'I think it's all well and good supporting the big corporatey [sic] type sporting gigs but I think there is more benefit in supporting grassroots, more basic, more needy things'.*

As such the interviews revealed the respondents' positive perceptions of companies' sponsorship of grassroots activities to be consistent with findings from the earlier focus group and the literature (Mack, 1999; Cornwell et al., 2005; Day, 2010). Nonetheless, in the depth interviews the respondents expressed quite strong views on sponsorship they judged as inappropriate. This was evident across all sponsorship examples that were discussed and strengthened the conclusion from the focus group that moral judgements form a critical factor of consumers' appraisals of sponsorships. This is further analysed next in relation to RO3.

RO3: *To develop a model of consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the subsequent impact on sponsor CBBE.*

While the depth interview respondents expressed mostly positive responses to sponsorship examples, the strongest affective responses came when the individuals considered sponsorships to be inappropriate. For example, CM5 commented:

'I think sponsorship is fantastic, like sponsors have to be there, but as for the betting in sports stuff, I find that just repulsive, I hate it, its manipulating and I just hate it'.

Additionally, most of the respondents indicated they were strongly opposed to fast food sponsorship of grassroots activities such as junior sport, yet, are accepting of those same companies sponsoring in other situations. For example, CM3 commented: *'I just don't agree with McDonalds sponsoring Little Athletics but I think it would be ok for them to sponsor say the Opera House'.*

In line with the literature, these responses could be considered as part of the consumer's rational appraisal of sponsor/activity fit of sponsor motivations. Yet, as was found with the focus group, the depth interview respondents were making emotionally based morality judgements.

When considering fit, the respondents expressed that sponsorship in general *'made sense'* as a marketing tactic. When considering sponsor motivations, the respondents demonstrated a clear understanding and general acceptance of sponsor motivations as a marketing tactic. For example, CM8 stated *'I've got no problems with sponsorship, it doesn't make me love the company anymore but I can certainly understand why they do it'.*

However, in all cases the respondents, when asked their perception of different sponsorship examples, also considered appropriateness as an appraisal criterion. They were observed to be applying a moral judgement by asking themselves how they felt about it or, as CM6 expressed it when considering fast food companies' sponsorship of junior sport *'it makes sense, but am I ok with it? No!'.* So, whereas the participant responses to appraisal of fit and motivation appeared to be rationally based, the appraisal of appropriateness was more emotionally and values based such as CM7 noting '*what concerns me is the ethics of it'.*

While for a number of the respondents the affective responses were very strong for others they were less so. The conclusion being the respondents' reactions were tempered by their personal moral orientations. This conclusion was supported when analysing the respondents' responses across the various sponsorship examples. For example, while most of the respondents had strongly negative reactions to gambling

sponsorship of professional sports, CM8 stated *'I've got no problem with the Broncos running around with an online [gambling] name on their backs'.*

Similarly, all the respondents were highly supportive of sponsorship of grassroots activities because of the community benefits and yet, there were some varying responses given to the example of fast food companies' sponsorship of junior sport. For example, while CM5 noted *'McDonalds and Little Athletics very bad, very very bad'*, CM3 judged that same sponsorship as *'an acceptable trade-off, after all it's up to the parents what their kids eat*'.

In summary, these findings provided further insights into sponsorship knowledge effects that built upon models previously identified in the literature (Meenaghan, 2001; Cornwell et al., 2005; Olson, 2010). As such, development of the conceptual model for this research is next.

3.4 IMPLICATIONS, CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

In Chapter 2 a theoretical framework (Figure 2.9, p. 42) was developed from the literature review. In this section the emergent findings from the exploratory studies are discussed in relation to the theoretical framework. Then the conceptual model, comprised of constructs, that were found from the Stage 1 exploratory studies to be most relevant to sponsorship of grassroots activities, is presented along with hypothesis for testing in the Stage 2 main study. Based on the theoretical framework the sponsorship brand building factors are discussed first followed by sponsorship consumer knowledge effects and then sponsorship CBBE outcomes.

Sponsorship Brand Building Factors

The theoretical framework contained four groups of sponsorship brand building factors posited to influence the sponsorship consumer knowledge effects. The groups were: 1) consumer factors; 2) sponsorship factors; 3) management factors; and 4) market factors. Findings from the Stage 1 exploratory studies showed some of the factors from these groups would be less relevant for inclusion in the conceptual model.

The factors of activity status, social alliance and activity experience were found in the Stage 1c study to relate to consumers' level of involvement with an activity. As

such, these factors were included as elements of the construct *consumer activity involvement* for inclusion in the conceptual model.

The literature and the Stage 1 exploratory studies confirmed the relevance of including *consumer previous perception of the sponsor* and *consumer perceived sponsor/activity fit* as variable constructs. Whereas findings from the Stage 1c study showed the respondents were viewing the management factors of sponsorship policy and sponsorship-linked marketing and ubiquity from a sponsor motivation perspective. As such these factors were combined as the construct *consumer perceived sponsor motivation* for inclusion in the conceptual model.

However, sponsor clutter and competitor activities were considered to be detached elements of the sponsorship landscape with less relevance to the focus of this research. These adaptions of the factors into constructs for the conceptual model are shown in Table 3.14.

Table 3.14 Adaption of factors for the conceptual model

Construct for conceptual model	Sponsorship brand building factor
Consumer activity involvement	Consumer activity involvement
	Social alliance
	Activity status
	Activity experience
Consumer previous perception of the sponsor	Past experience knowledge of sponsor
Consumer perceived sponsor/activity fit	Sponsor/activity fit
Consumer perceived sponsor motivation	Sponsorship policy
	Sponsorship-linked marketing and ubiquity
	Sponsor motives
*Not included in conceptual model	Sponsor clutter
	Competitor activity

In addition to the constructs shown in Table 3.14, the Stage 1 exploratory studies also identified two emerging consumer factors to be included as constructs in the conceptual model. These were: 1) *consumer moral orientation*; and 2) *consumer moral judgement*. As these factors had not been considered previously in the literature, it was concluded they should also be included in the conceptual model as independent variable constructs influencing the sponsorship consumer knowledge effects.

Sponsorship Consumer Knowledge Effects

There were three sponsorship consumer knowledge effects identified in the theoretical framework. These were 1) sponsorship recall, 2) image transfer and 3)

sponsorship-generated goodwill. Of these three effects, it was concluded that, as sponsorship recall relates to sponsor brand awareness, it should be measured as a separate construct antecedent to sponsorship CBBE outcomes.

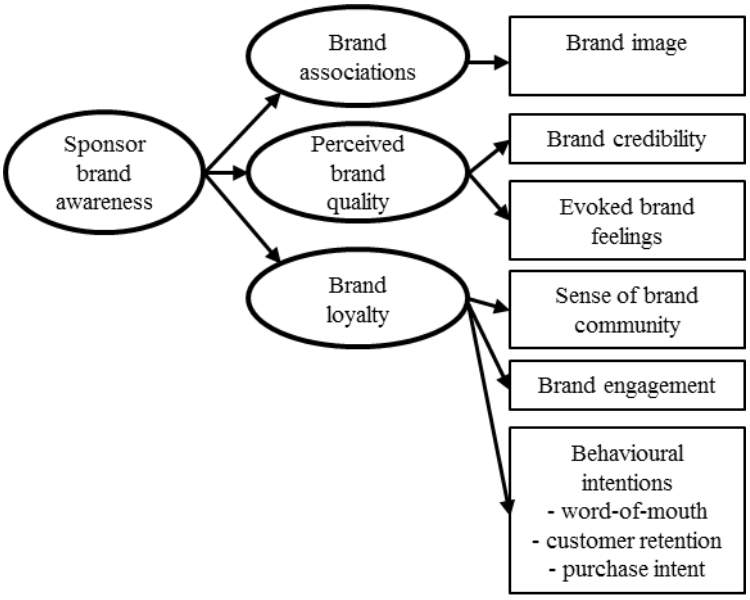
Brand image has been found to be a relevant element of brand associations within CBBE measurement models (see Pappu et al., 2005). As a result, image transfer was included as a dependent variable within the sponsor CBBE measurement model. Whereas sponsorship-generated goodwill was concluded to be a relevant construct and mediating variable to sponsor CBBE outcomes.

Sponsorship CBBE Outcomes

Enhanced *sponsor CBBE* has been identified as an ultimate outcome of sponsorship (Roy and Cornwell, 2003; Olson, 2010; Close and Lacey, 2013). However, *sponsor CBBE* has yet to be conclusively developed as a measurement construct (Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013). The Stage 1b industry practitioner depth interviews confirmed this situation with all of the respondents indicating they believed enhanced CBBE was a desired outcome of sponsorship yet were unable to articulate an effective method of measurement.

The theoretical framework developed from the literature review of Chapter 2 drew on the conceptual CBBE framework developed by Hoeffler and Keller (2002) for interpreting CBBE resulting from corporate societal marketing along with works of Polonsky and Speed (2001) and Pappu et al. (2005). The theoretical framework contained three primary factors for *sponsor CBBE* resulting from *sponsor awareness*. They were *brand associations, perceived brand quality* and *brand loyalty*. These were posited to be comprised of variables as shown in the conceptual model for *sponsor CBBE* (Figure 3.4).

Figure 3.4 Conceptual model for *sponsor CBBE*



Source: developed for this research drawn from (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Hoeffler and Keller, 2002; Pappu et al., 2005)

The Stage 1 exploratory studies confirmed the structure of this framework would be appropriate to retain in the conceptual model. In particular the inclusion of the factor of *sense of brand community* within the framework was seen as relevant for the context of sponsorship of grassroots activities where community relations outcomes are a fundamental objective for sponsors (Mack, 1999; Day, 2010). Additionally, the findings of the Stage 1c consumer focus group and depth interviews, whereby community benefit was identified as a highly-regarded outcome of sponsorship by the respondents, supported this conclusion. This approach was viewed as critical to achieving RO3 and a practical contribution for this research.

Finally, the constructs emerging from the theoretical framework and the exploratory studies are shown in Table 3.15 and their prominence in the literature and exploratory studies assessed. Then the implications for development of the conceptual model are discussed.

Table 3.15 Summary of findings from the Stage1 exploratory studies

Sponsorship Construct	Prominence in the Literature	Prominence in Stage 1 a Case Study Historical Data Analysis	Prominence in Stage 1b Practitioner Depth Interviews	Prominence in Stage 1c Consumer Focus Group and Depth Interviews
Consumer activity involvement	✓✓✓	Not measured	✓✓✓	✓
Consumer previous perception of sponsor	✓✓	Not measured	✓	✓
Consumer perceived sponsor/activity fit	✓✓✓	Not measured	✓✓✓	✓
Consumer perceived sponsor motivation	✓✓	Not measured	✓	✓✓✓
Sponsorship-generated goodwill	✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓✓
Sponsor CBBE	✓✓	✓	✓✓✓	Not measured
Brand awareness	✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓✓
Brand associations	✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓✓
Perceived brand quality	✓✓	✓✓	✓✓✓	✓✓✓
Brand loyalty	✓✓	Not measured	✓✓✓	✓✓✓
Consumer moral orientation	New to sponsorship	Not measured	Not measured	✓✓✓
Consumer moral judgement	New to sponsorship	Not measured	✓	✓✓✓

Prominence key: ✓ Low; ✓✓ Moderate; ✓✓✓ High

3.4.1 IMPLICATIONS FOR CONCEPTUAL CONSTRUCTS

This section provides a discussion of the independent variable and mediating constructs in relation to development of the conceptual model.

Consumer Activity Involvement

The literature identifies *consumer activity involvement* as the level of interest and attachment an individual has with the sponsored activity and that it is likely to be an important moderator in the consumer responses to sponsorship-linked marketing (Cornwell et al., 2005). Research has generally found a positive relationship between activity involvement and sponsorship effects (Madrigal, 2001; Alexandris et al., 2007; Close and Lacey, 2013).

It is noted that much of the sponsorship research examining *consumer activity involvement* has been conducted in-field at events. This method has limitations due to lack of control for extraneous variables existing in the environment of the event and where sample bias may exist (Cornwell and Maignan, 1998; Olson, 2010; Close and

Lacey, 2013). The findings from the Stage 1c consumer focus group and depth interviews, where research was undertaken away from event environments, is in contrast with the view that *consumer activity involvement* is critically relevant. For the most part, respondents in the Stage 1c study were impassive to sponsor messages regardless of their involvement in the sponsored activity discussed. In professional sport settings where fan passion and involvement is purported to be high, only one depth interview participant (CM2) indicated he had intentionally sought out a sponsor's product. Another (CM5) indicated he had given the major sponsor (an insurance company) of his favourite team a try but switched brands after one year because of price. The example of CM5 suggests sponsorship, based on *consumer activity involvement* may impact the primary factors of *sponsor CBBE*, being *brand awareness* and *brand associations,* but is less relevant to *brand loyalty*.

When discussing sponsorship of grassroots activities, there was consistent voicing of approval for this type of sponsorship from the Stage 1c respondents, regardless of the level of their involvement with an activity. This finding supports Meenaghan (2001) in showing goodwill can be generated at the generic level of sponsorship. In addition, the findings contribute a reason for the overall positive responses to sponsorship of grassroots activities. That is, the responses are affective and based on this type of sponsorship being viewed as beneficial for the community at large. Therefore, sponsorship of grassroots activities can generate goodwill for the sponsor regardless of consumer involvement. Based on these findings it was concluded that, in the context of this study, *consumer activity involvement* should be retained in the conceptual model, but as a peripheral descriptive factor.

Consumer Previous Perception of Sponsor

Cornwell et al. (2005) conceptualise a consumer's past experience with and previous perception of a sponsor as having an impact on the processing of sponsorship messages by triggering cognitive and affective responses. However, this factor has had little research focus in sponsorship situations.

In all stages of the Stage 1 exploratory studies the sponsorship objective of image enhancement was acknowledged and logically this involves sponsorship having an impact on consumers' existing perceptions of a sponsor. This was particularly apparent in Stage 1c where respondents considered the sponsor's motivations based on their

existing knowledge of the sponsor. However, sponsor motivations were fundamentally attributed to marketing objectives and it was the recipient of the sponsorship that most influenced the respondents' responses to the presented scenarios.

It is also more likely in grassroots settings, where the sponsor may be a local small business, that the consumer may have had no previous experience of the sponsor (Mack, 1999). In these cases, the consumer's perceptions are being formed rather than affirmed or changed. Based on these findings it was concluded that *consumer previous perception of sponsor* should be retained in the conceptual model at this stage as a peripheral and descriptive factor.

Consumer Perceived Sponsor/Activity Fit

The literature shows that perceived fit between sponsor and activity is one of the most frequently researched theoretical concepts (Cornwell et al., 2005). It is generally found to be a predictive factor for sponsor recall and assessment of sponsor motivations (see Rifon et al., 2004; Close and Lacey, 2013). However, moderate levels of fit may be more effective than either high or low levels with Fleck and Quester (2007) concluding this may be due to the level of cognitive processing required to interpret the association between the sponsor and activity.

Like with *consumer activity involvement*, the industry practitioner respondents in the Stage 1b study identified fit as an important consideration in their selection and management of sponsorships. This finding was consistent with the literature (Johnston, 2010). However, the respondents in the Stage 1c study did not dwell on consideration of fit for most of the sponsorship examples discussed. This may be due to the respondents' higher levels of exposure to, and general acceptance of, sponsorship at contemporary public events and their expectation that it is now executed as a credible marketing tactic of the sponsor. Therefore, in line with the findings of Fleck and Quester (2007) little emphasis is placed on fit by consumers in scenarios where it appears obvious. Based on these findings it was concluded that *consumer perceived sponsor/activity fit* should be retained in the conceptual model as a peripheral factor that may evolve as a descriptive factor in the final research model after pilot testing.

Consumer Perceived Sponsor Motivation

The literature suggests that perceptions of good fit contribute to less questioning of sponsor motives and can even generate higher attribution of altruistic motives (Speed

and Thompson, 2000; Rifon et al., 2004; Olson, 2010). The results of the Stage 1 exploratory studies suggest that sponsor motives are perceived as overtly commercial and that this is generally acceptable. What appeared to have a higher mediating effect on consumer reactions was the setting of the sponsorship. That is, with sponsorship of grassroots activities there was a high level of altruistic motive attributed to the sponsor leading to more positive responses. Yet the responses were generally reversed if the sponsorship was considered inappropriate as in the case of fast food companies sponsoring junior sport. The references to *perceived* s*ponsor motivation* in both the literature and the Stage 1 exploratory studies suggest it is critical for retention as a mediating factor in the conceptual model.

Sponsorship-Generated Goodwill

The generation of goodwill is seen as a fundamental affective knowledge effect of sponsorship and has received much investigation in the literature (Meenaghan, 2001; Walliser, 2003; Cornwell et al., 2005). It has been shown to have particular relevance in sponsorship settings, such as cause-related, where sponsor motives are perceived as more altruistic (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Dean, 2002; Pappu and Cornwell, 2014). This goodwill in turn can translate to *sponsor CBBE* through enhanced *brand associations* and *brand loyalty* (Aaker, 1991; Roy and Cornwell, 2003; Pappu et al., 2005). Findings from the Stage 1 exploratory studies support the retention of *sponsorship-generated goodwill* as a critical construct for the conceptual model.

Consumer Moral Orientation

Consumer moral orientation was a factor that emerged from the Stage 1c study. It is posited to be an antecedent to morality based judgements that the respondents were making when judging various sponsorship scenarios. This theorizing follows suggestions of Chernev and Blair (2015) that CSR invokes moral judgements that can permeate all aspects of consumer judgement and decision making. Their work builds on prior research of Kohlberg (1981), Aquino and Reed (2002) and Reed et al. (2007) where morality and moral identity are found to be factors guiding key facets of an individual's cognitive and affective processes. A halo effect stemming from individual's moral judgements has been shown to influence their judgements across a variety of consumer domains and this effect varies as a function of a consumers' moral orientation (Chernev and Blair, 2015).

While moral orientation appears somewhat prominently in CSR literature, it has not been previously considered in sponsorship settings. Therefore, the addition of *consumer moral orientation* as a construct in the conceptual model makes a theoretical contribution to the sponsorship literature.

Consumer Moral Judgement

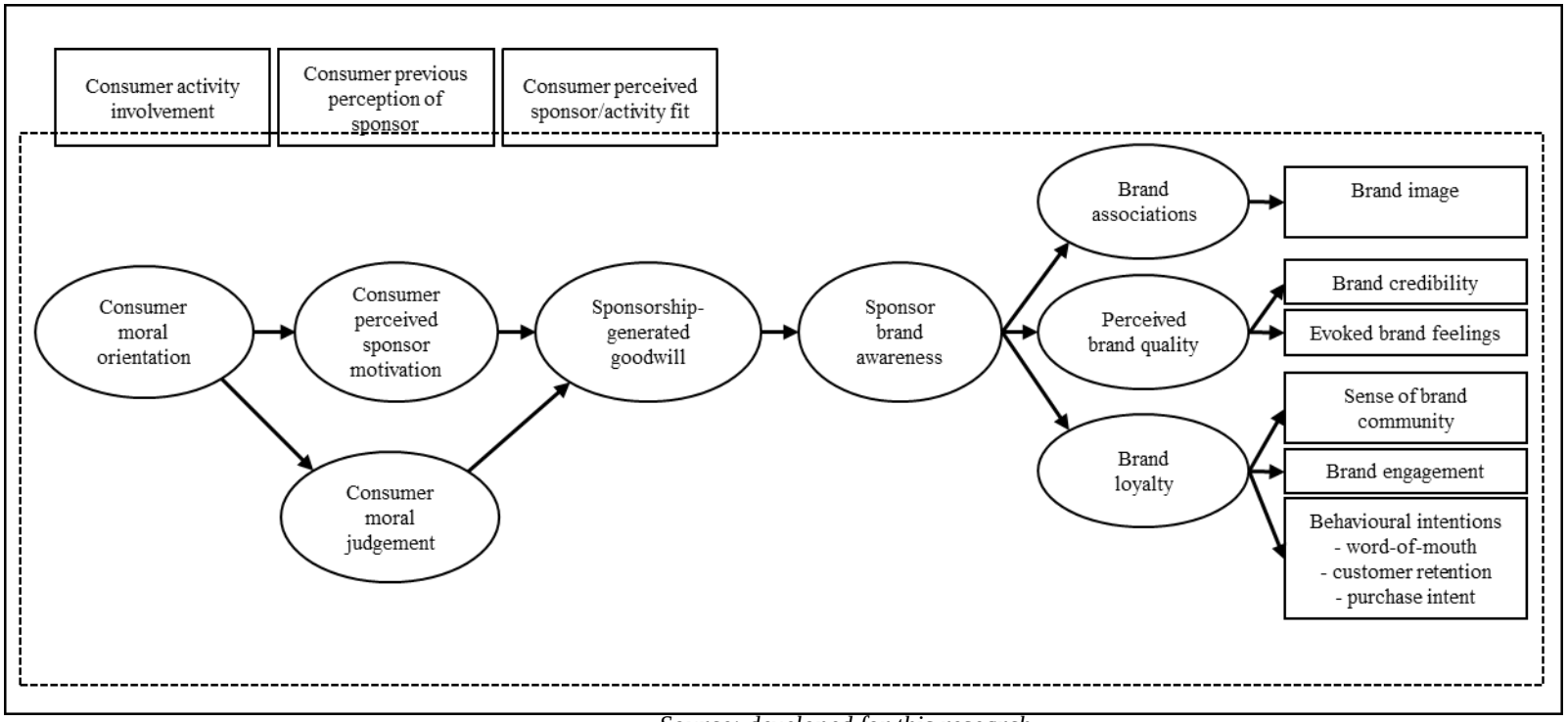
During the Stage 1c study it became apparent the respondents were applying, beyond judgements of *consumer perceived sponsor/activity fit* and *perceived sponsor motivation*, moral judgements to sponsorship examples. This is an important finding as *consumer moral judgement* has also not been considered in previous sponsorship research.

Sponsorship has its roots in altruistic behaviour (Masterman, 2007) and the literature establishes many links between the objectives of CSR, cause-related marketing and sponsorships designed to achieve image enhancement objectives (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Dean, 2002). The literature also shows that moral judgements are central mediators of consumer perceptions and behaviour (Reed et al., 2007). Recent reports have shown an increased negative community response to sponsorships perceived to have adverse social impacts (Pettigrew et al., 2012; Alexander, 2014). Therefore, based on these theoretical directions and findings from the exploratory research conducted in Stage 1c it is posited that, for sponsorship of grassroots activities, *consumer moral judgement* is a stronger mediator of *sponsorship-generated goodwill* than consumers' *perceived judgement of sponsor/activity fit* and *perceived sponsor motivation*. Therefore, the addition of the *consumer moral judgement* construct in the conceptual model makes a further theoretical contribution to the sponsorship literature.

3.4.2 THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESIS

The purpose of the Stage 1 exploratory studies was to examine the relevance of factors identified in the theoretical framework and identify any emergent factors. The theoretical framework was then developed into the conceptual model (Figure 3.5) comprised of constructs that can subsequently be tested through measurement models in the Stage 2 main study. A discussion of the conceptual model with hypothesis follows.

Figure 3.5 Conceptual model developed from the literature and Stage 1 exploratory studies



Source: developed for this research

Based on the findings from the Stage 1 exploratory studies two additions have been incorporated into the theoretical framework to develop the conceptual model. These additions are the constructs *consumer moral orientation* and *consumer moral judgement.* The conceptual model depicts *consumer moral orientation* as an independent variable and mediator of *consumer moral judgment* and *consumer perceived sponsor motivation*, that in turn are antecedent mediators of *sponsorship-generated goodwill*. The *sponsor CBBE* framework was conceptualised to measure the impact of *sponsorship-generated goodwill*.

Consumer activity involvement, *consumer previous perception of sponsor* and *consumer perceived sponsor/activity fit* were found to be contextually based factors resulting in contrasting perceptions. As such they were conceptualised as peripheral to the context of this research, however, they were retained in the conceptual model to capture descriptive data.

Drawing on the discussions above, hypothesis for the conceptual model are proposed in Table 3.16.

Table 3.16 Hypothesis for the conceptual model

Factor	Hypothesis
Consumer moral orientation	*H1a:* There is a significant positive relationship between *consumer moral orientation* and *consumer moral judgement* of sponsorship of grassroots activities. H1b: There is a significant positive relationship between a consumer moral orientation and their consumer perceived sponsor motivation.
Consumer moral judgement	*H2:* There is a significant positive relationship between *consumer moral judgement* of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the level of *sponsorship-generated goodwill*.
Consumer perceived sponsor motivation	*H3:* There is a significant positive relationship between a *consumer perceived sponsor motivation* and the level of *sponsorship-generated goodwill*.
Sponsorship-generated goodwill	*H4:* There is a significant positive relationship between *sponsorship-generated goodwill* and factors within the sponsor CBBE framework.
Sponsor brand awareness	*H5a:* There is a significant positive relationship between *sponsor brand awareness* and *brand associations*. *H5b:* There is a significant positive relationship between *sponsor brand awareness* and *perceived brand quality*. *H5c:* There is a significant positive relationship between *sponsor brand awareness* and *brand loyalty*.

With the conceptual model and hypothesis developed, the ethical considerations for this study were addressed.

3.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical clearance for this study was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of the Sunshine Coast (USC HREC). Approval (S-13546) was granted based on the privacy, anonymity and confidentiality of all research respondents being protected. Each participant was offered an information letter that explained the purpose and parameters of the research and offered them the results of the research. The information letter also confirmed that respondents could withdraw their consent to participate at any stage of the research without recrimination. Contact details for the USC HREC were provided to all respondents should they require independent response to any queries or complaints.

3.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter has provided justification for the research design (Section 3.2). The results from the Stage 1 exploratory studies (Section 3.3) were presented in relation to the three research objectives. These led to the development of the conceptual model guiding the research (Section 3.4).

A number of findings overlapped between the exploratory studies and the literature. Nonetheless, a key theme emerging from the exploratory studies was that consumers were applying moral judgements when appraising sponsorship scenarios and that their moral orientation had a mediating effect on their judgements. This important finding was incorporated into the theoretical framework drawn from the literature to develop the conceptual model.

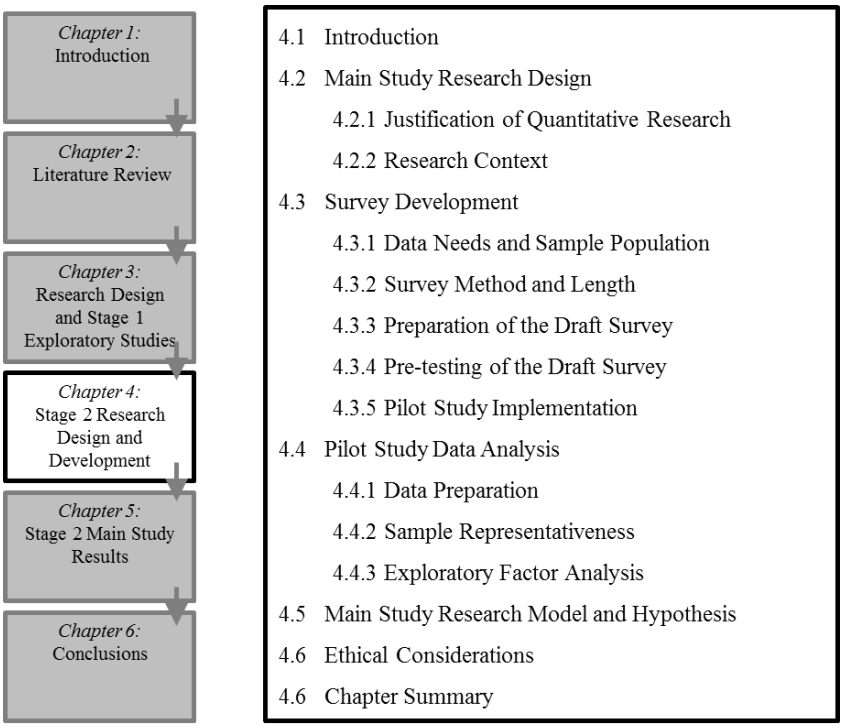
Finally, it was demonstrated that ethical clearance (Section 3.5) for this research had been formalised. Next, Chapter 4 provides details of the development and pilot testing of the survey instrument to be employed in the Stage 2 main study.

4. Stage 2 Research Design and Development

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 3 the overall research design and methodology was justified and the conceptual model was developed from findings of the Stage 1 exploratory studies. In this chapter the research methodology for the Stage 2 main study is justified and development of the survey instrument and research model is detailed. Chapter organisation is shown in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 Outline of Chapter 4



Source: developed for this research

Following the introduction (Section 4.1), the main study research design is justified (Section 4.2) with development and pre-testing of the draft survey at Section 4.3. Details and analysis of the pilot study (Section 4.4) led to development of the final survey and research model (Section 4.5). Finally, ethical considerations are discussed (Section 4.6) with a conclusion provided at Section 4.7.

4.2 MAIN STUDY RESEARCH DESIGN

Chapter 3 provided justification for the overall research paradigm, design and methodology of this research. This section progresses that discussion and is organised into two sub-sections. Firstly, Section 4.2.1 provides justification for conducting a cross-sectional, quantitative, online survey for the main study and secondly, Section 4.2.2 establishes the sponsorship research context.

4.2.1 JUSTIFICATION OF QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

In the main study a descriptive design using a quantitative online survey for conclusive research was used to address Research Objective 3.

RO3: *To develop a model of consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the subsequent impact on sponsor CBBE.*

Conclusive research involves a systematic and objective process through which a target group is sampled and responses are measured using a structured data collection method (Feinberg et al., 2008). Conclusive research can take two forms, descriptive and causal. Descriptive research involves portraying the characteristics and frequency of phenomena, determining the degree to which variables are associated and making predictions for the occurrence of phenomena (Feinberg et al., 2008; Zikmund et al., 2013). Alternatively, causal research is focused on cause and effect relationships where evidence of causality is absolute (Feinberg et al., 2008; Zikmund et al., 2013). Causality in real-world examples where dozens of variables exist is mostly ambiguous and so is a less employed method in statistical contexts (Feinberg et al., 2008; Zikmund et al., 2013).

In descriptive research it is typical to employ a cross-sectional quantitative survey (Feinberg et al., 2008; Zikmund et al., 2013). The primary advantage of this approach is the ability of surveys to collect data about respondents at one time (Aaker et al., 2004a). Additional benefits include the increased representativeness of the research sample to the population under investigation and the ability to standardise the statistical data (Malhotra, 1993). Therefore, a descriptive design using an online survey was considered most appropriate for the main study of this research. Next, the research context is detailed.

4.2.2 RESEARCH CONTEXT

The overall context of this research is sponsorship of grassroots activities. Grassroots activities can encompass a wide and diverse range of activities such as local community arts programs, community events, environmental and cause-related projects as well as amateur and junior sport (Mack, 1999; Day, 2010).

In the Stage 1c exploratory study it was found the likelihood for an individual to be able to recall an actual example for sponsorship of a grassroots activity was higher when individuals were personally involved in a particular activity. Therefore, it was more practical to narrow the research context to one type of grassroots activity for the main study.

Over 60% of Australian children participate in junior sport (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012). Given these high levels of participation and the sometimes controversial presence of sponsorship in junior sport (Bainbridge, 2013; Holt, 2013), it was chosen as the sponsorship context. Junior sport had also been identified in the literature as an emerging sponsorship context with minimal research focus (Day, 2010). Therefore, adult consumer responses to sponsorship of junior sport presents an opportunity for further investigation.

In designing the survey, a range of challenges were presented for identifying junior sports and sponsors as subjects for the respondents to focus on. To complete the survey, respondents would be required to have some involvement with a junior sport, thereby having some exposure to and recall of the sport's sponsors. Yet there are many junior sports to choose from and many do not attract sponsors because of lower participation rates (Day, 2010). If respondents were to choose an unsponsored sport, then they would not be able to complete the survey. Additionally, too many different sports being selected would necessitate an unreasonably large sample size to ensure adequate representation across sport and sponsor types.

To overcome these issues a list of the top 12 junior sports by Australian participation rates were identified (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012). These sports were described as an officially organised program for out of school hours e.g. Netball, Soccer, Cricket or Athletics (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012). Using this group of options would likely result in a higher completion rate for the survey based on the

likelihood of a respondent's involvement and because these sports were more likely to have sponsors. The 12 junior sports by participation rates are listed in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Top 12 junior sports in Australia by participation rates

Sport	Number ('000) of times in Last 12 Months					
	1–11	12–25	26–51	52 or more	Total respondents	Percentage of total respondents
Swimming & diving	46.3	73.2	230.0	122.3	472.6	20.1
Football (soccer)	63.1	85.8	146.0	88.9	397.2	16.4
Netball	37.1	48.7	81.1	53.4	220.7	9.4
AFL	41.9	62.9	67.8	42.3	216.7	9.2
Basketball	30.6	44.0	65.9	72.8	214.3	9.1
Tennis	31.1	37.7	81.6	36.0	186.4	7.9
Martial Arts	25.9	17.9	58.8	53.8	156.3	6.6
Gymnastics	26.1	18.6	51.1	34.4	130.3	5.5
Cricket (outdoor)	21.5	38.3	35.0	26.8	123.2	5.2
Rugby League	16.4	21.5	33.0	35.7	107.8	4.6
Athletics	15.3	33.9	17.4	15.1	82.3	3.5
Rugby Union	10.6	12.0	17.8	14.0	56.0	2.4
TOTALS	365.9	494.5	885.5	595.5	2,353.8	100

Source: (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012)

Whilst it was anticipated the 12 sports identified would be adequate, it was considered appropriate for the pilot study to also include an option for respondents to choose a sport from outside of these 12. This would establish if the main study would be limited or compromised if only the 12 identified from ABS data were focused on. The following sections provide details for development and testing of the main study survey.

4.3 SURVEY DEVELOPMENT

This section details the survey development process undertaken for this study. A stepped approach was employed based on recommendations by Frazer and Lawley (2000) and Zikmund et al. (2013), namely: 1) determine the data needs and sample population; 2) determine the interview method and survey length; 3) prepare the draft survey; 4) pre-test and revise the draft survey; and 5) implement a pilot study to assess the reliability and validity of the survey. These steps are addressed in detail in the following sections.

4.3.1 DATA NEEDS AND SAMPLE POPULATION

In the Stage 1 exploratory studies the research objectives required data to be sought from both sponsors and consumers. For the Stage 2 main study the focus is solely on collection of consumer data.

The data needs for the main study were based on the constructs depicted in the conceptual model developed in Chapter 3. Essentially, consumers' judgements and perceptions of sponsorships of junior sport would be sought. As players of junior sport are minors, the focus of this research was on their adult caregivers. Therefore, the context of the study required a sample population of adults who had some involvement in junior sport. In this study involvement was defined as helping with the running of an officially organised program of junior sport or having children or grandchildren that participate in junior sport and regularly watch them participate. Thereby it would be likely this sample population would have observed or experienced, and be able to recall, examples of junior sport sponsorship. In that way, *sponsor brand awareness* would be a controlled element of the survey.

The geographical context of the study was restricted to Australia due to the localised community nature of grassroots activities and cost constraints for extensive data collection. Additionally, demographic data was sought to categorise respondents in relation to gender, age, family situation and household income, as well as the respondent's level of involvement with junior sport. This demographic data was required to assess the sample population for representativeness and external validity (Zikmund et al., 2013) and was collected in a format comparable to general population data published by the Australian Bureau of Statistics.

4.3.2 SURVEY METHOD AND LENGTH

The options for collecting quantitative data for the main study included personal interviews, mail surveys, phone surveys and online surveys. Several criteria are relevant for evaluating which option best meets the needs of a research project. These criteria include cost, time, sample control, quantity and quality of data and response rates (Feinberg et al., 2008).

Use of an online survey facilitated by a registered research panel provider was considered to be the most suitable option for the main study. This decision was based on time and cost effectiveness for sourcing respondents from across Australia to increase

sample validity and representativeness. In addition, the anonymity for respondents provided by an online situation improves the quality of data and response rates (Zikmund et al., 2013).

An approximate completion time of 10–15 minutes for the online survey was deemed appropriate and was an evaluative criterion used during development and pre-testing of the survey. Preparation of the draft survey is covered next.

4.3.3 PREPARATION OF THE DRAFT SURVEY

Along with collection of demographic data, preparation of the draft survey required identification of appropriate scales to measure the constructs in the conceptual model as well as identification of study subjects. To begin with, preliminary scales and items were adapted from existing scales applicable to the constructs of the conceptual model.

The constructs being measured pertained to perceptions. Semantic differential and Likert-type response formats are typically used for measuring perceptions (Feinberg et al., 2008; Zikmund et al., 2013), thus were chosen for the survey. Both semantic differential and Likert-type scales require the respondent to nominate a rated response to a statement or question. An important decision in survey design is to determine the right number of categories to include in the rating scale. Typically, semantic differential scales contain seven categories while Likert-type scales contain five, yet both can contain up to ten (Aaker et al., 2004a; Zikmund et al., 2013). The larger the number of categories the more precise is the measurement (Wilson, 2006). Nonetheless, larger numbers require the respondent to be able to make much finer distinctions when assessing what is being measured which can lead to respondent confusion and/or frustration (Wilson, 2006). As recommended by Wilson (2006) to provide adequate sensitivity, consistency and effective interpretation, all of the measurement scales for this survey were adapted to seven point categories with favourable descriptors placed on the same side (left-hand) of the survey.

Table 4.2 lists the antecedent constructs and identified existing scales along with the scale sources, items and then the adapted scale items for use in the survey. Following this, Table 4.3 lists the endogenous constructs conceptualised for the *sponsor CBBE* framework. All of the scale items were initially adapted through consultation between the researcher and supervisors before pre-testing.

Table 4.2 Antecedent constructs from the conceptual model and scale adaption

Construct and Conceptual Definition	Operational Design	Existing Scale Items	Adapted Scale Items for this study
Peripheral constructs			
Consumer activity involvement Felt involvement (in general) and enduring involvement with the sponsored event are variables that may influence the consumer's information processing of a sponsorship and are expected to influence consumers' perceived fit between sponsor and event (Cornwell et al., 2005).	13, seven-point semantic differential items to measure personal involvement with a junior sport. Adapted from: Personal involvement inventory (Zaichkowsky, 1994) Marketing Scales Handbook - #359; $\alpha = 0.95$	1. Unimportant / important 2. Of no concern / of concern to me 3. Irrelevant / relevant 4. Means nothing to me / means a lot to me 5. Useless / useful 6. Worthless / valuable 7. Trivial / fundamental 8. Not beneficial / beneficial 9. Doesn't matter / matters to me 10. Uninterested / interested 11. Insignificant / significant 12. Superfluous / vital 13. Boring / interesting 14. Unexciting / exciting 15. Unappealing / appealing 16. Mundane / fascinating 17. Nonessential / essential 18. Undesirable / desirable 19. Unwanted / wanted 20. Not needed / needed 21. Not involved / highly involved 22. Uninvolving / involving	1. Weak relationship/Strong relationship 2. Important / unimportant 3.Meaningful/Meaningless 4. Involving/uninvolving 5. Valuable/Worthless 6. Beneficial/Not beneficial 7. Interesting/Uninteresting 8. Exciting/Unexciting 9. Appealing/Unappealing 10. Wanted/Unwanted 11. Needed/Not needed 12. Relevant/Irrelevant 13. Inexpensive/Expensive
Consumer previous perception of sponsor A consumer's past experience with and knowledge of a sponsor can impact the	To be measured with two scales: A scale of eight seven-point semantic differential items adapted from Becker-Olsen	#78 Attitude toward the company My overall impression of XYZ company is: 1. Good / bad 2. Favourable / unfavourable 3. Satisfactory / unsatisfactory	1. Trustworthy/Untrustworthy 2. Respectable/Not respectable 3. Highly regarded/Not highly regarded 4. Having good products or service/ Not having good products or service

Construct and Conceptual Definition	Operational Design	Existing Scale Items	Adapted Scale Items for this study
processing of sponsorship messages (Cornwell et al., 2005).	et al. (2006) and Rodgers (2003) to measure attitude. Adapted from: *Attitude toward the company* - (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006) Marketing Scales Handbook - #78; α = 0.93 *Attitude towards the website* (Rodgers, 2003) Marketing Scales Handbook - #125; α = 0.89	4. Negative / positive 5. Disliked / liked #125 Attitude towards the website 1. untrustworthy / trustworthy 2. not credible / credible 3. biased / unbiased 4. not believable / believable 5. not reputable / reputable 6. not experienced / experienced 7. not knowledgeable / knowledgeable 8. not qualified / qualified 9. compromising / not compromising 10. unethical / ethical 11. not objective / objective	5. Being community minded/Not being community minded 6. Desirable/Not desirable 7. Favourable/Unfavourable 8. Good at what they do/Not good at what they do
	2, seven-point semantic differential items to measure personal involvement with the sponsor. Adapted from: Personal involvement inventory (Zaichkowsky, 1994) Marketing Scales Handbook - #359; α = 0.95	1. Unimportant / important 2. Of no concern / of concern to me 3. Irrelevant / relevant 4. Means nothing to me / means a lot to me 5. Useless / useful 6. Worthless / valuable 7. Trivial / fundamental 8. Not beneficial / beneficial 9. Doesn't matter / matters to me 10.Uninterested / interested 11. Insignificant / significant 12. Superfluous / vital 13. Boring / interesting 14.Unexciting / exciting 15. Unappealing / appealing 16. Mundane / fascinating	1. Weak relationship/Strong relationship 2. Important / unimportant 3.Meaningful/Meaningless 4. Involving/uninvolving 5. Valuable/Worthless 6. Beneficial/Not beneficial 7. Interesting/Uninteresting 8. Exciting/Unexciting 9. Appealing/Unappealing 10. Wanted/Unwanted 11. Needed/Not needed 12. Relevant/Irrelevant 13. Inexpensive/Expensive

Construct and Conceptual Definition	Operational Design	Existing Scale Items	Adapted Scale Items for this study
		17. Nonessential / essential 18. Undesirable / desirable 19. Unwanted / wanted 20. Not needed / needed 21. Not involved / highly involved 22. Uninvolving / involving	
Consumer perceived sponsor/activity fit Based on congruence theory, a perception of good fit between sponsor and activity is considered to aid memory recall and message processing of sponsorships (Cornwell et al., 2005).	A scale of four seven-point semantic differential items Adapted from: Congruence (Rifon et al., 2004) Marketing Scales Handbook - #231; $\alpha = 0.90$	1. Not compatible/compatible 2. Not a good fit/ good fit 3. Not congruent/ congruent	1. A good fit/Not a good fit 2. Compatible/Not compatible 3. Well-suited/Not well suited 4. Makes sense/Doesn't make sense
Mediating constructs			
Consumer moral orientation The way in which individuals view the world and their concern for others based on their personal moral values and the viewpoint from which judgements about a company's behaviour are made (Chernev and Blair, 2015).	Nine variable items to measure personal values on a seven-point scale. Adapted from: Benevolence importance (Burroughs and Rindfleisch, 2002) Marketing Scales Handbook - #160; $\alpha = 0.81$	1. Helpful (working for the welfare of others) 2. Honest (genuine, sincere) 3. Forgiving (willing to pardon others) 4. Loyal (faithful to my friends, group) 5. Responsible (dependable, reliable) 6. A spiritual life (emphasis on spiritual not material matters) 7. True friendship (close, supportive friends) 8. Mature love (deep emotional and spiritual intimacy) 9. Meaning in life (a purpose in life)	1. Helpfulness (working for the welfare of others) 2. Honesty (genuine, sincere) 3. Forgiveness (willing to pardon others) 4. Loyalty (faithful to my friends, group) 5. Responsibility (dependable, reliable) 6. Spirituality (emphasis on spiritual not material matters) 7. True friendship (close, supportive friends) 8. Mature love (deep emotional and spiritual intimacy) 9. Meaning in life (a purpose in life)
Consumer moral judgement An emergent theme from the Stage 1 Exploratory Study	A scale of nine seven-point semantic differential items Adapted from:	Over 60 potential items to use	That business' sponsorship of your chosen junior sport is something you would consider to be: 1. Moral/Not Moral

Construct and Conceptual Definition	Operational Design	Existing Scale Items	Adapted Scale Items for this study
(Section 3.4). Based on their appraisal of sponsorship scenarios, respondents in the exploratory study were making morality based judgements about sponsorship scenarios before providing a response about goodwill.	Attitude toward the ad (General) (Mitchell and Olson, 1981) Marketing Scales Handbook- # 59; *a* = 0.69 - 0.98 *Attitude toward the ad* (Unipolar) (La Tour et al., 1996) Marketing Scales Handbook - #66; *a* = 0.84 Ethicality (Reidenbach and Robin, 1990) Marketing Scales Handbook - #283; *a* = 0.69 – 0.96		2. Appropriate/Not appropriate 3. Sensitive/Not sensitive 4. Agreeable/Not agreeable 5. Good/Bad 6. Ethical/Not ethical 7. Good for the community/Not good for the community 8. Inoffensive/Offensive 9. Honest/Dishonest
Consumer perceived sponsor motivation Consumers may judge the sponsor as having benevolent motivations (feels the activity is deserving) or self-serving (profit or reputation enhancement) (Rifon et al., 2004).	A scale of six, seven-point Likert-type statements to measure both negative and positive perceptions. Adapted from: Attitude towards the company's altruism (Dean, 2002) Marketing Scales Handbook - #81; α = 0.89 & #82; α = 0.79	#81 Altruism (negative) 1. XYZ would have an ulterior motive if it sponsored the XYZ 2. XYZ would be acting in its own self-interest if it sponsored the XYZ 3. XYZ would be acting to benefit itself if it sponsored the XYZ 4. XYZ would have something other than altruistic intentions if it sponsored the XYZ # 82 Altruism (positive) 1. XYZ's sponsorship of the XYZ would be an act if corporate altruism	1. That company is acting unselfishly by sponsoring your chosen junior sport. 2. That company's sponsorship of your chosen junior sport is a generous act. 3. That company's sponsorship of your chosen junior sport is a charitable act. 4. That company has an ulterior motive for sponsoring your junior sport 5. The company is acting in its own self-interest by sponsoring your chosen junior sport.

Construct and Conceptual Definition	Operational Design	Existing Scale Items	Adapted Scale Items for this study
		2. XYZ's sponsorship of the XYZ would be a generous act 3. XYZ would be acting unselfishly if it sponsored the XYZ 4. XYZ sponsorship of the XYZ would be an act of kindness.	6. That company has something other than charitable intentions when sponsoring your chosen junior sport
Sponsorship-generated goodwill This construct comprises consumers' affective responses to sponsorship that translates to positive perceptions and behavioural intent towards the sponsor's brand. (Meenaghan, 2001) *Note:* while it is inferred that sponsorship generally promotes positive goodwill it is possible for sponsorships to generate a negative reaction.	A scale of 12, seven-point semantic differential items to measure attitudes towards the sponsorship. Adapted from: Attitude toward the ad (General) (Mitchell and Olson, 1981) Marketing Scales Handbook – # 59; α = 0.69 - 0.98 Note: This scale and its variations have been used more than any other in scholarly marketing research to measure attitudes towards marketing activities.	46 potential items to use	1. I'm ok with it/I'm not ok with it 2. Improves their standing with me/Doesn't improve their standing with me 3. Increases my goodwill toward them/Doesn't increase my goodwill to them 4. Its helpful/It's not helpful 5. I like it/I dislike it 6. It's not annoying/It's annoying 7. Its valuable /It's not valuable 8. Favourable /Not favourable 9. Positive/ Negative 10. It makes the junior sport more affordable/It doesn't make the junior sport more affordable 11. It's not intrusive/It's too intrusive 12. It improves the enjoyment of the junior sport/It detracts from the enjoyment of the junior sport

Table 4.3 Endogenous constructs from the conceptual model and scale adaptation

Construct and Conceptual Definition	Operational Design	Existing Scale Items	Adapted Scale Items for this study
Endogenous CBBE constructs			
Sponsor CBBE (international) Conceptualised from general brand equity literature where brand equity measures the relative value of a specific brand to a consumer compared to similar competing brands due to its name (above and beyond its features and quality) (Aaker, 1991; Yoo et al., 2000).	Five, seven-point Likert-type statements drawn from the general brand equity scales listed below		1. Overall, their sponsorship of your chosen junior sport has now improved your attitude towards that company 2. Overall, their sponsorship of your chosen junior sport now makes that company seem more credible to you 3. Overall, their sponsorship of your chosen junior sport now improves that company's image to you 4. Overall, their sponsorship of your chosen junior sport now makes that company more reputable to you 5. Overall, their sponsorship of your chosen junior sport now makes you believe that company can be relied upon
Brand associations Beyond brand awareness for most consumers in most situations other considerations such as the meaning and image of the brand also come into play. *Brand Image* Relates to the perceived personality of the brand and profile of its users (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002).	Eight items using seven-point Likert-type scale Adapted from: *Brand personality (*sincerity) (Aaker, 1997) Marketing Scales Handbook - #181; a = 0.93	1. Down to earth 2. Family-oriented 3. Small-town 4. Honest 5. Sincere 6. Real 7. Wholesome 8. Original 9. Cheerful 10. Sentimental 11. Friendly	1. More down to earth 2. More community focused 3. More honest 4. More sincere 5. More 'real' 6. More friendly 7. More genuine 8. More caring

Construct and Conceptual Definition	Operational Design	Existing Scale Items	Adapted Scale Items for this study
		12. Genuine	
Perceived brand quality Consumers may form judgments that transcend more specific brand or product quality concerns to consider broader issues related to the company or organization (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002).	The construct of *perceived brand quality* was measured through the higher order factors *of brand credibility* and *evoked brand feelings* as listed below.		
Brand credibility Can be assessed on expertise, trustworthiness and likability (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002).	Seven items using a seven point Likert-type scale adapted from the Credibility scale used by a range of researchers Credibility (trustworthiness & expertise) (Ohanian, 1990) Marketing Scales Handbook - #256; $\alpha = 0.89$	1. Insincere / sincere 2. Dishonest / honest 3. Not dependable / dependable 4. Not trustworthy / trustworthy 5. Not credible / credible 6. Biased / not biased 7. Not believable / believable 8. Disreputable / reputable 9. Unreliable / reliable 10. Untruthful / truthful 11. Unconvincing / convincing 12. Not at all expert / expert 13. Not true / true	1. More credible 2. More trustworthy 3. More expert 4. More believable 5. More reputable 6. More reliable 7. More dependable
Evoked brand feelings The level of social approval and self-respect a consumer feels when being associated with a brand (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002).	Three, seven-point Likert-type statements to assess the level of social attraction the consumer feels to the sponsor Adapted from: Social attraction	How would being associated with this group reflect on someone? *Very negatively / very positively* How much would you like to be identified with this group and what they represent*? Not at all / very much*	1. Because of their sponsorship of your chosen junior sport how would being associated with that company reflect on someone? *Very positively / very negatively* 2. Because of their sponsorship of your chosen junior sport how much would you like to be

Construct and Conceptual Definition	Operational Design	Existing Scale Items	Adapted Scale Items for this study
	(Escalas and Bettman, 2003) Marketing Scales Handbook - #617; α = 0.93	To what extent would you like being linked to this group and what they stand for? *Definitely dislike being linked / definitely like being linked*	identified with that company and what they represent*? Very much / Not at all* 3. Because of their sponsorship of your chosen junior sport to what extent would you like being identified as a customer of that national company? *Definitely like being identified / definitely dislike being identified*
Brand loyalty A loyal customer base represents a barrier to entry, a basis for a price premium, time to respond to competitor innovations and a bulwark against deleterious competition or corporate blunders (Aaker, 1996).	*Brand loyalty* measurement will be operationalised through the higher order factors of *sense of brand community*, *brand engagement* and *behavioural intentions* as described below.		
Sense of brand community The level of connection a consumer feels with other users, employees or representatives of the brand (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002).	Six, seven-point Likert-type statements. Adapted from: Brand community engagement (Algesheimer et al., 2005) Marketing Scales Handbook - #168; α = 0.88 Brand community identification (Algesheimer et al., 2005) Marketing Scales Handbook	#168 Brand community engagement 1. I benefit from the brand community's rules 2. I am motivated to participate in the brand community's activities because I feel better afterwards 3. I am motivated to participate in the brand community's activities because I am able to support other members 4. I am motivated to participate in the brand community's activities because I am able to reach personal goals #169 Brand community identification 1. I am very attached to the community.	1. You now feel a greater sense of attachment with that company 2. You now feel a greater sense of camaraderie with that company 3. You now feel that you share something in common with that company 4. You now feel that you know that company better 5. You now feel that company is part of your community 6. You now feel that company has helped to strengthen your community

Construct and Conceptual Definition	Operational Design	Existing Scale Items	Adapted Scale Items for this study
	#169 - α = 0.92 Brand community interest (McAlexander et al., 2002) Marketing Scales Handbook - #170; α = 0.70	2. Other brand community members and I share the same objectives. 3. The friendships I have with other brand community members mean a lot to me. 4. If brand community members planned something, I'd think of it as something 'we' would do rather than 'they' would do 5. I see myself as a part of the brand community #170 Brand community interest 1. I have met wonderful people because of my _____ 2. I feel a sense of kinship with other _____ owners 3. I have an interest in a club for _____ owners	
Brand engagement Involvement with the brand beyond purchase or consumption (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002).	A five item seven-point Likert type scale Adapted from: Intimacy with the company (Aaker et al., 2004b) Marketing Scales Handbook - #356; α = 0.83 - 0.87 Curiosity about the product (Menon and Soman, 2002) Marketing Scales Handbook - #262; α = 0.80	#356 Intimacy with the company 1. I would feel comfortable sharing detailed information about myself with _____ 2. _____really understands my needs in the _____category. 3. I'd feel comfortable describing _____ to someone who is not familiar with it. 4. I am familiar with the range of goods and services _____ offers. 5. I have become very knowledgeable about _____. 6. I am likely to be using ___one year from now. #262 Curiosity about the product	1. You are now interested in knowing more about other community activities that the company sponsors 2. You are now more likely to link with that company on social media 3. You are now more curious to know more about that company 4. You are now willing to receive other information from that company about their products 5. You would now feel involved when reading about that company's products

Construct and Conceptual Definition	Operational Design	Existing Scale Items	Adapted Scale Items for this study
		1. How curious do you feel about this product? 2. How interested would you be in reading more about this product? 3. How involved did you feel in reading the advertisement about the product? 4. How interested would you be in checking out this product in the store?	
Behavioural intentions Higher CBBE levels are known to lead to consumer preferences and purchase intentions as well as advocacy and recommendations (Pappu et al., 2005).	A six item seven-point Likert type scale Adapted from: Loyalty (active) (Zeithaml et al., 1996) Marketing Scales Handbook - #403; *a* = 0.93 – 0.94	1. Say positive things about XYZ to other people. 2. Recommend XYZ to someone who seeks your advice. 3. Encourage friends and relatives to do business with XYZ. 4. Consider XYZ your first choice to buy services. 5. Do more business with XYZ in the next few years. 6. Do less business with XYZ in the next few years (-). 7. Take some of your business to a competitor that offers better prices (-). 8. Continue to do business with XYZ if its prices increase somewhat. 9. Pay a higher price than competitors charge for the benefits you currently receive from XYZ. 10. Switch to a competitor if you experience a problem with XYZ's service. 11. Complain to other customers if you experience a problem with XYZ's service.	1. You are now more likely to say positive things about that company to other people. 2. You are now more likely to do more business with that company in the future 3. You are now more likely to recommend that company to people who ask your advice. 4. You are now more likely to encourage friends and relatives to do business with that company 5. You are now more likely to consider that company as your first choice to buy from when you next buy the products they offer. 5. I will do more business with this sponsor in the next few years. 6. Now you would be likely to re-commence or continue to do business with that company even if they increased their prices somewhat

Construct and Conceptual Definition	Operational Design	Existing Scale Items	Adapted Scale Items for this study
		12. Complain to external agencies, such as the Better Business Bureau, if you experience a problem with XYZ's service. 13. Complain to XYZ's employees if you experience a problem with XYZ's service.	

Following identification and adaption of the scales, pre-testing and revision of the survey instrument was undertaken as described next.

4.3.4 PRE-TESTING OF THE DRAFT SURVEY

Following the recommendations of Frazer and Lawley (2000), pre-testing and revision of the draft survey was completed in three stages before progressing to the pilot study.

Stage 1 comprised a convenience sample (n=7) reflective of the proposed sample for the main study. The draft survey was presented to each respondent as a hard copy in a depth interview situation to ascertain duration of the survey completion and to identify any formatting or syntax related issues.

Stage 2 was also conducted in a depth interview situation with a convenience sample (n=5) reflective of potential end users of the main study results, that is, marketing managers involved in sponsorship related roles.

For ***Stage 3*** an expert panel (n=6) were supplied the draft survey via email with each requested to review the survey and provide feedback by return email. The expert panel were selected using judgement sampling and comprised active researchers with experience in quantitative marketing research. This stage of the review provided further face validity as feedback was sought on the chosen scales and adapted items as well as wording and format of the survey (Frazer and Lawley, 2000).

There were several issues identified from the pre-testing of the draft survey. These related to three key themes being 1) survey length; 2) question design; and 3) subject identification. Revision of the draft survey was undertaken to address these issues as follows.

Survey Length

Completion time for the draft survey ranged from 18–29 minutes, with the average time taken being 21 minutes. All respondents noted this was too long. The concern with this issue is that respondents would either become frustrated or lose interest in the survey leading to incompletion or a lack of quality in the data collected (Aaker et al., 2004a; Feinberg et al., 2008).

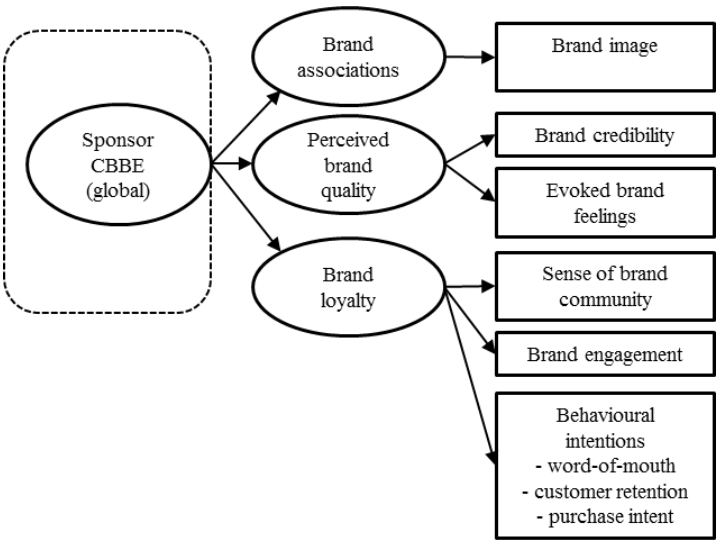
Factors contributing to the survey completion time were the number of overall questions, the complexity of some questions and the volume of scale items for many of the questions. The main areas of concern regarding number and complexity of questions were the structure of the sections related to identification of sponsors and the level of

respondents' involvement with both a junior sport and its sponsors. To address these issues suggestions from the expert panel regarding question stem wording were adopted. Identification of sponsors was a more complex issue and is addressed separately below.

The volume of scale items, particularly those being applied within the *sponsor CBBE* conceptual model, was reviewed. Nonetheless, it was concluded that the majority of the items should be retained for the pilot study so that factor analysis could be undertaken to better inform scale revision as per recommendations from Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) and Hair et al. (2003). This would also support the method contributions of the study where existing scales could be effectively added to or adapted.

In addition, due to *sponsor brand awareness* being controlled, revision of the conceptual model developed for *sponsor CBBE* in Section 3.4.6 was required. As shown in Figure 4.2, *sponsor brand awareness* was removed and replaced by *sponsor CBBE global* in the model.

Figure 4.2 Revised conceptual model of *sponsor CBBE*



Source: developed for this research

Question design

The pre-testing revealed some of the terms being used in the question stems led to ambiguity in interpretation by respondents. For example, 'involvement in junior sport' required clarification. Misinterpretation or distortion of question meaning can result in response errors (Aaker et al., 2004a; Feinberg et al., 2008).

Subject identification

A key finding from the pre-testing was that respondents struggled to identify actual sponsors of the junior sports. The literature shows that recall of a sponsor is essential to better understand the effects of sponsorship exposure (Cornwell et al., 2005). Precedents using aided recall of sponsors in research are well established (Johar and Pham, 1999; Quester and Thompson, 2001; Olson, 2010) and this was considered as a solution to the issue. However, prompting through use of actual sponsor names in some instances is considered problematic because of potential for acquiescence bias influencing affective responses (Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013). Compounding this issue is the context of this study. That is, due to the nature of junior sport it is often local small businesses that provide sponsorship (Mack, 1999) and it would be impractical if not impossible to list all such options.

To overcome these issues, secondary research was undertaken to identify actual sponsors of the top 12 junior sports being used in the survey. From this research seven broad categories were identified for inclusion in the pilot study survey for respondents to select from. The categories were: 1) bank; 2) insurance company; 3) fast food chain; 4) supermarket; 5) national retailer (e.g. a telecommunications company, a power company or a manufacturer or seller of electrical goods); 6) a food or beverage brand (e.g. breakfast cereal or energy drink); and 7) a local business (e.g. real estate, newsagent, butcher, construction company or a community club). There was also an option provided to nominate other types of business thereby ensuring the pilot study would identify any other business categories that may have been needed to be included in the main study.

From this list of sponsor categories, the respondents were asked to think of, and name a sponsor of, the junior sport they are involved in. As such, real sponsorship scenarios would be identified by the respondents. Respondents who could not identify a sponsor would be excluded from the survey as they would not be able to complete the questions relating to effects of sponsorship recall. As such, *sponsor brand awareness* was a controlled construct in the pilot study.

Following review of all the feedback and further discussion with supervisors, the draft survey was refined and adjusted to suit the online survey format being used for the pilot study. Implementation and analysis of the pilot study is next.

4.3.5 PILOT STUDY IMPLEMENTATION

It had been determined that using an online format would best suit the requirements of the main study (Section 4.3.2). Therefore, Survey Monkey, a cloud-based service for conducting customisable surveys on-line, was chosen as an acceptably convenient and effective option for implementing the pilot study.

Following provision of ethics clearance for the pilot study (Section 4.6) the draft survey was set up in Survey Monkey and tested by the researcher and supervisors. It was then published and respondents were initially sourced by email from the professional and social networks of the researcher and supervisors. Snowball sampling was then instigated by asking the initial respondents to forward the survey on through their own networks as this was helpful to achieve a larger and adequate sample (Zikmund et al., 2013). A total of 76 responses to the survey were collected during a four-week period in September 2015. Of the 76 responses, 30 were fully completed and useable for data analysis as discussed next.

4.4 PILOT STUDY DATA ANALYSIS

This section provides an analysis of the data collected from the pilot study as a final step towards development of the research model and survey for the main study. The process for data analysis followed recommendations from Hair et al. (2003) and Zikmund et al. (2013). Firstly, the data set was prepared for analysis by examining for errors or missing data. The descriptive variables in the data set were then analysed using SPSS (version 23) to assess representativeness of the sample and exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to refine the construct scales and determine their validity and reliability.

4.4.1 DATA PREPARATION

In terms of completion rates it was deemed necessary to obtain a minimum of 30 fully completed surveys to offer an acceptable level of statistical precision for this stage of the testing (Feinberg et al., 2008; Field, 2013). Of the 76 responses obtained, 14 were eliminated due to the respondents either having no involvement in junior sport (n=3) or not being able to recall a sponsor (n=11). This rate of elimination was taken into account when commissioning the online panel for the main study.

A further 16 responses (21%) were incomplete where respondents chose to exit the survey at various points throughout the survey. A high rate of incompletion was not unexpected at this stage of the survey development due to its length and complexity. While this would be of more concern in the main study, the pilot study was being used to determine the practicality of the survey structure and to refine the set of variables (Zikmund et al., 2013).

This left a sample of 46 respondents who completed the survey. However, 16 of these were unable to complete Questions 22–27 as they identified as not having had previous experience of the sponsor. These questions had been included to assist with determining *consumer previous perceptions of sponsor*. However, in the context of junior sport, where local businesses such as real estate agents and building companies are prevalent as sponsors, it is likely that respondents may not have regular involvement with such sponsors. The inclusion of these questions was problematic for method as it led to the emergence of a subset within the sample, thereby diluting the sample and making it more difficult to assess results. Consequently, it was decided to omit these questions from the main study as this would also help with shortening the survey and reducing some of the repetition issues identified.

Excluding those 16 responses left a sample of 30 who had fully completed the survey. Those 30 responses were then analysed for representativeness prior to testing for reliability and validity through EFA.

4.4.2 SAMPLE REPRESENTATIVENESS

A demographic profile of the final 30 respondents is provided at Table 4.4. The demographic profile shows a skew towards the age range from 36 years through to 55 years. While this is inconsistent with general Australian population figures (shown in the right-hand column of Table 4.4), the age and gender profile of the respondents is representative of the desired target sample of adults with children or grandchildren participating in junior sport. As such the sample was considered relevant for the purpose of the pilot study.

The distribution of identified sports within the 30 complete responses was considered adequate for this stage of analysis. Nonetheless, Rugby Union and Basketball attracted no responses. Those two sports have sponsors and it is more likely, due to their

popularity, they would be selected within a larger sample. Consequently, they were retained for the main study. However, Gymnastics and Martial Arts also did not attract responses and secondary research showed those sports had minimal sponsorship. Consequently, those two sports were excluded from the main study.

Table 4.4 Pilot study respondent profiles

Demographic		Frequency	Percentage	Australian Population Percentage*
Gender	Male	15	50	49.8
	Female	15	50	50.2
Age Range	18–25	2	6.7	7.0
	26–35	4	13.3	14.8
	36–45	11	36.7	13.6
	46–55	12	40.0	13.0
	56–65	1	3.3	11.5
	66+	0	1.3	15.0
Totals		30	100	74.9**

*sourced from (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015c)
**excludes those aged 18 and under

Next the distribution of sports was analysed (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5 Sports selected in the pilot study

Sport	Frequency
Athletics	3
AFL	4
Basketball	0
Cricket	2
Football (Soccer)	5
Gymnastics	0
Martial Arts	0
Netball	2
Rugby League	3
Rugby Union	0
Swimming	1
Tennis	1
Other	8
TOTAL	30

Analysis of the full data set of 76 respondents revealed that, of the 25 respondents who chose ‘Other’ as the sponsor category, 17 were unable to complete the survey either because they couldn’t identify a sponsor or had no previous experience or knowledge of the sponsor. As a result, it was concluded that to improve completion rates, the ‘Other’ option would also be excluded from the main study.

Analysis of the types of business that were identified as sponsors showed an even distribution, albeit with a higher representation of 'Local business'. This was an expected outcome and therefore prompted no changes for the main study.

In summary, the sample, whilst small, was considered adequate and representative of the target population to meet the objectives of the pilot study. Next EFA was conducted on the construct scales.

4.4.3 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

Along with testing the survey structure and function in an online situation, a key purpose of testing the draft survey through a pilot study was to provide an opportunity to refine the construct dimensions and to test scale validity and reliability (Hair et al., 2003; Zikmund et al., 2013). EFA using SPSS (version 23) was undertaken for this purpose. Tests conducted were Kaiser-Maeyer-Okin (KMO) assessment of sampling adequacy, Bartlett Test of Sphericity for significance and an analysis of inter-item correlations. These tests are recommended by Field (2013) and Hair et al. (2003) to identify each of the primary factor dimensions and sub-factor dimensions for item evaluation.

To test sampling adequacy, KMO represents the ratio of the squared correlation between items to the squared partial correlation between items (Field, 2013). The KMO statistic varies between zero and one with a value closer to one indicating a more compact pattern of correlations where factor analysis should yield distinct and reliable factors (Field, 2013). Values below 0.5 are considered unacceptable and based on recommendations from Field (2013) and Hair et al. (2010) a minimum KMO value of 0.70 was applied as the test threshold.

Bartlett's test of sphericity measures the overall significance of all correlations within a correlation matrix and provides evidence that there is significant correlation between at least some of the items in a factor (Hair et al., 2010). As a rule of thumb a sphericity measure of <0.05 indicates sufficient correlations exist among the items and so was established as the threshold for this testing (Hair et al., 2010; Field, 2013).

For each factor the lowest cross-loading items were initially deleted and the process repeated until a univariate scale was realised. Once the most parsimonious and logical results developed, the scales were tested for reliability using Cronbach's coefficient alpha which is the most common measure of scale reliability (Field, 2013).

A Cronbach's alpha score of >0.70 was considered an acceptable measure of reliability (Hair et al., 2010; Field, 2013). The EFA results for the mediating constructs of the pilot study are provided in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 EFA results for constructs from the pilot study data

Primary Factor	No. of Items Retained	Item Loading Range	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	KMO	Cronbach's Alpha
Consumer moral orientation (values)	4	0.78–0.94	0.00	0.82	0.93
Consumer moral orientation (behaviour)	3	0.78–0.92	0.00	0.73	0.90
Consumer activity involvement	6	0.76–0.96	0.00	0.81	0.94
Consumer previous perception of sponsor	7	0.71–0.96	0.00	0.88	0.96
*Consumer involvement with sponsor	-	No factor matrix available	0.00	0.83	0.96
Consumer perceived sponsor/activity fit	4	0.93–1.00	0.00	0.74	0.98
Consumer moral judgement	7	0.79–1.00	0.00	0.87	0.98
Consumer perceived sponsor motivation (positive)	3	0.87–0.99	0.00	0.72	0.94
Consumer perceived sponsor motivation (negative)	4	0.84–0.97	0.00	0.85	0.96
Sponsorship-generated goodwill	10	0.73–0.99	0.00	0.86	0.97

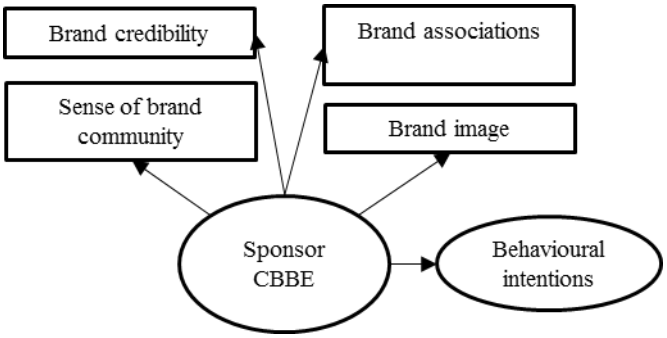
* This factor was excluded from the main study research model (see Section 4.4.1)

Based on the EFA results, the scales for *consumer moral orientation*, *consumer activity involvement*, *consumer moral judgement*, and *sponsorship-generated goodwill* were reduced in item numbers. *Consumer perceived sponsor motivation* was retained as two separate scales, one being negative focused and the other positive, in keeping with the original application of these scales by Dean (2002) and the EFA showing they should not be combined. *Consumer perceived sponsor/activity fit* was retained as a four-item scale based on acceptable EFA results. The results for EFA of these constructs confirmed their validity and reliability was suitable for application in the main study. As discussed in Section 4.4.1 (p. 104), *consumer previous perception of sponsor* and *consumer involvement with sponsor* would be excluded from the main study because of method based issues.

EFA confirmed the existence of multiple factors for the s*ponsor CBBE* model (Figure 4.2, p.102). The scale used to measure *sponsor CBBE* (*global)* emerged as a more effective measure of *brand associations* and, along with the scales for *brand image, brand credibility* and *sense of brand community,* and was refined based on the EFA results to reflect the perception elements of the *sponsor CBBE* model. However, the factors of *evoked brand feelings* related to *perceived brand quality,* and *brand engagement* related to *brand loyalty,* were not valid measures. Therefore, they were excluded from the research model. Rather, the scale for *behavioural intentions* related to *brand loyalty* emerged as an endogenous construct.

This process resulted in a revised conceptual model for the *sponsor CBBE* framework, as shown in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3 Revised conceptual model of *sponsor CBBE*



Source: developed for this research

The EFA results for the *sponsor CBBE* measures are provided in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 EFA results for *sponsor CBBE* framework from the pilot study

Construct	No. of Items Retained	Item Loading Range	Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	KMO	Cronbach's Alpha
Brand associations	3	0.94–0.98	0.00	0.77	0.98
Brand image	7	0.88–0.99	0.00	0.87	0.98
Brand credibility	7	0.92–1.00	0.00	0.91	0.99
Sense of brand community	5	0.75 - 0.99	0.00	0.81	0.96
Behavioural intentions	4	0.9–1.00	0.00	0.74	0.99

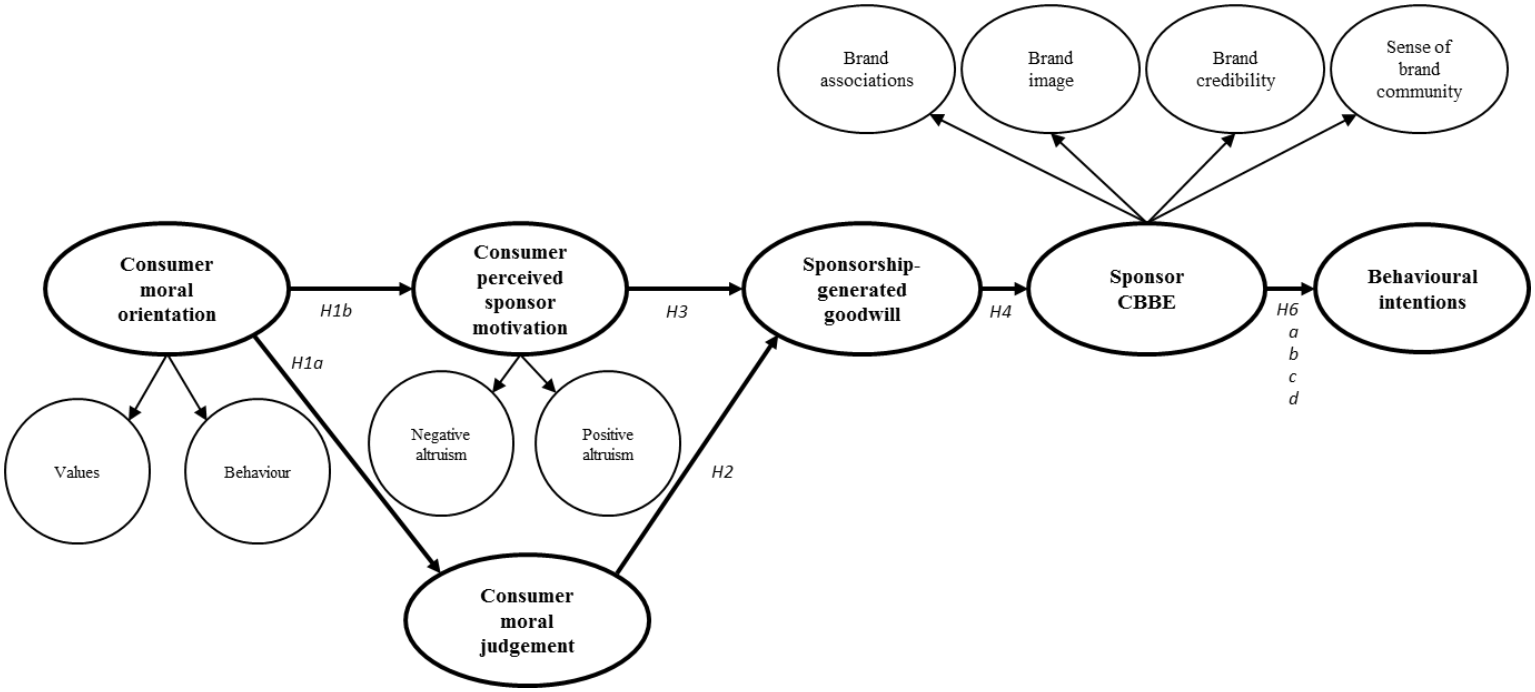
Conducting EFA on the pilot study data enabled revision of the conceptual model to provide a valid research model for testing in the main study. The research model is discussed in the following section.

4.5 MAIN STUDY RESEARCH MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

Following consideration of the EFA results from the pilot study, the conceptual model developed from the Stage 1 exploratory studies was revised to provide a research model (Figure 4.4, p. 111) for the main study. In addition, the study hypotheses were revised.

Based on survey method issues identified during pre-testing, whereby those completing the survey may not have had a previous relationship with the sponsor of a junior sport, the construct of *consumer previous perception of sponsor* was excluded from the final research model. As *consumer activity involvement* and *consumer perceived sponsor/activity fit* were found to be peripheral factors, they were retained in the survey as descriptive items but excluded from the research model. *Consumer moral orientation* is comprised of two factors being *values* and *behaviour*. *Consumer perceived sponsor motivation* was measured using separate negative and positive scales as both scales were found to be valid and reliable and using both could provide depth to the measurement of this construct. *Sponsor brand awareness* was excluded from the research model as it was a controlled factor in the survey. The *sponsor CBBE* model was refined to comprise the factors of *brand associations, brand image, brand credibility, sense of brand community* and *behavioural intentions*.

Figure 4.4 Research model for the main study



Source: developed for this research

Based on this research model, and consideration of the descriptive scales refined through pre-testing and the pilot process, the final survey for the main study comprised a total of 26 questions (reduced from 46 explored through the pilot study). The final survey is attached at Appendix C (p. 218). In line with the developed research model and drawing on the factor discussions above, the hypotheses were revised as shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Revised hypotheses for the research model

Factor	Hypotheses	Revision
Consumer moral orientation	*H1a:* There is a significant positive relationship between *consumer moral orientation* and *consumer moral judgement* of sponsorship of grassroots activities.	No change
	H1b: There is a significant positive relationship between consumer moral orientation and consumer perceived sponsor motivation.	No change
Consumer moral judgement	*H2:* There is a significant positive relationship between *consumer moral judgement* of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the level of *sponsorship-generated goodwill*.	No change
Consumer perceived sponsor motivation	*H3:* There is a significant positive relationship between *consumer perceived sponsor motivation* and the level of *sponsorship-generated goodwill*.	No change
Sponsorship-generated goodwill	*H4:* There is a significant positive relationship between *sponsorship-generated goodwill* and factors within the *sponsor CBBE* framework.	No change
Sponsor brand awareness	*H5a:* There is a significant positive relationship between *sponsor brand awareness* and *brand associations*.	Redundant due to *sponsor brand awareness* being controlled
	H5b: There is a significant positive relationship between *sponsor brand awareness* and perceived *brand quality.*	Redundant due to *sponsor brand awareness* being controlled
	H5c: There is a significant positive relationship between *sponsor brand awareness* and *brand loyalty*.	Redundant due to *sponsor brand awareness* being controlled
Brand associations	*H6a:* There is a significant positive relationship between *brand associations* and *behavioural intentions.*	New hypothesis
Brand image	*H6b:* There is a significant positive relationship between *brand image* and *behavioural intentions*.	New hypothesis

Factor	Hypotheses	Revision
Brand credibility	*H6c:* There is a significant positive relationship between *brand credibility* and *behavioural intentions.*	New hypothesis
Sense of brand community	*H6d:* There is a significant positive relationship between *sense of brand community* and *behavioural intentions.*	New hypothesis

Following final development of the survey instrument and research model, application of the main study is covered in Chapter 5. As a final element of the preparation stage, ethical considerations are addressed next.

4.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Conditional ethics approval for this study was originally granted by the University of the Sunshine Coast Human Research Ethics Committee in September 2013 (S/13/546). Condition of the approval was to have the survey, that had not been developed at the time of original approval, submitted for approval prior to implementation as a second step. Approval for the pilot study survey was granted on 25th August 2015. Approval for the main study survey was subsequently granted on 9th November, 2015.

These approvals were granted based on the anonymity and confidentiality of all research respondents being protected. The study's purpose was explained by way of a project information narrative provided as the first page of the online survey (Appendix C, p218) which the respondents were required to acknowledge prior to continuing with the survey. The respondents were provided contact details for the researcher should they wish to enquire about the survey, or request a summary of the research results. All other ethical guidelines set by the USC HREC were adhered to including providing the respondents with contact details for the USC HREC should they have any need to complain about the research.

4.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

To conclude, this chapter has provided justification for a quantitative approach for the main study. In doing so the paradigm perspective was presented along with the proposed design and implementation of the main study. The survey design process was explained including the development of descriptive questions and adaption of pre-existing scales to measure the constructs included in the conceptual model. Following

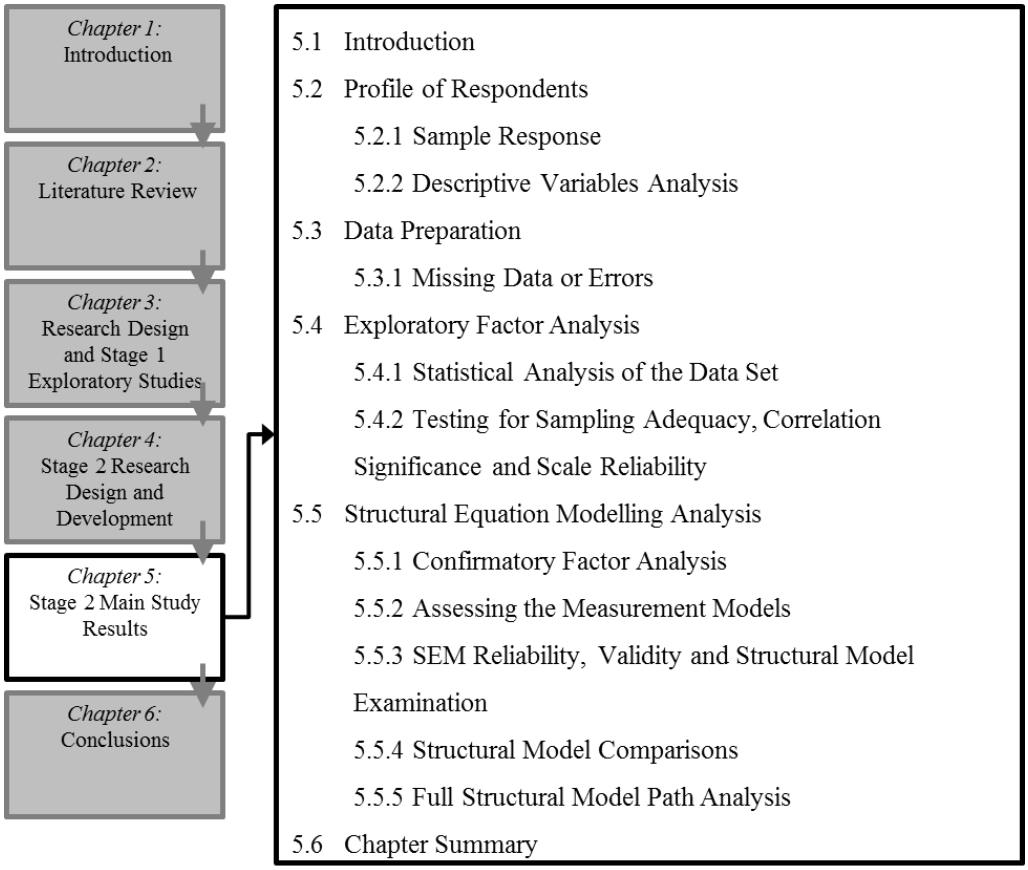
this the pre-testing and pilot study for the draft survey was detailed. EFA was then used to refine the scales and complete the development of the research model and the survey to be applied in the main study. Next, Chapter 5 details the results of the main study.

5. Stage 2 Main Study Results

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter described the quantitative research design and development and pre-testing of the survey instrument for the Stage 2 main study. This chapter describes the analysis of the main study data and reports the results. Content of the chapter is shown in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1 Outline of Chapter 5



Source: developed for this research

Following the introduction, the profile of respondents is described (Section 5.2) followed by details of the data preparation (Section 5.3). Results of EFA are provided (Section 5.4), followed by SEM (Section 5.5) with a conclusion to the chapter provided at Section 5.6.

5.2 PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

To begin analysis of the main study data this section describes the profile of the respondents. Sample response (Section 5.2.1) and an analysis of the descriptive variables (Section 5.2.2) are used to evaluate sample representativeness (Zikmund et al., 2013).

5.2.1 SAMPLE RESPONSE

The sample for the main study was sourced from an online panel maintained by an Australian research company. In keeping with industry practice (Fulgoni, 2014), demographic weightings were used to filter the panel responses in an attempt to ensure its characteristics were representative of the Australian adult population who have some involvement in junior sport. Involvement in junior sport was described as having close relatives (e.g. children or grandchildren) playing junior sport and regularly going to watch them play or having a role in the running of a junior sport (e.g. coaching or volunteering for administration).

A total of 309 responses were obtained for the sample. Three of these were excluded because those respondents nominated private individuals rather than organisations as sponsors of junior sport, which does not fit the description of sponsor followed for this research. Thus, a final sample number of 306 respondents were available for data analysis. The responses were received within a seven-day period in November 2015.

5.2.2 DESCRIPTIVE VARIABLES ANALYSIS

This section provides analysis of the descriptive variables using SPSS (version 23) to assess representativeness of the sample. Firstly, a demographic profile of the respondents (Table 5.1, p. 117) based on gender, age group, Australian state of residence, annual household income, household composition and level of education is assessed. Then follows analysis of the junior sports the respondents identified with (Table 5.2, p. 119) and the length of time they have been involved with those sports (Table 5.3, p. 120). Then follows analysis of the strength of their relationship with the sports (Figure 5.2, p. 120). Then the types of business that the respondents nominated as sponsors are listed (Table 5.4, p. 121) followed by analysis of the types of sponsorship support provided along with the respondents' perceived fit between that sponsor and their junior sport.

Sample assessment—demographics

Table 5.1 presents the demographic profile of the sample.

Table 5.1 Demographic profile of main study sample (*n*=306)

Demographic		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	179	58.5
	Female	127	41.5
Age	18–25	10	3.3
	26–35	64	20.9
	36–45	86	28.1
	46–55	66	21.6
	56–65	44	14.4
	65+	36	11.8
Household composition	Couple family with children at home	182	59.5
	Couple family with no children at home	63	20.6
	One parent family with children at home	25	8.2
	Single living without family at home	23	7.5
	Living at home with parents	8	2.6
	Other	5	1.6
Annual household income	Under $50,000	69	22.5
	$50,000–$100,000	130	42.5
	$100,001–$200,000	96	31.4
	$200,001 +	11	3.5
Level of education	Trade certificate	56	18.3
	Undergraduate degree	94	30.7
	Post graduate degree	69	22.5
	Other	5	1.6
Location	Metro	200	65.4
	Regional	106	34.6
State of residence	VIC	93	30.4
	NSW/ACT	88	28.8
	QLD	58	19
	SA	38	12.4
	WA	20	6.5
	TAS	7	2.3
	NT	2	0.7

To determine demographic representativeness of the sample it was compared with Australian population data published by the Australian Bureau of Statistics. In terms of gender, 58.5% of the sample was male which is higher than the general Australian population statistic of 49.7% (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015c). However, it is more representative of the Australian adult population involved in sport whereby 61% of males participate in amateur sport (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015b) and so was considered acceptable in the context of this study.

The majority of respondents were aged 36 and over and belonged to households with children living at home which is reflective of the general Australian population and is indicative of households where children would be participating in junior sport. Additionally, the frequencies for respondents regarding annual household incomes and level of education were reflective of the national population (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015a).

Location of the respondents showed 65.4% came from metropolitan areas which is reflective of the overall population where 68% of the Australian population live in metropolitan areas (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2015c). In terms of distribution by state there is a slightly higher representation (around 5%) from both Victoria and Western Australia at the expense of New South Wales and South Australia. As popularity of sports varies by state in Australia this may have caused a skew towards the selection of sports by the respondents. Nonetheless, analysis of the sports selected by respondents shows this did not eventuate and therefore was not considered a concern.

Consequently, on these key demographic features, the sample is representative of the target population being Australian adults belonging to families with children or close relatives participating in popular junior sports.

Sample assessment—representation of junior sports

The top 12 junior sports based on participation levels by children aged 4–15 years (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012) were originally considered for inclusion in the study. Martial arts and gymnastics were excluded from the main study due a lack of sponsorship for those sports. Table 5.2 depicts the frequency of respondent involvement with the final ten sports used in the main study and how this compares with national participation levels. The five sports above the double line have a higher representation in the sample than the national participation rates while the remaining five were lower.

Table 5.2 Representation of junior sports in the main study sample

Sport	Frequency in Sample	Valid Percent	*National Participation Percentage
Cricket (outdoor)	59	19.3	6.0
AFL	59	19.3	10.5
Football Soccer (outdoor)	54	17.6	18.7
Athletics	30	9.8	4.0
Rugby League	22	7.2	5.2
Basketball	22	7.2	10.4
Swimming & diving	21	6.9	22.9
Netball	18	5.9	10.7
Tennis	17	5.6	9.0
Rugby Union	4	1.3	2.7
TOTALS	306	100	100

* National Participation Percentage is the share each sport has of the total participation rates by children aged 5-14 years of age for these ten sports (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012)

The survey was run during summer in Australia when, traditionally, cricket and tennis are the main sports being played. This could have resulted in those sports being top of mind for the respondents but the results show a high representation of the traditional winter sports such as AFL, Football (Soccer) and Rugby League. The responses do show a higher skew in the sample towards involvement with cricket and AFL and lesser representation of swimming and netball. This was not considered an issue as the national participation rates show the volume of children participating whereas the sample in the study was of adults who may have had multiple children participating in various sports but were asked to select only one sport to focus on for the survey. All ten sports were represented in the sample and the sports that are known to attract high profile sponsors were well represented. The distribution by individual sport may cause limitations of sample validity for comparison by individual sport but this was not an objective of this research.

The sample showed the respondents had relatively high levels of involvement with their selected sports with 50% indicated they frequently go to watch their children participate and a further 16.7% indicated they are involved in the running of a junior sport. The years of involvement with junior sport (Table 5.3) ranged from 1 to 15 but the mean of all 306 respondents was five years. Overall, the sample had a median length of involvement of three years. Yet 65.6% of the respondents indicated being involved for three years or more and 17.2% indicated involvement for ten years or more.

Therefore, the sample was assessed as providing an adequate level of involvement in the range of junior sports.

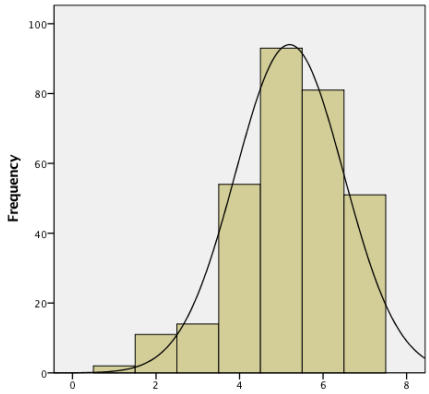
Table 5.3 Length of time involved in the selected junior sport

No of years involved in selected junior sport	Frequency in Sample	Valid Percent
1 year	51	16.7
2 years	54	17.6
3 years	53	17.3
4 years	25	8.2
5 years	32	10.5
6 years	11	3.6
7 years	12	3.9
8 years	9	2.9
9 years	6	2.0
10 years	20	6.5
11 years	1	0.3
12 years	4	1.3
13 years	1	0.3
14 years	1	0.3
15 years	26	8.5
TOTAL	**306**	**100**

Question 9 of the survey asked respondents to rate the strength of their relationship with their selected sport from a scale of 1 (very weak) to 7 (very strong). The majority of respondents indicated a strong to very strong relationship with their selected sport with a mean of 5.20 and standard deviation of 1.30 (Figure 5.2). This data indicated the sample had adequate levels of involvement with junior sport to have been exposed to sponsorships.

Figure 5.2 Strength of relationship with selected sport

Source: developed for this research



Question 6 of the survey asked respondents to identify a type of business that was most active as a sponsor of the junior sport they had selected. The respondents were also provided with an option to select ‘other’ and identify another type of sponsor. Table

5.4 shows the frequency results for the respondent selections. When analysing the 14 responses that selected 'other' it was found these organisations could still be assigned under the original six categories. The column on the right of Table 5.4 shows the distribution after the 14 have been re-allocated to the relevant sponsor types.

Table 5.4 Frequency of sponsor type

Sponsor type	Frequency	Valid %	Re-allocated
Bank	95	31.03	95
A local business (e.g. real estate, newsagent, butcher, construction company or community club)	88	28.76	97 (+9)
Fast food chain	35	11.44	35
Supermarket	25	8.17	25
A food or beverage brand (e.g. breakfast cereal or energy drink)	20	6.54	21 (+1)
National retailer (e.g. a telecommunications company, a power company or a manufacturer or seller of electrical goods)	19	6.21	23 (+4)
Insurance company	10	3.27	10
Other	14	4.58	0
TOTAL	306	100.0	306

Question 11 of the survey asked respondents to nominate what kind of sponsorship support the business supplied to their selected junior sport. The majority of respondents were aware the sponsors were providing financial and/or goods and services to the sporting club or association. Thirty-three respondents (10.78%) observed that sponsors were providing vouchers directly to the players of the junior sports, while 43 of the respondents (14.05%) were unsure of what type of support

Question 12 of the survey related to the respondents' perceptions of fit between the sponsor and the junior sport. For this study, the respondents' perceptions of fit for their identified sponsorships was captured in the survey as a descriptive measure *consumer perceived sponsor/activity fit* to determine if the varied sponsorship situations were of an acceptably uniform fit. A four-item semantic differential scale was used numbered 1 for a positive attribution to 7 for a negative attribution against the variable items. The means of the four variable items ranged from 5.39–5.44 with standard deviations 1.21–1.24. These results indicate the levels of perceived fit to be acceptably consistent across the sample for the purposes of this research.

In conclusion, the sample population was shown to be representative of the target population and the range of sponsorship situations identified to be suitable for the purposes of the study. Having assessed the representativeness of the sample used for the

study, the following Section 5.3 outlines the process used to clean and prepare the data for univariate and multivariate analysis.

5.3 DATA PREPARATION

This section details how the data set, collected via an online survey and supplied as an SPSS file, was prepared for analysis by re-labelling of the variables (Section 5.3.1) and examination for missing data or data errors (Section 5.3.2).

Direct data capture through online surveys reduces the potential for clerical errors. However, it is possible for respondent errors to occur in their completion of the survey (Zikmund et al., 2013). Therefore, it is vital for the researcher to undertake initial analysis and cleaning of the data set to identify any errors or missing data. At the same time, it is essential to ensure accuracy of question and item coding. This process also immerses the researcher in the data and provides deeper clarity and understanding of the data (Hair et al., 2003; Zikmund et al., 2013).

So as not to confuse respondents during completion of the survey, the item codes for each of the variables were removed from the survey instrument. Once the data capture was completed and supplied as an SPSS file the researcher relabelled the descriptive variables and the main construct scale items using the original item codes developed for the survey to best suit application in SPSS and later structural equation modelling (SEM).

Following relabelling the SPSS file was then manually scanned for other errors or missing data.

5.3.1 MISSING DATA OR ERRORS

The design of the online survey meant that respondents were forced to provide answers to each of the questions thereby eliminating the occurrence of missing data. In Section 5.2 it was shown three respondents incorrectly identified sponsors as ‘self-funded’ or ‘sponsored by parents’ and these cases were excluded from the sample. No other errors were identified during primary analysis of the data.

The previous sections 5.2 and 5.3 indicated a successful preliminary data analysis process was administered. Section 5.2 verified that the profile of the respondents was adequately representative of the target sample population while Section

5.3 confirmed that the required steps were completed to prepare the data for EFA which is now detailed in the following section.

5.4 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

This section details the results of EFA undertaken on the data. The primary purpose of EFA is to define the underlying structure amongst variables (Hair et al., 2003). EFA provides the opportunity for data summarisation and data reduction to produce a more manageable data set while still retaining as much of the original information as possible (Hair et al., 2003; Field, 2013). Chapter 4 provided details of how EFA was applied to the pilot study data to reduce the scales for each primary construct and refine the structure of the research model. Working with the larger data set of the main study, EFA was used to further understand the underlying relationships amongst the variables and how well they support the primary constructs (Hair et al., 2003).

This section describes the EFA process undertaken in two steps. First, in Subsection 5.4.1 the data set is tested for normality, outliers and multi-collinearity of the constructs. Second, in Subsection 5.4.2 EFA was used to confirm sampling adequacy, correlation significance of the scale items for each of the constructs and overall scale reliability.

5.4.1 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE DATA SET

In this section the data was analysed for normality, outliers and multi-collinearity.

Normality

The first step in EFA was to assess underlying normality of the 57 variables that make up the construct scales (Hair et al., 2003; Field, 2013). Distributions within the variables may be affected by skewness and kurtosis. Variables that have a kurtosis score above zero are termed leptokurtic and described as having a peaked distribution indicating a smaller standard deviation while those with a score below zero are termed platykurtic indicating a broader distribution (Hair et al., 2003; Field, 2013). Skewness describes the balance of the distribution away from the median. Scores below zero, that is a distribution skewed to the left of the median, are said to be positive as opposed to a negative skewness if the data is clustered more to the right of the median (Hair et al.,

2003; Field, 2013). For a normal distribution skewness and kurtosis scores should be close to zero. However, critical values between ±1.96 are considered acceptable for univariate distribution (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001; Hair et al., 2003) and were therefore applied in this analysis. Results of these tests are provided in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Normality test results for main study variables

Variable (item)	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Consumer moral orientation				
CM1	5.75	1.13	-0.65	-0.10
CM2	5.96	1.14	-0.91	0.02
CM3	5.86	1.12	-0.68	-0.35
CM4	5.91	1.14	-1.04	1.03
CM5	5.39	1.16	-0.26	-0.63
CM6	5.35	1.10	-0.29	-0.07
CM7	5.43	1.17	-0.60	0.55
Consumer perceived sponsor motivation				
SM1	5.24	1.38	-0.50	-0.22
SM2	5.53	1.26	-0.60	-0.11
SM3	5.25	1.37	-0.50	-0.21
SM4	3.29	1.74	0.30	-0.91
SM5	3.43	1.65	0.18	-0.79
SM6	3.72	1.73	-0.02	-0.97
SM7	3.29	1.71	0.41	-0.70
Consumer moral judgement				
MJ1	5.70	1.22	-0.94	1.19
MJ2	5.68	1.22	-0.91	1.10
MJ3	5.66	1.19	-0.77	0.71
MJ4	5.64	1.21	-0.82	0.89
MJ5	5.92	1.23	-1.28	1.81
MJ6	5.77	1.19	-0.95	1.02
MJ7	5.70	1.23	-0.88	0.79
Sponsorship-generated goodwill				
SG1	5.82	1.16	-0.10	1.23
SG2	5.41	1.32	-0.72	0.39
SG3	5.46	1.25	-0.64	0.16
SG4	5.75	1.16	-0.88	0.72
SG5	5.61	1.23	-0.77	0.71
SG6	5.66	1.26	-0.98	0.98
SG7	5.73	1.20	-0.93	0.87
SG8	5.62	1.21	-0.82	0.90
SG9	5.73	1.21	-0.90	0.88
SG10	5.58	1.23	-0.76	0.54
Brand associations				
BA1	5.08	1.26	-0.20	-0.20
BA2	5.13	1.25	-0.37	0.27
BA3	5.08	1.21	-0.23	0.09
Brand image				
BI1	5.13	1.22	-0.11	-0.30
BI2	5.04	1.25	-0.19	-0.23

Variable (item)	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
BI3	5.07	1.24	-0.24	-0.16
BI4	5.09	1.25	-0.30	-0.11
BI5	5.22	1.20	-0.29	-0.04
BI6	5.12	1.23	-0.25	-0.11
BI7	5.11	1.23	-0.27	-0.01
Perceived brand credibility				
BC1	5.09	1.29	-0.25	-0.26
BC2	5.04	1.31	-0.25	-0.25
BC3	4.79	1.31	-0.01	-0.34
BC4	5.01	1.24	-0.27	0.11
BC5	5.10	1.26	-0.30	-0.01
BC6	5.06	1.23	-0.16	-0.08
BC7	5.06	1.23	-0.30	0.17
Sense of brand community				
BS1	4.82	1.36	-0.20	0.03
BS2	4.90	1.33	-0.19	-0.16
BS3	4.90	1.33	-0.20	-0.17
BS4	5.23	1.27	-0.48	0.26
BS5	5.24	1.21	-0.49	0.60
Behavioural intentions				
BB1	5.14	1.31	-0.55	0.33
BB2	4.87	1.37	-0.36	0.06
BB3	4.98	1.35	-0.43	0.10
BB4	4.89	1.40	-0.36	-0.05

Of the 57 variables used to measure the primary constructs, 27 could be considered platykurtic with the remaining 30 being leptokurtic and only three were positively skewed. While none of the variables had normal distribution, none could be considered significantly kurtotic, or significantly skewed, when applying the critical value of ±1.96. With the sample size of 306 being in excess of 200 these results for skewness and kurtosis, as recommended by (Hair et al., 2003), could be considered to be inconsequential. The next step was to test for outliers.

Outliers

Outliers are cases in the data with a unique combination of characteristics identifiable as distinctly different from the other cases and these can distort statistical analysis if their z-scores range outside ±3.0 for the variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001; Hair et al., 2003). Z-scores are the value of observations for the variables expressed in standard deviation units (Field, 2013). Z-scores for the variables were calculated using SPSS and, along with the SPSS frequencies, were assessed for outliers with five outliers being identified.

Each outlier was checked and deemed to be reasonable as they occurred in only three of the 57 variables. With the occurrence being only 1.6% of the total sample, these results were considered inconsequential in terms of effect on the data. In addition, restraint is recommended in designating too many observations as outliers to ensure generalizability to the population (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, given the low percentage of outliers identified and that the sample was assessed as representative, all of the outliers were retained in the data set.

Multi-collinearity

Multi-collinearity is the extent to which a variable construct can be explained by the other variable constructs in the analysis and some degree of multi-collinearity is desirable to demonstrate interrelation (Hair et al., 2003). Using the stepwise procedure from multiple regression analysis the scale items were evaluated for multi-collinearity based on tolerance levels and the variance inflation factor (VIF). Means for each of the primary constructs were calculated to establish computable variables. Two means were computed for the construct *consumer perceived sponsor motivation* to reflect the use of both a negative and a positive scale. *Sponsor CBBE,* computed as a construct comprised of *brand associations*, *brand image*, *brand credibility*, *sense of brand community* and *behavioural intentions,* was used as the dependent variable to test against for Multi-collinearity of the five latent constructs. The results of the multi-collinearity tests are presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6 Tests of multi-collinearity

Constructs	Tolerance	VIF
Consumer moral orientation	0.54	1.86
Consumer perceived sponsor motivation (negative)	0.75	1.33
Consumer perceived sponsor motivation (positive)	0.41	2.44
Consumer moral judgement	0.19	5.17
Sponsorship-generated goodwill	0.20	4.98

The tests reported no variables with tolerance levels <0.10 or a VIF score >10.0 and therefore the data was not considered problematic in terms of multi-collinearity (Hair et al., 2003).

Section 5.4.1 described the initial results of statistical analysis showing the data set is suitable for further EFA.

5.4.2 EFA TESTING FOR SAMPLING ADEQUACY, CORRELATION SIGNIFICANCE AND SCALE RELIABILITY

Following assessment for normality, outliers and multi-collinearity, the data was tested using the Kaiser-Maeyer-Okin (KMO) test for sampling adequacy and examination of factor loadings. The Bartlett Test of Sphericity was used for overall significance of correlations and Eigenvalues for the amount of variance explained by the factors (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001; Hair et al., 2003; Field, 2013). In addition, the reliability of the scales was confirmed using Cronbach's alpha (Field, 2013). The benchmarks for each of these tests are provided at Table 5.7 and presentation and discussion of the results of for each of the primary constructs follows.

Table 5.7 Benchmarks for EFA testing

Test	Benchmark	References
Kaiser-Maeyer-Okin (KMO)	>0.60	(Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001;
Bartlett Test of Sphericity	<0.05	Hair et al., 2003; Field, 2013)
Cronbach's Alpha	>0.70	
Eigenvalues	>1.00	

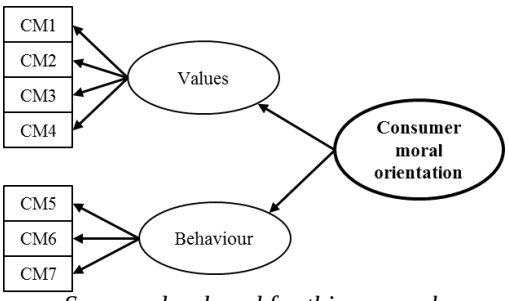
Consumer moral orientation is the first independent construct presented in the research model developed from the pilot study. Through EFA of the pilot study data a total of seven items were identified to operationalise *consumer moral orientation* in the main study across two factors. Factor 1 comprised four items related to values. The question stem for those four items was *'How important are the following values to you?'*. Factor 2 comprised three items related to behaviour. The question stem for those items was *'To what extent do you agree with the following statements?'* The EFA results for these items are presented in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 Revised EFA for *consumer moral orientation* with sub factors

Scale Items (n=306)	Factor Loadings F1	F2	Total	Scale Statistics Mean	SD
Consumer moral orientation (values)					
CM1 – Loyalty (faithful to your friends, group)	0.92			5.86	1.12
CM2 – Responsibility (dependable, reliable)	0.91			5.91	1.14
CM3 – Honesty (genuine sincere)	0.88			5.96	1.16
CM4 – Helpfulness (working for the welfare of others)	0.77			5.75	1.14
Consumer moral orientation (behaviour)					
CM5 – You feel it is important to serve as a volunteer in your community		0.92		5.39	1.16
CM6 – You believe it is important to give of one's own times to community activities		0.84		5.43	1.18
CM7 – It is important for you to form close ties with others in your community		0.78		5.35	1.10
Eigen values	4.67	1.14	00.00		
Variance explained (%)	66.70	16.29	82.99		
Cronbach's coefficient alphas	0.93	0.89	0.92		
KMO	0.86	0.74	0.88		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity			0.00		

EFA of this construct firstly showed Eigen values for the two factors are above the threshold of 1.00 and account for over 80% of the variance thereby justifying retention of both factors and demonstrating a parsimonious pattern matrix (Holmes-Smith, 2015). The test results for the scale exceed the required benchmarks for sampling adequacy, significance, factor loadings and reliability thereby confirming its suitability for further testing. Figure 5.3 depicts the final EFA model for *consumer moral orientation*.

Figure 5.3 Final EFA solution for *consumer moral orientation*



Source: developed for this research

Consumer perceived sponsor motivation Consumers may judge the sponsor as having benevolent motivations (feels the sponsorship activity is deserving) or self-serving (profit or reputation enhancement) and these judgements may affect the level of goodwill generated by a sponsorship (Rifon et al., 2004).

Two separate scales, one having a negative orientation and the other a positive orientation, were adopted for this construct from Dean (2002). EFA of the pilot study data showed these two scales could not be combined and that the factor loadings and reliability were relatively similar. Therefore, it was decided to retain both scales for testing with the larger sample of the main study. While the two scales were set up as separate questions in the survey instrument, the same question stem was used for each and was *'Thinking about that business's sponsorship of the junior sport you selected, how much do you agree with the following statements?'* The EFA results from the main study data for this construct are presented at Table 5.9 and Table 5.10.

Table 5.9 Revised EFA for *consumer perceived sponsor motivation* (positive)

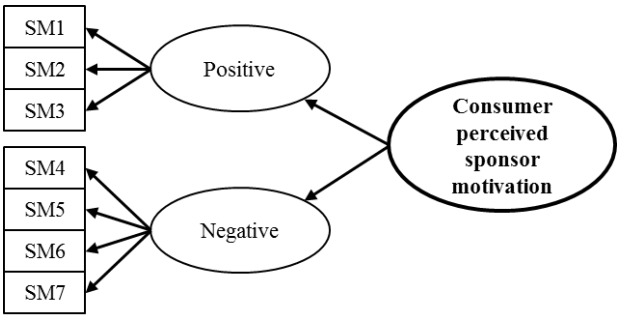
Scale Items (n=306)	**Factor Loadings**	**Total**	**Scale Statistics** Mean	SD
Consumer perceived sponsor motivation (positive)				
SM1 – That business is acting unselfishly by sponsoring the junior sport	0.87		5.24	1.38
SM2 - That business' sponsorship of the junior sport is a generous act	0.90		5.53	1.26
SM3 – That business' sponsorship of the junior sport is a charitable act by the business	0.86		5.25	1.37
Eigen values		2.55		
Variance explained (%)		84.92		
Cronbach's coefficient alphas		0.91		
KMO		0.76		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		0.00		

Table 5.10 Revised EFA for consumer perceived sponsor motivation (negative)

Scale Items (n=306)	**Factor Loadings**	**Total**	**Scale Statistics** Mean	SD
Consumer perceived sponsor motivation (negative)				
SM4 – That business has an underhanded motive for sponsoring the junior sport	0.88		3.29	1.74
SM5 - That business is only acting in its own self-interest by sponsoring the junior sport	0.87		3.43	1.65
SM6 – That business has something other than charitable intentions when sponsoring the junior sport	0.77		3.72	1.73
SM7 – I am cynical about that business' motives in sponsoring the junior sport	0.88		3.29	1.71
Eigen values		3.18		
Variance explained (%)		79.46		
Cronbach's coefficient alphas		0.91		
KMO		0.84		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		0.00		

EFA for this construct confirmed the findings from the pilot study EFA. The two scales used to measure this construct are valid and reliable scales that exceed all of the required benchmarks and are suitable for further testing. Figure 5.4 depicts the final EFA model for the construct of *consumer perceived sponsor motivation*.

Figure 5.4 Final EFA solution for *consumer perceived sponsor motivation*



Source: developed for this research

Consumer moral judgement evolved as a construct from the exploratory research stage of this study (Chapter 3) and appeared to influence the level of goodwill generated for a sponsorship. EFA of the pilot study data led to reduction of the scale by one item down to a seven-item scale that had sound loadings and reliability as a univariate scale. The question stem used in the main study for this scale was *'That business's sponsorship of the junior sport you selected is something you consider to be:'*. The main study EFA results for this construct are presented in Table 5.11.

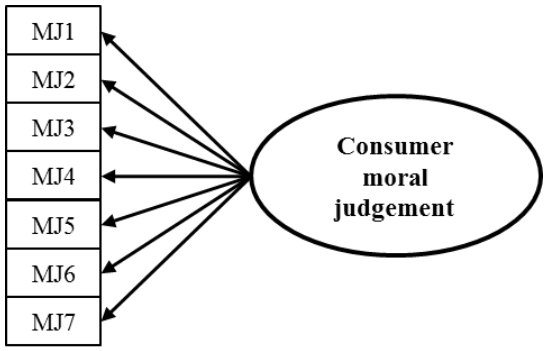
Table 5.11 Revised EFA for *consumer moral judgement*

Scale Items (n=306)	**Factor Loadings**	**Total**	**Scale Statistics**	
			Mean	SD
Consumer moral judgement				
MJI – Appropriate	0.91		5.70	1.22
MJ2 - Agreeable	0.92		5.68	1.22
MJ3 – Moral	0.90		5.66	1.12
MJ4 – Ethical	0.87		5.64	1.21
MJ5 – Good for the community	0.87		5.92	1.23
MJ6 - Inoffensive	0.83		5.77	1.19
MJ7 - Honest	0.88		5.70	1.23
Eigen values		5.71		
Variance explained (%)		81.55		
Cronbach's coefficient alphas		0.96		
KMO		0.94		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		0.00		

EFA for this construct confirmed the findings from the pilot study. The scale used to measure this construct is a valid and reliable univariate scale that exceeded all

of the required benchmarks and is suitable for further testing. Figure 5.5 depicts the final EFA model for the construct of *consumer moral judgement.*

Figure 5.5 Final EFA solution for *consumer moral judgement*



Source: developed for this research

Sponsorship-generated goodwill relates to the affective responses associated with a sponsorship that translates to perceptions and behavioural intent of the consumer towards the sponsor's brand (Meenaghan, 2001). EFA of the pilot study data reduced the measurement scale for this construct down to 10 items as a reliable univariate measure suitable for further testing in the main study. The question stem used in the main study was *'In general, how do you feel about that business's sponsorship of the junior sport you selected?'*. EFA results from the main study data are presented in Table 5.12.

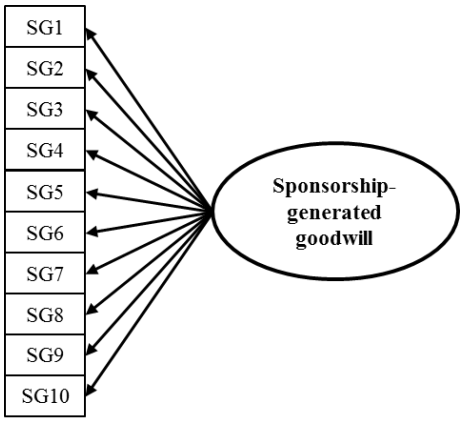
Table 5.12 Revised EFA for sponsorship-generated goodwill

Scale Items (n=306)	Factor Loadings	Total	Scale Statistics Mean	SD
Sponsorship-generated goodwill				
SGI – I'm ok with it	0.89		5.82	1.16
SG2 – It improves their standing with me	0.86		5.41	1.32
SG3 – It increases my goodwill toward them	0.85		5.46	1.25
SG4 – It's helpful	0.88		5.75	1.16
SG5 – I like it	0.90		5.61	1.23
SG6 – It's not annoying	0.82		5.66	1.26
SG7 – It's valuable	0.87		5.73	1.20
SG8 – Favourable	0.92		5.62	1.21
SG9 – Positive	0.93		5.73	1.21
SG10 – It's not intrusive	0.81		5.58	1.23
Eigen values		7.87		
Variance explained (%)		78.65		
Cronbach's coefficient alphas		0.97		
KMO		0.95		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		0.00		

EFA for this construct confirmed the findings from the pilot study EFA. The scale used to measure this construct is a valid and reliable univariate scale that exceeded

all of the required benchmarks and is suitable for further testing. Figure 5.6 depicts the final EFA model for the construct of *sponsorship-generated goodwill*.

Figure 5.6 Final EFA solution for *sponsorship-generated goodwill*



Source: developed for this research

Sponsor CBBE relates to a consumer's perceptions of a sponsor's image and brand associations and their relationship with the brand that result from their knowledge of the sponsorship (Keller, 2003; Roy and Cornwell, 2003). Based on the literature review and Stage 1 exploratory research, this construct was conceptualised as a framework comprised of five factors being *brand associations, brand image, brand credibility, sense of brand community* and *behavioural intentions*. EFA of the pilot study data for these factors supported this structure. The EFA results from the main study data for each of the five factors are now presented.

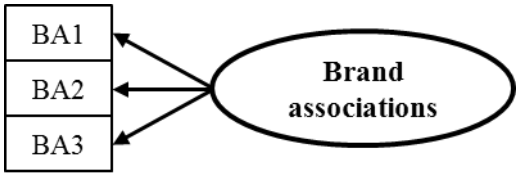
Brand associations are other considerations beyond brand awareness such as the meaning of the brand (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002). EFA of the pilot study data reduced the scale for this factor from five to three items. The question stem used in the main study was *'Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about that business?'*. EFA results from the main study data are presented in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13 Revised EFA for *brand associations*

Scale Items (n=306)	Factor Loadings	Total	Scale Statistics Mean	SD
Brand Associations				
BA1 – Overall, their sponsorship of the junior sport I selected has now improved my attitude towards that business	0.94		5.08	1.26
BA2 – Overall, their sponsorship of the junior sport I selected now improves that business's image to me	0.91		5.13	1.25
BA3 – Overall, their sponsorship of the junior sport I selected now makes me believe that business can be relied upon	0.87		5.08	1.21
Eigen values		2.65		
Variance explained (%)		88.15		
Cronbach's coefficient alphas		0.93		
KMO		0.76		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		0.00		

EFA of the main study data for this construct confirmed the findings from the pilot study. The scale used to measure this construct is a valid and reliable univariate scale that exceeds all of the required benchmarks and is suitable for further testing. Figure 5.7 depicts the final EFA model for the construct of *brand associations*.

Figure 5.7 Final EFA solution for *brand associations*



Source: developed for this research

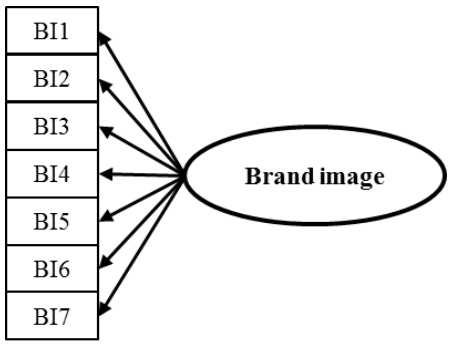
Brand image relates to the perceived personality of the brand and profile of its users (Aaker, 1996). EFA conducted on the pilot study data resulted in reduction of the eight-item scale to a seven-item scale for the main study. The question stem used in the main study was *'As a result of their sponsorship of the junior sport you selected you now perceive that business to be:'*. EFA results from the main study data are presented in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14 Revised EFA for *brand image*

Scale Items (n=306)	Factor Loadings	Total	Scale Statistics Mean	SD
Brand image				
BI1 – More down-to-earth	0.90		5.13	1.22
BI2 – More honest	0.92		5.04	1.25
BI3 – More sincere	0.93		5.07	1.25
BI4 – More 'real'	0.92		5.09	1.25
BI5 – More friendly	0.91		5.22	1.20
BI6 – More genuine	0.92		5.12	1.23
BI7 – More caring	0.91		5.11	1.23
Eigen values		6.04		
Variance explained (%)		86.27		
Cronbach's coefficient alphas		0.97		
KMO		0.94		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		0.00		

EFA of the main study data for this construct confirmed the findings from the pilot study. The scale used to measure this construct is a valid and reliable univariate scale that exceeds all of the required benchmarks and is suitable for further testing. Figure 5.8 depicts the final EFA model for the construct of *brand image*.

Figure 5.8 Final EFA solution for *brand image*



Source: developed for this research

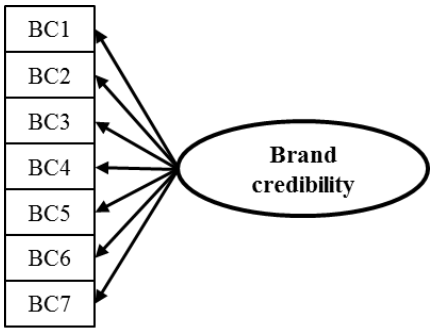
Brand credibility relates to consumer perceptions regarding the expertise, trustworthiness and likeability of a company (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002). EFA conducted on the pilot study data resulted in the retention of the seven-item scale for the main study. The question stem used in the main study was *'As a result of their sponsorship of the junior sport you selected you now believe that business is:'*. EFA results from the main study data are presented in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15 Revised EFA for *brand credibility*

Scale Items (n=306)	Factor Loadings	Total	Scale Statistics Mean	SD
Brand credibility				
BC1 – More credible	0.93		5.09	1.29
BC2 – More trustworthy	0.91		5.04	1.31
BC3 – More expert	0.85		4.79	1.31
BC4 - More believable	0.92		5.01	1.24
BC5 – More reputable	0.91		5.10	1.26
BC6 – More reliable	0.93		5.06	1.23
BC7 – More dependable	0.93		5.06	1.23
Eigen values		5.99		
Variance explained (%)		85.50		
Cronbach's coefficient alphas		0.97		
KMO		0.96		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		0.00		

EFA of the main study data for this construct confirmed the findings from the pilot study. The scale used to measure this construct is a valid and reliable univariate scale that exceeds all of the required benchmarks and is suitable for further testing. Figure 5.9 depicts the final EFA model for the construct of *brand credibility*.

Figure 5.9 Final EFA solution for *brand credibility*



Source: developed for this research

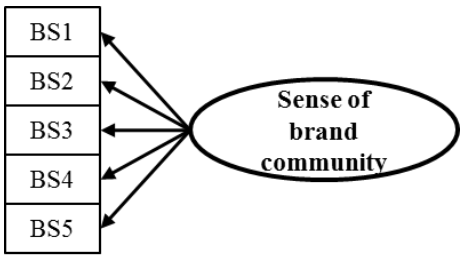
Sense of brand community is the level of connection a consumer feels with other users, employees or representatives of the brand (Hoeffler and Keller, 2002). EFA conducted on the pilot study data resulted in the reduction of the six-item scale to a five-item scale for the main study. The question stem used in the main study was *'As a result of that business's sponsorship of the junior sport you selected:'*. EFA results from the main study data are presented in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16 Revised EFA for *sense of brand community*

Scale Items (n=306)	Factor Loadings	Total	Scale Statistics Mean	SD
Sense of Brand Community				
BS1 – You now feel a greater sense of attachment with that business	0.91		4.82	1.36
BS2 – You now feel you share something in common with that business	0.88		4.90	1.33
BS3 – You now feel you know that business better	0.88		4.90	1.33
BS4 - You now feel that business is part of your community	0.88		5.23	1.27
BS5 – You now feel that business has helped to strengthen your community	0.88		5.24	1.21
Eigen values		4.13		
Variance explained (%)		82.67		
Cronbach's coefficient alphas		0.95		
KMO		0.89		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		0.00		

EFA of the main study data for this construct confirmed findings from the pilot study. The scale used to measure this construct is a valid and reliable univariate scale that exceeds all of the required benchmarks and is suitable for further testing. Figure 5.10 depicts the final EFA model for the construct of *sense of brand community.*

Figure 5.10 Final EFA solution for *sense of brand community*



Source: developed for this research

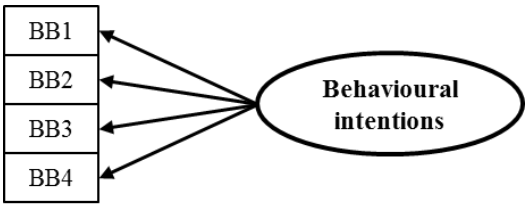
Behavioural intentions relate to consumer preferences and purchase intentions as well as advocacy and recommendations (Pappu et al., 2005). EFA conducted on the pilot study data resulted in the reduction of the six-item scale to a five-item scale for the main study. The question stem used in the main study was *'As a result of that business's sponsorship of the junior sport you selected:'*. EFA results from the main study data are presented in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17 Revised EFA for *behavioural intentions*

Scale Items (n=306)	Factor Loadings	Total	Scale Statistics	
			Mean	SD
Behavioural intentions				
BB1 – You are now more likely to say positive things about that business to other people	0.91		5.14	1.31
BB2 – You are now more likely to do more business with that business in the future	0.90		4.87	1.37
BB3 – You are now more likely to recommend that business to people who ask your advice	0.93		4.98	1.36
BB4 – You are now more likely to encourage friends and relatives to do business with that business	0.93		4.89	1.40
Eigen values		3.53		
Variance explained (%)		88.24		
Cronbach's coefficient alphas		0.96		
KMO		0.88		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		0.00		

EFA of the main study data for this construct confirmed the findings from the pilot study EFA. The scale used to measure this construct is a valid and reliable univariate scale that exceeds all of the required benchmarks and is suitable for further testing. Figure 5.11 depicts the final EFA model for the construct of *behavioural intentions*.

Figure 5.11 Final EFA solution for *behavioural intentions*



Source: developed for this research

EFA testing of the main study data confirmed the findings of the EFA on the pilot study data that each construct, apart from *consumer moral orientation*, was univariate in nature with no sub-factor loadings. The KMO test results for the individual constructs ranged from 0.74 to 0.98. These results all exceed the sampling adequacy benchmark of >0.6 (Hair et al., 2003; Field, 2013). Significance of the constructs and data were confirmed through Bartlett's Test of Sphericity while factor loadings for each of the variables were well in excess of the 0.35 benchmark advised by Hair et al. (2003) for a sample size of 300 confirming their communalities. Similarly the generally agreed lower limit for reliability of 0.70 using Cronbach's alpha (Hair et al., 2003) was well exceeded by all of the construct scales thereby confirming their reliability.

This section provided details of the EFA analysis conducted on the main study data. The EFA analysis demonstrated the scales used to measure the constructs of the research model were reliable. However, to progress with further analysis of the main study data and testing of the research model, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using structural equation modelling follows.

5.5 STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING ANALYSIS

SEM is an analysis technique that allows simultaneous examination of the dependence relationships between the series of constructs and measured variables in a research model (Hair et al., 2003). SEM (AMOS version 23) was used in the main study to verify the theoretical foundations of the research model proposed in Chapter 4. Once the factor structures of the primary constructs were established (Section 5.4), CFA was conducted to assess the structural relationships within the model and test the fit with the data. Section 5.5.1 details the CFA process, Section 5.5.2 assesses the measurement models for each primary construct and Section 5.5.3 considers SEM reliability and validity assessments leading to an examination of the full structural model. Section 5.5.4 compares alternate models of the full structural model and finally Section 5.5.5 provides an initial analysis of the path estimates in the accepted model.

5.5.1 CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

CFA was applied to test the extent to which the theoretical pattern of factor loadings for the research model's constructs represent the actual data of the main study (Hair et al., 2003). The CFA process begins with a listing of the constructs that will comprise the research model, followed by specification, identification, estimation and evaluation of the model (Davis and Cosenza, 1993; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001; Hair et al., 2003). Specification of the model was achieved through review of the literature (Chapter 2), exploratory research (Chapter 3) and EFA of the pilot test data (Chapter 4). EFA of the main study data (Section 5.4) identified the parameters for estimation and evaluation in the research model. This section (Section 5.5.1) discusses model estimation and evaluation in order to specify the parameter estimates and fit statistics for this study.

Model Estimation

As recommended by SEM literature the primary construct relationships were tested individually prior to testing of the full structural model (Schumaker and Lomax,

1996; Hair et al., 2010; Holmes-Smith, 2015). Therefore, the variable items for the primary constructs could be confirmed as good indicators for each construct. This was deemed necessary given the large number of variable items in the study and ensured each measurement model was representative of the primary constructs contained in the full model.

Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE) is the most common SEM estimation procedure used to provide valid and stable results (Hair et al., 2010) and was used for model estimation in this study. Nonetheless it is acknowledged that, in conditions where the sample is non-normal, MLE can derive unstable parameter estimates (Hair et al., 2003; Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003). Also with larger sample sizes (>400) the method becomes more sensitive and even minor differences are detected leading to suggestions of poor fit for the data (Hair et al., 2003). Given the sample size of this study is 306 and the data is non-normal the potential for stability issues with MLE was addressed by applying estimate criteria within the AMOS discrepancy setting for MLE. The estimate criteria applied were: *measurement model standardised regression weights (factor loadings), critical ratio, squared multiple correlation* and *structural model standardised path coefficients* (Holmes-Smith, 2015). These estimates are now described and justified.

Measurement model standardised regression weights (factor loadings) within a range of 0.50–0.80 are characterized as strong in AMOS reporting with higher loadings (closer to 0.80) considered stronger (Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003; Kline, 2011). Standardised regression weights <0.30 are weak and while those >0.80 are very strong, they occur rarely in social science research (Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003).

Critical ratios (CR) of ±1.96, or where *p-values* are <0.01 were considered significant (Hair et al., 2003).

Squared multiple correlations (SMC, R^2) represent variable reliability (Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003). SMC has long been used as a measure for means of fit although not without debate regarding suitable levels (Field, 2013). An SMC loading of 0.30 is often considered the minimal acceptable loading, although loadings between 0.30–0.50 are still considered weaker indicators of reliability (Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003). Therefore, for this research, SMCs of >0.50 were considered as indicators of good reliability (Hair et al., 2003; Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003).

Structural model standardised path coefficients with values between 0.50–0.80 have strong effects while those <0.50 were considered moderate or weaker. Therefore, estimate criteria >0.50 was applied to the structural model.

The value criteria applied for model estimation are detailed in Table 5.18

Table 5.18 Model estimation evaluation criteria

Criteria	Symbol or Abbreviation	Acceptable Value
Measurement model standardised regression weights (factor loadings)	λ	<0.30 weak; 0.30-0.50 moderate; 0.50-0.80 strong; >0.80 very strong
Critical ratio	CR	±1.96
Squared multiple correlations	SMC, R^2	<0.30 low; 0.30-0.50 adequate; >0.50 good
Structural model standardised path coefficients	β	<0.10 weak; 0.20-0.30 mild; 0.30 – 0.50 moderate; 0.50-0.80 strong; >0.80 very strong

References: *(Hair et al., 2003; Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003).*

Model Evaluation

The most fundamental step in SEM concerns establishing acceptable levels for goodness-of-fit and construct validity for the measurement model (Hair et al., 2010). It is recommended that several criteria be used to evaluate model fit as no individual fit measure provides conclusive results (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010; Holmes-Smith, 2015). Therefore, the fit of this study's primary constructs and structural model was evaluated using multiple fit measures. These measures were *chi-square* (χ^2); *normed chi-square* (χ^2/df or CMIN/df); *standardised root mean-square residual* (SRMR); *goodness of fit index* (GFI), *Tucker-Lewis index* (TLI) *comparative fit index* (CFI) and *root mean-square error of approximation* (RMSEA). The measures are discussed in turn.

Chi-square (χ^2) compares observed and estimated covariance matrices as a measure of Goodness of Fit of a model. The closer the values of these matrices to each other, the better the model fit (Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003). A *p-value* of >0.05 indicates low deviation between the observed and estimated matrices and is considered a general acceptance level of χ^2 (Hair et al., 2003). Nonetheless χ^2 assumes perfect model fit in the population being studied and so χ^2 should be interpreted with caution when the study sample size is >200 or contains non-normal data (Hair et al., 2003; Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003; Byrne, 2010). These concerns for χ^2 were considered relevant for this study and so multiple fit statistics were applied.

Normed chi-square (χ^2/df or CMIN/df) is a fit measure that considers the simple ratio of χ^2 to the degrees of freedom for a model (Hair et al., 2003). Values for this measure should be between 1.0 and 3.0 with values between 1.0 and 2.0 considered to be the best fit (Hair et al., 2003; Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003).

The *standardised root mean-square residual* (SRMR) is useful for comparing fit across the model with lower values representing good fit and higher values representing bad fit (Hair et al., 2003). Values >0.10 suggest a problem with fit and it is argued that values <0.06 are best although <0.08 may be acceptable (Hair et al., 2003; Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003). For this study SRMRs <0.08 were the accepted criteria.

The *goodness of fit index* (GFI) produces a fit statistic that is less sensitive to sample size (Hair et al., 2003). The possible range of GFI is 0–1 with higher values indicating a better fit. Whilst values >0.95 are prescribed by some researchers, values >0.90 are considered an acceptably good fit (Hair et al., 2003; Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003). As such the GFI criteria of >0.90 was set for this study.

Root mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) better represents how a model fits a population as it corrects for both model complexity and sample size by including both in its computation (Hair et al., 2003). It is considered one of the most informative fit measures as it measures the discrepancy per degree of freedom (Byrne, 2010). Lower RMSEA values indicate better fit with values >0.10 considered a poor fit, while values <0.08 are considered reasonable and values <0.05 considered to be a good fit (Hair et al., 2003; Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003; Byrne, 2010).

The *Tucker-Lewis index* (TLI) is an incremental fit index that compares the normed chi-square values for the null and specified model (Hair et al., 2003) which is useful for complex models. However, the TLI is not normed and so its range of values can be higher than other indices that typically range from 0–1, however it is conducive to larger samples (>150) making it suitable for this study (Hair et al., 2003; Kline, 2011). Typically models with TLI values approaching 1.0 are considered to have good fit (Hair et al., 2003) and so a criteria of >0.90 was set for this study. It is also noted that, while models reporting TLI values >1.0 are acceptable this may influence model parsimony (Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003). The parsimony principle suggests that when given two models with similar fit to the same data, the simpler model is preferred, assuming that model is theoretically plausible (Kline, 2011).

Comparative fit index (CFI) is an incremental fit index with normed values so that the values range from 0-1 with higher values indicating better fit (Hair et al., 2003). The CFI has relative insensitivity to model complexity (Hair et al., 2003) and so is considered an appropriate fit measure for this study with a CFI value of >0.90 considered acceptable (Hair et al., 2003; Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003). As with the TLI, CFI values >1.00 may be acceptable but could affect model parsimony (Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003). Incremental fit indices such as TLI and CFI appear to be more susceptible to misrepresentation of fit in more complex models and so these indices should be interpreted in light of the characteristics of the research (Hair et al., 2010).

The Goodness of Fit evaluation criteria values, as well as the recommended levels of acceptance for this study are summarised in Table 5.19.

Having established the model estimation and evaluation procedures and benchmarks for CFA the next section will detail the results of CFA conducted on each of the primary constructs.

Table 5.19 Summary of the Goodness of Fit criteria values

Criteria	Symbol or Abbreviation	Acceptable Value
	Absolute fit indices	
Chi-square	χ^2	p>0.05
Normed chi-square	χ^2/df or CMIN/df	<3.0
Standardised root mean-square residual	SRMR	<0.08
Goodness of Fit index	GFI	>0.90
Root mean-square error of approximation	RMSEA	<0.05 good; <0.08 acceptable
	Incremental fit indices	
Tucker-Lewis Index	TLI	>0.90
Comparative fit index	CFI	>0.90
References: (Schumaker and Lomax, 1996; Hair et al., 2003; Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003; Byrne, 2010; Kline, 2011)		

5.5.2 ASSESSING THE MEASUREMENT MODELS

Five primary constructs were identified for the research model of this study. These constructs were: (1) *consumer moral orientation*, (2) *consumer perceived sponsor motivation*, (3) *consumer moral judgement*, (4) *sponsorship-generated goodwill* and (5) *sponsor CBBE*. The dependent construct of *sponsor CBBE* was conceptualised to be a framework comprised of five factors being: (1) *brand associations*, (2) *brand image*, (3) *brand credibility*, (4) *sense of brand community* and (5) *behavioural intentions*.

These constructs and factors are the measurement models for this study. The measurement models identify the relationships among the constructs and their item variable indicators. The CFA results (using AMOS version 23) for each measurement model are now detailed.

CFA for consumer moral orientation

Consumer moral orientation is the first independent variable construct presented in the research model for this study. Resulting from EFA (Section 5.4.2) a seven-item scale was identified as a reliable measure (Cronbach's alpha 0.93) for the construct. The construct was modelled using the grouping of items from EFA (Figure 5.3, p. 128) and the seven variable items were grouped into two sub-factors namely *values* and *behaviour*. The results of CFA and fit indices for this model are shown in Table 5.20 and Table 5.21. Note: to suit the AMOS software the model labels MO_VAL (for *values*) and MO_BHV (for *behaviour*) were used.

Table 5.20 CFA parameter estimates, CR values and SMCs for *consumer moral orientation*

Latent Constructs and Items for *consumer moral orientation*	**Parameter Estimates (standardised regression weights λ)**	**Critical Ratio Values (CR)**	**Squared Multiple Correlations (SMCs or R^2)**
MO_VAL → CM1 *'Helpful'*	0.88	N/A	0.77
MO_VAL → CM2 *'Honesty'*	0.89	22.07	0.80
MO_VAL → CM3 *'Loyalty'*	0.87	20.76	0.75
MO_VAL → CM4 *'Responsibility'*	0.89	21.94	0.80
MO_BHV → CM5 *'Volunteer'*	0.86	N/A	0.74
MO_BHV → CM6 *'Close ties'*	0.80	16.59	0.64
MO_BHV → CM7 *'Give time'*	0.90	19.28	0.81
MO_BHV ↔ MO_VALUES	0.66 (co-variance)	8.41	

Note: The parameter estimates are reported as standardised regression weight values. CR values are reported from the unstandardized regression weights given in the parameter estimates. Some CR are reported as non-applicable (N/A) because the parameter was constrained for model identification

The results shown in Table 5.20 confirm the results from EFA. All of the regression weights were considered strong at >0.50 indicating that the measurement items were a strong representation of the *consumer moral orientation* construct. All of the CR values exceeded the ±1.96 threshold and in addition the SMCs were all >0.50. Next the Goodness of Fit Indices are considered.

Table 5.21 CFA Goodness of Fit indices for *consumer moral orientation*

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	*df*	*p*	χ^2/df or CMIN/*df*	SRMR	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
31.33	13	0.003	2.41	0.03	0.97	0.98	0.99	0.07

Table 5.21 shows that the chi-square *p-value* is below the recommended measure of >0.05 and that the CMIN/*df* value, whilst below the benchmark of 3.00, is relatively high. The other indices were all within the recommended benchmarks yet, given the importance placed upon chi-square values as a primary indicator of fit in construct measurement models it was decided to examine the AMOS modification indices as recommended by Holmes-Smith (2015).

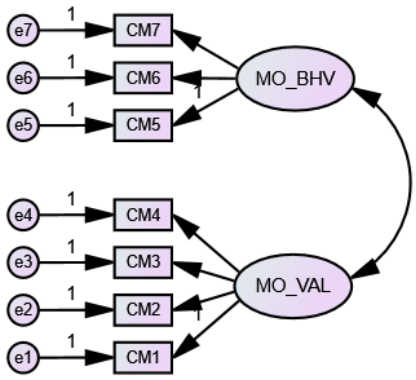
The modification indices revealed covariance between the residuals for the variable items CM1 and CM5 (e1 ↔ e 5) of 11.77 as well as a covariance of 9.92 between e1 and the behaviour factor. In re-examining the variable item CM1 - *helpfulness (working for the welfare of others)* it was concluded there were similarities in meaning with the behavioural related items of CM5 '*volunteering*' and CM7 '*giving of one's own time*'. Therefore, CM1 was removed from the model for retesting. The results from scale modification are shown in Table 5.22.

Table 5.22 Final CFA Goodness of Fit indices for *consumer moral orientation*

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	*df*	*p*	χ^2/df or CMIN/*df*	SRMR	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
12.94	8	0.11	1.62	0.02	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.05

The revised CFA Goodness of Fit results shown in Table 5.23 showed notable improvements for the chi-square related indices with all of the test results now being within the recommended ranges. In this case, it was justifiable to remove the CM1 item from the scale and the result of modification is the measurement model (Figure 5.12) is now a sound representation of the *consumer moral orientation* construct.

Figure 5.12 *Consumer moral orientation* measurement model



Source: developed for this research

CFA for consumer perceived sponsor motivation

Two scales used to measure the construct *consumer perceived sponsor motivation*. One was positively oriented using three variable items and the other negatively oriented using four variable items. Final EFA for the two scales indicated equally strong reliability with Cronbach's alpha results of 0.91 for both scales. However, EFA of the scales indicated they could not be correlated and as such CFA was conducted independently. The results of CFA for *consumer perceived sponsor motivation (positive)* are shown in Table 5.23. Note: the model labels SPON_MOT_P and SPON_MOT_N were used respectively, for positive (P) and negative (N).

Table 5.23 CFA parameter estimates, CR values and SMCs for *consumer perceived sponsor motivation (positive)*

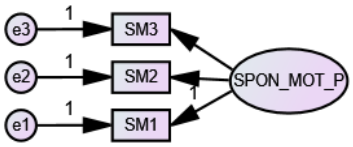
Latent Constructs and Items for *consumer perceived sponsor motivations (positive)*	**Parameter Estimates (standardised regression weights λ)**	**Critical Ratio Values (CR)**	**Squared Multiple Correlations (SMCs or R^2)**
SPON_MOT_P → SM1 *'Unselfish'*	0.87	N/A	0.74
SPON_MOT_P → SM2 *'Generous'*	0.91	20.60	0.82
SPON_MOT_P → SM3 *'Charitable'*	0.86	19.45	0.76

Note: The parameter estimates are reported as standardised regression weight values. CR values are reported from the unstandardized regression weights given in the parameter estimates. Some CR are reported as non-applicable (N/A) because the parameter was constrained for model identification.

The results shown in Table 5.23 confirm the results from EFA. All of the regression weights were considered very strong at >0.80 indicating that the measurement items were a strong representation of the *consumer perceived sponsor motivation (positive)* construct. All of the CR values exceeded the ±1.96 threshold and in addition the SMCs were all >0.50.

As a three-item scale the measurement model is saturated, that is the number of estimated parameters equals the number of data points (Byrne, 2010). This means the model perfectly fits the data and has no errors, therefore Goodness of Fit is considered not applicable (Field, 2013; Holmes-Smith, 2015). The measurement model is represented at figure 5.13.

Figure 5.13 *Consumer perceived sponsor motivation (positive)* measurement model



Source: developed for this research

The results of CFA for *consumer perceived sponsor motivation (negative)* are shown in Table 5.24.

Table 5.24 CFA parameter estimates, CR values and SMCs for *consumer perceived sponsor motivation (negative)*

Latent Constructs and Items for *consumer perceived sponsor motivation (negative)*	**Parameter Estimates (standardised regression weights λ)**	**Critical Ratio Values (CR)**	**Squared Multiple Correlations (SMCs or R^2)**
SPON_MOT_N → SM4 *'Underhand'*	0.89	N/A	0.79
SPON_MOT_N → SM5 *'Self Interest'*	0.87	20.53	0.75
SPON_MOT_N → SM6 *'Uncharitable'*	0.77	16.81	0.60
SPON_MOT_N → SM7 *'Cynical'*	0.88	21.16	0.78

Note: The parameter estimates are reported as standardised regression weight values. CR values are reported from the unstandardized regression weights given in the parameter estimates. Some CR are reported as non-applicable (N/A) because the parameter was constrained for model identification.

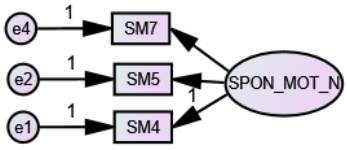
The results shown in Table 5.24 confirm the results from EFA. All of the regression weights were considered very strong indicating that the measurement items were an acceptable representation of the *consumer perceived sponsor motivation (negative)* construct. All of the CR values exceeded the ±1.96 threshold and in addition the SMCs were all >0.50. Next the Goodness of Fit Indices were considered.

Table 5.25 CFA Goodness of Fit indices for consumer perceived sponsor motivation (negative)

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	*df*	*p*	χ^2/df or CMIN/*df*	SRMR	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
10.17	2	0.01	5.09	0.02	0.98	0.97	0.99	0.12

The CFA Goodness of Fit results shown in Table 5.25 indicate only that the TLI, CFI, GFI and RMR results were within the recommended ranges. These results cast doubt on the model's fit with the data. Examination of the modification indices reveal a covariance between the residuals e2 ↔ e3 related to SM6 and SM5 with a modification index of 7.24. This suggests if one of these items were to be removed from the model the Goodness of Fit would be satisfactorily improved. However, this would leave a three-item scale that was saturated thereby meaning, as with the negative scale, the Goodness of Fit indices would no longer be applicable. Given that SM6 had the lowest parameter estimate, critical ratio and standardised regression weight of the scale it was decided to remove it from the scale to improve the model's fit. The final measurement model is shown in Figure 5.14.

Figure 5.14 ***Consumer perceived sponsor motivation (negative)*** **measurement model**



Source: developed for this research

CFA for consumer moral judgement

Final EFA for the independent construct *consumer moral judgement* indicated firm reliability for the seven-item scale with a Cronbach's alpha result of 0.96. Therefore, the construct was modelled using the same seven items depicted in Figure 5.5 (p. 131). The results of CFA and fit indices for this model are shown in Table 5.26 and Table 5.27. Note: To suit the AMOS software the model label MOR_JUDG is used.

The results shown in Table 5.26 confirm the results from EFA. All of the regression weights were considered very strong at >0.80 indicating that the measurement items were a strong representation of the *consumer moral judgement* construct. All of the CR values exceeded the ±1.96 threshold and in addition the SMCs were all >0.50. Next the Goodness of Fit Indices are considered.

Table 5.26 CFA parameter estimates, CR values and SMCs for *consumer moral judgement*

Latent Constructs and Items for *consumer moral judgement*	**Parameter Estimates (standardised regression weights λ)**	**Critical Ratio Values (CR)**	**Squared Multiple Correlations (SMCs or R^2)**
MOR_JUDG → MJ1 *'Appropriate'*	0.91	N/A	0.83
MOR_JUDG → MJ2 *'Agreeable'*	0.92	27.12	0.84
MOR_JUDG → MJ3 *'Moral'*	0.91	26.18	0.82
MOR_JUDG → MJ4 *'Ethical'*	0.87	23.80	0.76
MOR_JUDG → MJ5 *'Good for Community'*	0.87	23.78	0.76
MOR_JUDG → MJ6 *'Inoffensive'*	0.83	21.39	0.70
MOR_JUDG → MJ7 *'Honest'*	0.88	24.62	0.78

Note: The parameter estimates are reported as standardised regression weight values. CR values are reported from the unstandardized regression weights given in the parameter estimates. Some critical ratios are reported as non-applicable (N/A) because the parameter was constrained for model identification.

Table 5.27 CFA Goodness of Fit indices for *consumer moral judgement*

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	***df***	***p***	χ^2/***df*** **or CMIN/*df***	**SRMR**	**GFI**	**TLI**	**CFI**	**RMSEA**
78.23	14	0.00	5.59	0.02	0.93	0.96	0.97	0.12

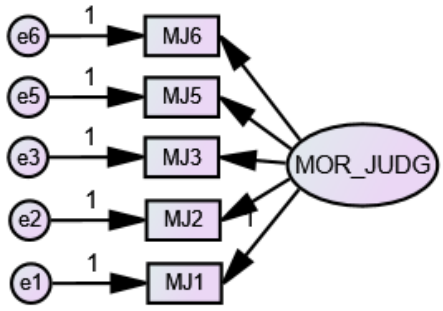
The results in Table 5.27 show that only the values for SRMR, GFI, TLI and CFI are within the acceptable benchmarks indicating that the model was not an acceptable fit with the data. Consequently, the modification indices produced by AMOS were examined to see what covariance might be occurring. The residuals for MJ4 and MJ7 had high values of covariance. MJ4 was removed from the model with a moderate improvement in fit resulting. MJ7 was then removed and a significant improvement was realised. To confirm these were the right actions to take the model was re-tested with MJ4 included but MJ7 removed but no significant improvement in fit was realised. The results indicated that with MJ4 '*ethical*' and MJ7 '*honest*', respondents were being asked to consider concepts that were difficult for them to relate to sponsorship of grassroots activities. Therefore, items MJ4 and MJ7 were excluded from the revised model to establish the most parsimonious fit with the data. The subsequent Goodness of Fit indices are provided in Table 5.28.

Table 5.28 Final CFA Goodness of Fit indices for *consumer moral judgement*

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	*df*	*p*	χ^2/df or CMIN/*df*	SRMR	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
6.90	5	0.23	1.38	0.01	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.04

The results in Table 5.28 indicate a strong fit for the independent construct *consumer moral judgement*. The final measurement model is shown in Figure 5.15.

Figure 5.15 *Consumer moral judgement* measurement model



Source: developed for this research

CFA for sponsorship-generated goodwill

The final EFA for the independent construct *sponsorship-generated goodwill* indicated firm reliability for the scale with a Cronbach's alpha result of 0.97 and strong factor loadings for all 10 items in the scale. Therefore, the construct was modelled using the same ten items depicted in Figure 5.6 (p. 132). The results of CFA and fit indices for this model are shown in Table 5.29 and Table 5.30. Note: to suit the AMOS software the model label GOODWILL is used.

Table 5.29 CFA parameter estimates, CR values and SMCs for *sponsorship-generated goodwill*

Latent Constructs and Items for *sponsorship-generated goodwill*	**Parameter Estimates (standardised regression weights λ)**	**Critical Ratio Values (CR)**	**Squared Multiple Correlations (SMCs or R^2)**
GOODWILL → SG1 *'I'm ok with it'*	0.89	N/A	0.79
GOODWILL → SG2 *'Improves standing'*	0.86	22.04	0.75
GOODWILL → SG3 *'Improves goodwill'*	0.85	21.11	0.72
GOODWILL → SG4 *'It's helpful'*	0.88	23.10	0.78
GOODWILL → SG5 *'I like it'*	0.90	24.02	0.80
GOODWILL → SG6 *'It's not annoying'*	0.83	20.04	0.68
GOODWILL → SG7 *'It's valuable'*	0.87	22.32	0.75
GOODWILL → SG8 *'Favourable'*	0.92	25.55	0.84
GOODWILL → SG9 *'Positive'*	0.93	26.65	0.87
GOODWILL → SG10 *'It's not intrusive'*	0.81	19.25	0.65

Note: The parameter estimates are reported as standardised regression weight values. CR values are reported from the unstandardized regression weights given in the parameter estimates. Some CR are reported as non-applicable (N/A) because the parameter was constrained for model identification.

The results shown in Table 5.29 confirm the results from EFA. All of the regression weights were considered very strong at >0.80 indicating that the measurement items were a strong representation of the *sponsorship-generated goodwill* construct. All of the CR values exceeded the ±1.96 threshold and in addition the SMCs were all >0.50. Next the Goodness of Fit Indices were considered.

Table 5.30 CFA Goodness of Fit indices for *sponsorship-generated goodwill*

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	***df***	***p***	χ^2/df **or CMIN/*df***	**SRMR**	**GFI**	**TLI**	**CFI**	**RMSEA**
222.16	35	0.00	6.35	0.03	0.88	0.93	0.95	0.13

The results in Table 5.30 show that only the values for RMR, TLI and CFI are within the acceptable benchmarks indicating that the measurement model in its current structure is not a good fit with the data. Examination of the modification indices show that there was high covariance between the residuals for *SG2 'improves their standing with me'* and SG3 *'increases my goodwill towards them'* (with *'them'* being the sponsor). These items were similar in meaning but as SG3 includes the construct term goodwill it was decided to exclude SG2 in the first instance and re-test for fit.

The re-test showed moderate improvement in the fit indices but the model was still not within acceptable benchmarks. The next highest covariance was occurring between SG 10 *'it's not intrusive'* and SG 6 *'it's not annoying'* (with *'it'* being the sponsorship). Based on early qualitative research by Meenaghan (1999) the term

'intrusive' was deemed more relevant than *'annoying'* in sponsorship situations so it was decided to re-test the model after excluding SG6.

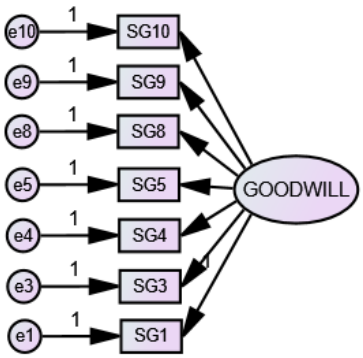
This re-test again showed moderate improvement in the fit but the model was still not within acceptable benchmarks particularly in relation to its *p-value* and RMSEA value. The modification indices at this point were indicating a high covariance between the residuals for SG7 *'it's valuable'* and SG4 *'it's helpful'*. Again, consideration of the sponsorship situation led to a preference to retain SG4 and so SG7 was excluded and the model re-tested. This change saw a significant improvement in the Goodness of Fit indices as shown in Table 5.31.

Table 5.31 Final CFA Goodness of Fit indices for *sponsorship-generated goodwill*

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	*df*	*p*	χ^2/*df* or CMIN/*df*	SRMR	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
16.98	14	0.26	1.21	0.01	0.98	1.00*	1.00*	0.03
*Prior to being rounded up to two decimal places the TLI measure was 0.998 and CFI was 0.999								

With all measures now being in within the acceptable benchmarks and a parsimonious model having been achieved, the final measurement model is shown in Figure 5.16.

Figure 5.16 *Sponsorship-generated goodwill* measurement model



Source: developed for this research

CFA for brand associations

Final EFA for the dependent construct *brand associations* indicated firm reliability for the scale with a Cronbach's alpha result of 0.93 and strong factor loadings for all three items in the scale. Therefore, the construct was modelled using the same three items depicted in Figure 5.7 (p. 133). The results of CFA for this model are shown in Table 5.32. Note: to suit the AMOS software the model label BE_ASSOC is used.

Table 5.32 CFA parameter estimates, CR values and SMCs for *brand associations*

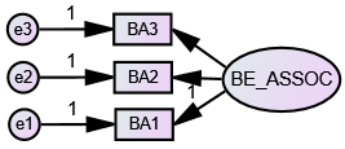
Latent Constructs and Items for *brand associations*	Parameter Estimates (standardised regression weights λ)	Critical Ratio Values (CR)	Squared Multiple Correlations (SMCs or R^2)
BE_ASSOC → BA1 *'Improved attitude'*	0.94	N/A	0.89
BE_ASSOC → BA2 *'Improved image'*	0.91	26.50	0.84
BE_ASSOC → BA3 *'Reliable'*	0.87	23.44	0.75

Note: The parameter estimates are reported as standardised regression weight values. CR values are reported from the unstandardized regression weights given in the parameter estimates. Some CR are reported as non-applicable (N/A) because the parameter was constrained for model identification.

The results shown in Table 5.32 confirm the result from EFA. All of the regression weights were considered very strong at >0.80 indicating that the measurement items were a strong representation of the *brand associations* construct. All of the CR values exceeded the ±1.96 threshold and in addition the SMCs were all considered good at >0.50.

The *brand associations* measurement model comprises three variable items and as such is a saturated model, that is the number of estimated parameters equals the number of data points (Byrne, 2010). This means the model perfectly fits the data and has no errors, therefore Goodness of Fit is considered not applicable (Field, 2013; Holmes-Smith, 2015). The measurement model is represented at figure 5.17.

Figure 5.17 *Brand associations* measurement model



Source: developed for this research

CFA for brand image

The final EFA for the dependent construct *brand image* indicated firm reliability for the scale with a Cronbach's alpha result of 0.97 and strong factor loadings for all ten items in the scale. Therefore, the construct was modelled using the same ten items depicted in Figure 5.8 (p. 134). The results of CFA and fit indices for this model are shown in Table 5.33 and Table 5.34. Note: To suit the AMOS software the model label BE_IMGE is used.

Table 5.33 CFA parameter estimates, CR values and SMCs for *brand image*

Latent Constructs and Items for *brand image*	Parameter Estimates (standardised regression weights λ)	Critical Ratio Values (CR)	Squared Multiple Correlations (SMCs or R^2)
BE_IMGE → BI1 *'More down to earth'*	0.90	N/A	0.82
BE_IMGE → BI2 *'More honest'*	0.92	27.07	0.85
BE_IMGE → BI3 *'More sincere'*	0.93	27.54	0.86
BE_IMGE → BI4 *'More real'*	0.92	26.67	0.84
BE_IMGE → BI5 *'More friendly'*	0.91	25.98	0.83
BE_IMGE → BI6 *'More genuine'*	0.92	26.95	0.85
BE_IMGE → BI7 *'More caring'*	0.91	26.24	0.83

Note: The parameter estimates are reported as standardised regression weight values. CR values are reported from the unstandardized regression weights given in the parameter estimates. Some CR are reported as non-applicable (N/A) because the parameter was constrained for model identification.

The results shown in Table 5.33 confirm the results from EFA. All of the regression weights were considered very strong at >0.80 indicating that the measurement items were a strong representation of the *brand image* construct. All of the CR values exceeded the ±1.96 threshold and in addition the SMCs were all considered good at >0.50. Next the Goodness of Fit Indices were considered.

Table 5.34 CFA Goodness of Fit indices for *brand image*

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	*df*	*p*	χ^2/df or CMIN/*df*	SRMR	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
74.74	14	0.00	5.34	0.02	0.94	0.97	0.98	0.12

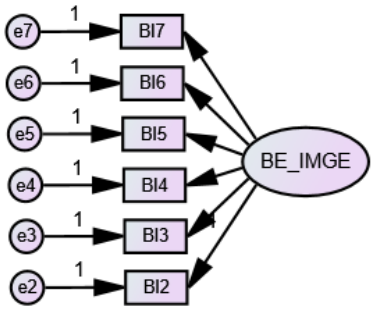
The results in Table 5.34 show the values for RMR, TLI, GFI and CFI are within the acceptable benchmarks, yet the chi-square related indices and RMSEA result suggest the measurement model in its current structure is not a good fit with the data. Examination of the modification indices showed high covariance between the residuals for BI1 *'more down to earth'* and BI4 *'more real'*. BI1 also had high covariance with the residuals of BI5 *'more friendly'*. Therefore, with the aim of developing a more parsimonious model, it was decided to exclude BI1 and re-test for fit. The re-test showed noticeable improvement in the Goodness of Fit indices as shown in Table 5.35.

Table 5.35 Final CFA Goodness of Fit indices for *brand image*

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	*df*	*p*	χ^2/*df* or CMIN/*df*	SRMR	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
23.90	9	0.01	2.65	0.01	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.07

In examining Table 5.35 all of the fit indices had improved and were now within acceptable range, except for the *p-value*. A sample's population size and non-normal data can effect *p-values* (Hair et al., 2003; Holmes-Smith, 2015) and given the *p-value* in this instance had improved and was close to the benchmark it was concluded that the model fit was acceptable. The final measurement model is shown in Figure 5.18.

Figure 5.18 *Brand image* measurement model



Source: developed for this research

CFA for brand credibility

Final EFA for the dependent construct *brand credibility* indicated firm reliability for the scale with a Cronbach's alpha result of 0.97 and strong factor loadings for all seven items in the scale (range 0.85–0.93). Therefore, the construct was modelled using the same seven items depicted in Figure 5.9 (p. 135). The results of CFA and fit indices for this model are shown in Table 5.36 and Table 5.37. Note: to suit the AMOS software the model label BE_CRED is used.

Table 5.36 CFA parameter estimates, CR values and SMCs for *brand credibility*

Latent Constructs and Items for *brand credibility*	**Parameter Estimates (standardised regression weights λ)**	**Critical Ratio Values (CR)**	**Squared Multiple Correlations (SMCs or R^2)**
BE_CRED → BC1 *'Credible'*	0.93	N/A	0.86
BE_CRED → BC2 *'Trustworthy'*	0.91	28.31	0.83
BE_CRED → BC3 *'Expert'*	0.85	23.44	0.73
BE_CRED → BC4 *'Believable'*	0.92	28.83	0.84
BE_CRED → BC5 *'Reputable'*	0.91	27.98	0.83
BE_CRED → BC6 *'Reliable'*	0.93	30.39	0.87
BE_CRED → BC7 *'Dependable'*	0.93	29.90	0.86

Note: The parameter estimates are reported as standardised regression weight values. CR values are reported from the unstandardized regression weights given in the parameter estimates. Some CR are reported as non-applicable (N/A) because the parameter was constrained for model identification.

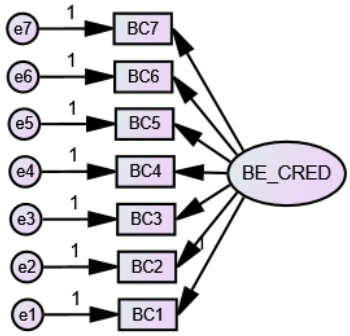
The results shown in Table 5.36 confirm the results from EFA. All of the regression weights, were considered very strong at >0.80. These results indicate that the measurement items were a strong representation of the *brand credibility* construct. All of the CR values exceeded the ±1.96 threshold and in addition the SMCs were all considered good at >0.50. Next the Goodness of Fit Indices were considered.

Table 5.37 CFA Goodness of Fit indices for *brand credibility*

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	***df***	***p***	χ^2/***df*** **or CMIN/*df***	**SRMR**	**GFI**	**TLI**	**CFI**	**RMSEA**
25.80	14	0.03	1.84	0.07	0.98	0.99	0.99	0.05

The results in Table 5.37 show all of the fit indices were within acceptable range, except for the *p-value*. As previously noted a sample's population size and non-normal data can effect *p-values* (Hair et al., 2003; Holmes-Smith, 2015) and given the *p-value* in this instance was very close to the benchmark it was concluded that the model fit was acceptable. Nonetheless, the modification indices were examined but revealed only a minor covariance between the residuals for BC2 and BC4 thereby indicating no significant improvement would be achieved by revising the model. The final measurement model is shown in Figure 5.19.

Figure 5.19 *Brand credibility* measurement model



Source: developed for this research

CFA for sense of brand community

The final EFA for the dependent construct *sense of brand community* indicated firm reliability for the scale with a Cronbach's alpha result of 0.95 and strong factor loadings for all five items in the scale (range 0.88 – 0.91). Therefore, the construct was modelled using the same five items depicted in Figure 5.10 (p. 136). The results of CFA and fit indices for this model are shown in Table 5.38 and Table 5.39. Note: to suit the AMOS software the model label BE_COMMY is used.

The results shown in Table 5.38 confirm the results from EFA. All of the regression weights were considered very strong at >0.80 indicating that the measurement items were a strong representation of the *sense of brand community* construct. All of the CR values exceeded the ±1.96 threshold and in addition the SMCs were all considered good at >0.50. Next the Goodness of Fit Indices were considered.

Table 5.38 CFA parameter estimates, CR values and SMCs for *sense of brand community*

Latent Constructs and Items for *sense of brand community*	**Parameter Estimates (standardised regression weights λ)**	**Critical Ratio Values (CR)**	**Squared Multiple Correlations (SMCs or R^2)**
BE_COMMY → BS1 *'Attachment'*	0.91	N/A	0.83
BE_COMMY → BS2 *'Communality'*	0.88	23.84	0.78
BE_COMMY → BS3 *'Know better'*	0.88	23.65	0.77
BE_COMMY → BS4 *'Part of my community'*	0.88	23.50	0.77
BE_COMMY → BS5 *'Strengthens my community'*	0.88	23.59	0.77

Note: The parameter estimates are reported as standardised regression weight values. CR values are reported from the unstandardized regression weights given in the parameter estimates. Some CR are reported as non-applicable (N/A) because the parameter was constrained for model identification.

The results in Table 5.39 show that only the SRMR, GFI, CFI and TLI fit indices were within acceptable range. Therefore the model was not considered a good fit with the data and the modification indices were examined for possible solutions to improve the model (Holmes-Smith, 2015).

Table 5.39 CFA Goodness of Fit indices for *sense of brand community*

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	*df*	*p*	χ^2/df or CMIN/*df*	SRMR	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
43.69	5	0.00	8.74	0.02	0.94	0.95	0.97	0.16

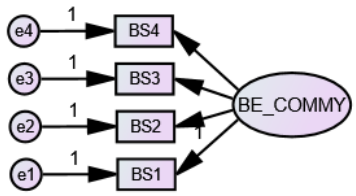
The modification indices showed a high covariance between the residual errors for BS4 and BS5. BS5 also had covariance with two other items in the measurement model. BS5 related to consumer feelings that *'the sponsor has helped to strengthen your community'* which was similar in wording to BS4 which related to the sponsor being *'part of your community'*. Consequently, the model was re-tested for Goodness of Fit with BS5 removed and there was improvement in the indices as shown in Table 5.40.

Table 5.40 Final CFA Goodness of Fit indices for *sense of brand community*

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	*df*	*p*	χ^2/df or CMIN/*df*	SRMR	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
0.46	2	0.79	0.23	0.003	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.00

The Goodness of Fit indices for the revised model were all now well within the acceptable range and the model was now considered a good fit with the data. The final measurement model is shown in Figure 5.20

Figure 5.20 *Sense of brand community* measurement model



Source: developed for this research

CFA for behavioural intentions

The final EFA for the dependent construct *behavioural intentions* indicated firm reliability for the scale with a Cronbach's alpha result of 0.93 and strong factor loadings for all four items in the scale (range 0.90–0.93). Therefore, the construct was modelled

using the same four items depicted in Figure 5.11 (p. 137). The results of CFA and fit indices for this model are shown in Table 5.41 and Table 5.42. Note: to suit the AMOS software the model label BE_INTN is used.

Table 5.41 CFA parameter estimates, CR values and SMCs for *behavioural intentions*

Latent Constructs and Items for *behavioural intentions*	**Parameter Estimates (standardised regression weights λ)**	**Critical Ratio Values (CR)**	**Squared Multiple Correlations (SMCs or R^2)**
BE_INTN → BB1 *'Say positive'*	0.91	N/A	0.83
BE_INTN → BB2 *'Do business with'*	0.90	25.44	0.81
BE_INTN → BB3 *'Recommend'*	0.93	27.88	0.87
BE_INTN → BB4 *'Encourage others'*	0.93	27.75	0.86

Note: The parameter estimates are reported as standardised regression weight values. CR values are reported from the unstandardized regression weights given in the parameter estimates. Some CR are reported as non-applicable (N/A) because the parameter was constrained for model identification.

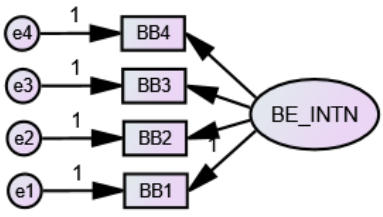
The results shown in Table 5.41 confirm the results from EFA. All of the regression weights were considered very strong at >0.80 indicating that the measurement items were a strong representation of the *behavioural intentions* construct. All of the CR values exceeded the ±1.96 threshold and in addition the SMCs were all considered good at >0.50. Next the Goodness of Fit Indices were considered.

Table 5.42 CFA Goodness of Fit indices for *behavioural intentions*

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	***df***	***p***	**χ^2/*df* or CMIN/*df***	**SRMR**	**GFI**	**TLI**	**CFI**	**RMSEA**
2.12	2	0.35	1.06	0.004	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.01

The results in Table 5.42 show that all of the Goodness of Fit indices were within acceptable range and the model for *behavioural intentions* could be considered a good fit with the data. The final measurement model is shown in Figure 5.21.

Figure 5.21 *Behavioural intentions* measurement model



Source: developed for this research

In summary, the previous sections provided details and justification of the CFA estimates and Goodness of Fit indices for the measurement models. The CFA results established support for the measures being used to operationalise the constructs within this study. Assessment for the reliability and validity of the final scales being used in the measurement models is next.

5.5.3 SEM RELIABILITY, VALIDITY AND STRUCTURAL MODEL EXAMINATION

In this section the accepted measurement models were assessed for reliability and validity. Assessing the scales of the measurement models for reliability and validity is the final indication of their usability in this study. The assessment was conducted using SEM methods as follows.

SEM Reliability. The reliability of constructs is assessed as the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable (Hair et al., 2010). Initially, Cronbach's alpha was used as a test of scale reliability during the EFA process (Section 5.4.2). As reported, all of the scales were assessed as reliable by achieving strong alphas >0.70 (Hair et al., 2010).

Measuring squared multiple correlations (SMCs or R^2) of the scale items adds further rigour to reliability testing during the CFA process (Hair et al., 2010). Section 5.5.2 reported SMCs for the 48 variable items so far retained for the measurement models all exceeded the prescribed benchmark of >0.50 (Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003; Hair et al., 2010).

Composite reliability and average variance extracted (AVE) were also calculated as a final test of reliability for the latent constructs. AVE is a summary indicator of convergence for the items within a measurement scale and a rule of thumb is that measures >0.50 suggest adequate convergence (Hair et al., 2010). Meanwhile composite reliability, computed from the squared sum of factor loadings and the sum of error variance, suggests good reliability if measures of >0.70 are achieved (Hair et al., 2010). Table 5.43 details the composite reliability and AVE calculations for the revised primary constructs.

Table 5.43 Construct composite reliability and AVE

Construct	Composite Reliability	AVE
Consumer moral orientation (values)	0.92	0.79
Consumer moral orientation (behaviour)	0.89	0.73
Consumer moral judgement	0.95	0.79
Perceived sponsor motivation (negative)	0.91	0.77
Perceived sponsor motivation (positive)	0.91	0.77
Sponsorship-generated goodwill	0.96	0.78
Brand associations	0.93	0.83
Brand image	0.97	0.84
Brand credibility	0.97	0.83
Sense of brand community	0.94	0.79
Behavioural intentions	0.96	0.84

The composite reliability and AVE measures shown in Table 5.43 all exceed the acceptable values and therefore it was concluded that the measurement scales were internally consistent and reliable.

SEM Validity. SEM can be used to specifically measure the construct, convergent and discriminant validities of the full structural model (Holmes-Smith, 2015).

Construct (or predictive) validity is how well the latent construct is represented by the set of variables used to measure it (Hair et al., 2010). The construct validity of this study was established through examination of the standardised regression weights (factor loadings) and the model fit using CFA. The standardised regression rates for each of the parameters were all >0.50 and the measurement models were established as well-fitting. Hence, construct validity was apparent.

Convergent validity refers to the proportion of variance that variable items used to measure a construct have in common (Hair et al., 2010). CFA of the parameter estimates and fit indices were used to establish convergent validity for the variables used in this study with all of the models demonstrating convergent validity (see Section 5.5.2).

Discriminant validity is the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs and measures some phenomenon the other constructs do not (Hair et al., 2010). Correlation methods, factor methods and the AVE (average variance extracted) method can be used to determine discriminant validity (Fornell and Larker, 1981).

The AVE method developed by Fornell and Larker (1981) suggests that if the average variance extracted exceeds the square of the correlation path between constructs (accounting for measurement error) then discriminant validity can be accepted (Holmes-Smith, 2015). The results of the AVE test are presented in Table 5.44.

Table 5.44 Discriminant validity between the latent constructs using AVE method

	MO_VAL	MO_BHV	SMON_MOT_P	SPON-MOT_N	MOR-JUDG	GOODWILL	BE_ASSOC	BE_IMG	BE_CRED	BE_COMMY	BE_INTN
MO_VAL	0.89	0.64	0.47	-0.35	0.62	0.58	0.49	0.46	0.43	0.42	0.42
MO_BHV		0.86	0.43	-0.18	0.59	0.53	0.49	0.50	0.51	0.50	0.49
SPON_MOT_P			0.88	-0.47	0.73	0.77	0.78	0.77	0.72	0.68	0.64
SPON_MOT_N				0.88	-0.38	-0.42	-0.36	-0.32	-0.27	-0.25	-0.36
MOR_JUDG					**0.89**	0.89	0.72	0.65	0.64	0.62	0.57
GOODWILL						**0.88**	0.79	0.75	0.73	0.71	0.69
BE_ASSOC							**0.91**	0.90	0.91	0.87	0.87
BE_IMG								**0.92**	0.95	0.91	0.86
BE_CRED									**0.91**	0.92	0.86
BE_COMMY										**0.89**	0.89
BE_INTN											0.92

Table 5.44 presents the AVE value for each latent construct on the highlighted diagonal. The squared correlations between the constructs are shown in the upper right triangle of the table, above the AVE diagonal.

The results show that there is discriminant validity between the latent constructs with the exception of *consumer moral judgement* and *sponsorship-generated goodwill*. The results also show there is a lack of discriminant validity for the dependent variables within the brand equity framework (the results where the AVE has been exceeded by a square of the correlation between constructs have been bolded in the table).

The presence of cross loadings, or lack of discriminant validity, that is not represented in a measurement model can cause problems of fit (Hair et al., 2010). A number of methods are suggested for addressing these problems. These include removing cases from the sample that may be causing low AVE or removing items from

the measurement scales that have high co-variance (Ping, 2009). Removing cases from the sample was considered to be impractical for this study, therefore, re-specification of the measurement models for the constructs was undertaken as detailed in the following sections.

Consumer Moral Judgment and Sponsorship-generated goodwill Measurement Models Re-specification

SEM validity testing revealed there was a lack of discriminant validity between the constructs of *consumer moral judgement* and *sponsorship-generated goodwill*. Lack of discriminant validity between constructs could lead to problems with fit for the overall measurement model (Hair et al., 2010) and so it was concluded that re-specification was required. Undertaking re-specification of a model requires the further analysis to be conducted in an exploratory rather than confirmatory frame and must take into account theoretical and practical as well as statistical considerations (Byrne, 2010).

One method to address lack of discriminant validity between two constructs is to merge the constructs (Hair et al., 2010; Holmes-Smith, 2015). However, findings from the literature review and the Stage 1 exploratory studies provided a basis to specify these as two constructs (see Section 3.4). Therefore, merging the constructs was considered a theoretically unacceptable solution.

An alternate approach was to compare the wording of the scale items from both constructs to look for similarities (Holmes-Smith, 2015) and then conduct a combined CFA analysis of both constructs to identify items that were statistically contributing high co-variance (Ping, 2009).

The combination of both these approaches resulted in the reduction of both measurement models to four-item scales that demonstrated discriminant validity. Variable items that were excluded showed some similarities in meaning and therefore co-variance. Comparison of the remaining variable items showed the two scales were discriminant as the *consumer moral judgement* items related to values based judgements of the sponsorship whereas *sponsorship-generated goodwill* items related to the respondents' affective responses to the sponsorship. These results aligned with findings from the Stage 1c exploratory study and provided a relevant theoretical perspective from which to re-specify the models. The results of CFA and fit indices for both re-specified models are now presented.

Table 5.45 CFA parameter estimates, CR values and SMCs for *consumer moral judgement* (re-specified)

Latent Constructs and Items for *consumer moral judgement*	Parameter Estimates (standardised regression weights λ)	Critical Ratio Values (CR)	Squared Multiple Correlations (SMCs or R^2)
MOR_JUDG → MJ3 (Moral)	0.87	N/A	0.76
MOR_JUDG → MJ4 (Ethical)	0.91	22.39	0.82
MOR_JUDG → MJ6 (Inoffensive)	0.85	19.84	0.73
MOR_JUDG → MJ7 (Honest)	0.91	22.53	0.83

Note: The parameter estimates are reported as standardised regression weight values. CR values are reported from the unstandardized regression weights given in the parameter estimates. Some CR are reported as non-applicable (N/A) because the parameter was constrained for model identification.

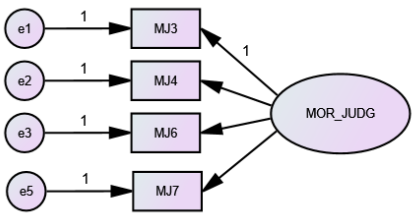
The results shown in Table 5.45 show all of the regression weights were considered very strong at >0.80 indicating that the measurement items were a strong representation of the *consumer moral judgement* construct. All of the CR values exceeded the ±1.96 threshold and in addition the SMCs were all >0.50. Next the Goodness of Fit Indices are considered.

Table 5.46 CFA Goodness of Fit indices for *consumer moral judgement* (re-specified)

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	d*f*	p	χ^2/df or CMIN/*df*	SRMR	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
1.74	2	0.42	0.87	0.01	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.00

The results in Table 5.46 indicate a strong fit for the independent construct *consumer moral judgement*. Reliability and validity was also confirmed with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.94, an Eigenvalue of 3.13 with 83.69% of variance explained as a univariate scale. The final measurement model is shown in Figure 5.22.

Figure 5.22 *Consumer moral judgement* measurement model (re-specified)



Source: developed for this research

Next, Table 5.47 shows the metrics for the respecified measurement model for *sponsorship-generated goodwill* construct.

Table 5.47 CFA parameter estimates, CR values and SMCs for *sponsorship-generated goodwill* (re-specified)

Latent Constructs and Items for *sponsorship-generated goodwill*	**Parameter Estimates (standardised regression weights λ)**	**Critical Ratio Values (CR)**	**Squared Multiple Correlations (SMCs or R^2)**
GWILL → SG1 (I'm OK with it)	0.90	N/A	0.81
GWILL → SG4 (It's helpful)	0.88	23.22	0.78
GWILL → SG8 (Favourable)	0.92	25.46	0.84
GWILL → SG9 (Positive)	0.93	26.29	0.86

Note: The parameter estimates are reported as standardised regression weight values. CR values are reported from the unstandardized regression weights given in the parameter estimates. Some CR are reported as non-applicable (N/A) because the parameter was constrained for model identification.

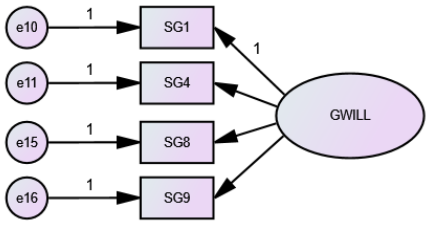
The results shown in Table 5.47 show all of the regression weights were considered very strong at >0.80 indicating that the measurement items were a strong representation of the *sponsorship-generated goodwill* construct. All of the CR values exceeded the ±1.96 threshold and in addition the SMCs were all >0.50. Next the Goodness of Fit Indices are considered.

Table 5.48 CFA Goodness of Fit indices for *sponsorship-generated goodwill* (re-specified)

Goodness of Fit Indices								
$\chi 2$	df	p	$\chi 2$/df or CMIN/df	SRMR	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
0.53	2	0.77	0.26	0.002	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.00

The results in Table 5.48 indicate a good fit for the independent construct *sponsorship-generated goodwill*. Reliability and validity was also confirmed with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.95, an Eigenvalue of 3.47 with 86.73% of variance explained as a univariate scale. The final measurement model is shown in Figure 5.23.

Figure 5.23 Sponsorship-generated goodwill measurement model (re-specified)



Source: developed for this research

Sponsor CBBE Measurement Models Re-specification

SEM validity testing revealed there was a lack of discriminant validity between the constructs within the *sponsor CBBE* model. As such it was concluded that, before testing of the full research model could be undertaken, further EFA and CFA of the *sponsor CBBE* constructs needed to be undertaken.

The *sponsor CBBE* model being tested in this study was drawn from conceptual literature related to how CBBE can be built through community relations focused activities. Hoeffler and Keller (2002) prescribe six methods being 1) building brand awareness; 2) enhancing brand image; 3) establishing brand credibility; 4) evoking brand feelings; 5) creating a sense of brand community; and 6) eliciting brand engagement. In this study *brand awareness* has been controlled and the measurement model was conceptualised on five factors 1) *brand associations*; 2) *brand image*; 3) *brand credibility*; 4) *sense of brand community*; and 5) *behavioural intentions* (see Section 3.4).

The discriminant validity test conducted on the measurement models for this study showed that the constructs of *brand associations*, *brand image*, *brand credibility* and *sense of brand community* exhibited signs of correlation while *behavioural intentions* exhibited discriminant validity. It has been previously found that while different attributes of a brand often show a strong inter-relation they can be ordered in different dimensions (Pappu et al., 2005; Vazquez et al., 2002). Nonetheless, the findings from this study suggest that the methods for building CBBE from a community relations activities prescribed by Hoeffler and Keller (2002) need to be rationalised in measurement models.

A review of the variable items being used in the *sponsor CBBE* measurement models for this study resulted in a conclusion that, in the context of junior sport

sponsorship and based on findings from the Stage 1c exploratory study, they could be re-conceptualised from three distinct perspectives. These are: 1) the sponsor as a company; 2) the sponsor as a member of the consumer's community; and 3) the consumer's behavioural intentions regarding the sponsor.

In this circumstance, it was considered acceptable to merge the constructs of *brand associations*, *brand image* and *brand credibility* into a single construct for *brand associations* that would reflect consumers' perceptions of the sponsor as a company. The results of the EFA for this construct are shown in Table 5.49 with discussion and CFA results following.

Table 5.49 EFA for revised construct of *brand associations*

Scale Items (n=306)	Factor Loading	Total	Scale Statistics Mean	SD
Brand associations				
BA1 – *'Overall, their sponsorship of the junior sport I selected has now improved my attitude towards that business'*	0.86		5.08	1.27
BA2 – *'Overall, their sponsorship of the junior sport I selected now improves that business's image to me'*	0.83		5.13	1.25
BA3 – *'Overall, their sponsorship of the junior sport I selected now makes me believe that business can be relied upon'*	0.85		5.08	1.21
BI1 – *'More down-to-earth'*	0.88		5.13	1.22
BI2 – *'More honest'*	0.92		5.04	1.25
BI3 – *'More sincere'*	0.92		5.07	1.25
BI4 – *'More real'*	0.92		5.09	1.25
BI5 – *'More friendly'*	0.88		5.22	1.20
BI6 – *'More genuine'*	0.90		5.12	1.23
BI7 – *'More caring'*	0.90		5.11	1.23
BC1 – *'More credible'*	0.92		5.09	1.29
BC2 – *'More trustworthy'*	0.90		5.04	1.31
BC3 – *'More expert'*	0.83		4.79	1.31
BC4 – *'More believable'*	0.91		5.01	1.24
BC5 – *'More reputable'*	0.91		5.10	1.26
BC6 – *'More reliable'*	0.92		5.06	1,23
BC7 – *'More dependable'*	0.91		5.06	1.23
Eigen values		13.70		
Variance explained (%)		80.61		
Cronbach's coefficient alphas		0.99		
KMO		0.98		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		0.00		

EFA for this construct showed a valid and reliable univariate scale that exceeds all of the required benchmarks with a Cronbach's alpha result of 0.99 and strong factor loadings for all items in the scale (range 0.83–0.92). Therefore, it is suitable for further testing through CFA. The measurement model was first developed in AMOS using all

17 variable items with the results of CFA and fit indices for this model shown in Table 5.50 and Table 5.51.

Table 5.50 CFA parameter estimates, CR values and SMCs for revised *brand associations*

Latent Constructs and Items for revised Brand Associations	Parameter Estimates (standardised regression weights λ)	Critical Ratio Values (CR)	Squared Multiple Correlations (SMCs or R^2)
BE_ASSOC → BA1	0.86	N/A	0.73
BE_ASSOC → BA2	0.83	19.29	0.69
BE_ASSOC → BA3	0.85	20.00	0.72
BE_ASSOC → BI1	0.88	21.35	0.77
BE_ASSOC → BI2	0.92	23.23	0.84
BE_ASSOC → BI3	0.92	23.60	0.85
BE_ASSOC → BI4	0.92	23.23	0.84
BE_ASSOC → BI5	0.88	21.62	0.78
BE_ASSOC → BI6	0.90	22.29	0.81
BE_ASSOC → BI7	0.90	22.27	0.80
BE_ASSOC → BC1	0.92	23.35	0.84
BE_ASSOC → BC2	0.90	22.51	0.81
BE_ASSOC → BC3	0.83	19.24	0.69
BE_ASSOC → BC4	0.91	22.81	0.82
BE_ASSOC → BC5	0.91	22.75	0.82
BE_ASSOC → BC6	0.92	23.46	0.85
BE_ASSOC → BC7	0.91	22.99	0.83

Note: The parameter estimates are reported as standardised regression weight values. CR values are reported from the unstandardized regression weights given in the parameter estimates. Some CR are reported as non-applicable (N/A) because the parameter was constrained for model identification.

The results shown in Table 5.50 confirm the results from EFA. All of the regression weights were considered very strong at >0.80 indicating that the measurement items were a strong representation of the *brand associations* construct. All of the CR values exceeded the ±1.96 threshold and in addition the SMCs were all considered good at >0.50. Next the Goodness of Fit Indices are considered.

Table 5.51 CFA Goodness of Fit indices for revised *brand associations*

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	*df*	*p*	χ^2/df or CMIN/*df*	SRMR	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
619.49	119	0.00	5.21	0.04	0.77	0.92	0.93	0.12

The results in Table 5.51 show that the measurement model is not a good fit with only the TLI and CFI results within the acceptable range. Holmes-Smith (2015) suggests three options for respecifying models to achieve better fit. Given the primary aim of this exercise was to reduce Multi-collinearity within the *sponsor CBBE* constructs it was considered appropriate to omit any observed variables displaying high levels of covariance. A step by step process was undertaken resulting in a final measurement model of the brand associations construct comprised of seven variable items. The results of CFA and fit indices for this model are shown in Table 5.52 and Table 5.53.

Table 5.52 CFA parameter estimates, CR values and SMCs for *brand associations*

Latent Constructs and Items for revised *brand associations*	**Parameter Estimates (standardised regression weights λ)**	**Critical Ratio Values (CR)**	**Squared Multiple Correlations (SMCs or R^2)**
BE_ASSOC → BA3	0.84	N/A	0.71
BE_ASSOC → BI3	0.90	21.26	0.81
BE_ASSOC → BC1	0.93	22.69	0.87
BE_ASSOC → BC2	0.91	21.56	0.82
BE_ASSOC → BC4	0.92	21.89	0.84
BE_ASSOC → BC5	0.92	21.91	0.84
BE_ASSOC → BC7	0.92	22.25	0.85

Note: The parameter estimates are reported as standardised regression weight values. CR values are reported from the unstandardized regression weights given in the parameter estimates. Some CR are reported as non-applicable (N/A) because the parameter was constrained for model identification.

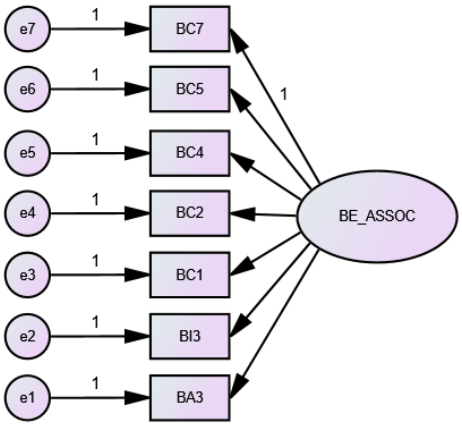
The results in Table 5.52 show all of the regression weights could be considered very strong at >0.80 indicating that the measurement items are a strong representation of the *brand associations* construct. All of the CR values exceeded the ±1.96 threshold and in addition the SMCs were all considered good at >0.50. Next the Goodness of Fit Indices are considered.

Table 5.53 CFA Goodness of Fit indices for revised *brand associations*

Goodness of Fit Indices								
χ^2	***df***	***p***	χ^2/df **or CMIN/*df***	**SRMR**	**GFI**	**TLI**	**CFI**	**RMSEA**
15.28	14	0.36	1.09	0.02	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.02

The results in Table 5.53 show that all of the Goodness of Fit indices were within acceptable range and the revised model for *Brand Associations* could be considered a good fit with the data. The final measurement model is shown in Figure 5.24.

Figure 5.24 Revised *brand associations* measurement model



Source: developed for this research

Final SEM Reliability, Validity and Structural Model Examination

Following re-specification of the measurement models for *consumer moral judgement*, *sponsorship-generated goodwill* and *brand associations* retesting of the constructs in the overall model for reliability and validity was undertaken. These results are provided in Tables 5.54 and 5.55.

The composite reliability and AVE measures shown in Table 5.54 all exceed the acceptable values and therefore it is concluded that the measurement scales are internally consistent and reliable. The results of the AVE test for discriminant validity are presented in Table 5.55.

Table 5.54 Construct composite reliability and AVE

Construct	Composite Reliability	AVE
Consumer moral orientation (values)	0.92	0.79
Consumer moral orientation (behaviour)	0.89	0.73
Consumer moral judgement	0.94	0.78
Perceived sponsor motivation (negative)	0.91	0.77
Perceived sponsor motivation (positive)	0.91	0.77
Sponsorship-generated goodwill	0.95	0.82
Brand associations	0.97	0.82
Sense of brand community	0.94	0.79
Behavioural intentions	0.96	0.84

Table 5.55 Discriminant validity using AVE method following model re-specification

	MO_VAL	**MO_BHV**	**SPON_MOT_P**	**SPON_MOT_N**	**MOR_JUDG**	**GOODWILL**	**BE_ASSOC**	**BE_COMMY**	**BE_INTN**
MO_VAL	0.89	0.64	0.48	-0.35	0.61	0.60	0.44	0.42	0.42
MO_BHV		0.86	0.44	-0.18	0.58	0.54	0.51	0.50	0.49
SPON_MOT_P			0.88	-0.46	0.78	0.76	0.74	0.68	0.64
SPON_MOT_N				0.88	-0.38	-0.42	-0.29	-0.24	-0.30
MOR_JUDG					0.89	0.88	0.68	0.63	0.58
GOODWILL						0.88	0.73	0.69	0.66
BE_ASSOC							**0.91**	0.92	0.86
BE_COMMY								**0.89**	0.89
BE_INTN									0.92

Table 5.55 presents the AVE value for each latent construct on the highlighted diagonal. The squared correlations between the constructs are shown in the upper right triangle of the table, above the AVE diagonal (the results where the AVE has been exceeded by a square of the correlation between constructs have been bolded in the table).

The results show that there is now discriminant validity between the latent constructs of *consumer moral judgement* and *sponsorship-generated goodwill*. The results also show that, within the *sponsor CBBE* measurement model, there is now only a lack of discriminant validity between the *sense of brand community* and the respecified *brand associations* constructs. Given it has been previously found that different attributes of a brand often show a strong inter-relation but can be ordered in different dimensions (Vazquez et al., 2002; Pappu et al., 2005) it was concluded that leaving these two constructs as distinct was theoretically justifiable when determining community relations related brand equity outcomes for sponsors of junior sport. As a satisfactory level of reliability and validity has been established for the measurement models, the full structural model was assessed next.

5.5.4 STRUCTURAL MODEL COMPARISONS

EFA and CFA of measurement models for the primary constructs has resulted in satisfactory levels of reliability and validity and now the full structural model is assessed. Three competing models have been proposed. Model 1 is based on the research

model proposed in Chapter 4 that was developed from the literature review and Stage 1 exploratory studies.

CBBE literature orders the hierarchy of effects for marketing communications as cognitive (awareness and associations) to affective (liking and preference) to behavioural (purchase intent and loyalty) (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 2003; Kapferer, 2004). Researchers in the field of sponsorship have also followed this hierarchical order (Meenaghan, 2001; Cornwell et al., 2005; Olson, 2010). Hence, this order was followed in the development of the research model for this study where the cognitive processing construct of *sponsorship-generated goodwill* has a direct path to *brand associations*, but not to the affective and behavioural constructs of *sense of brand community* and *behavioural intentions*.

However, given this study is testing new concepts in relation to moral judgements of sponsorships and the CBBE frameworks it is relevant to test alternative models where the relationship pathways differ. Model 2 positions *consumer perceived sponsor motivation* as antecedent to *moral judgement* and Model 3 positions *sense of brand community* as antecedent to *brand associations*.

Note*:* the construct *consumer perceived sponsor motivation (negative)* was resulting in negative factor loadings in the full structural models. Investigation showed this was a method issue due to reverse scoring of the negative scale and was problematic for assessment of the models (Hair et al., 2003; Holmes-Smith, 2015). Given the validity of the positive scale for this construct the negative scale was excluded from all of the models.

Figures 5.25–5.27 depict the three competing models and Table 5.56 provides a summarised comparison of the goodness-of-fit indices for each model.

Figure 5.25 Full structural model 1

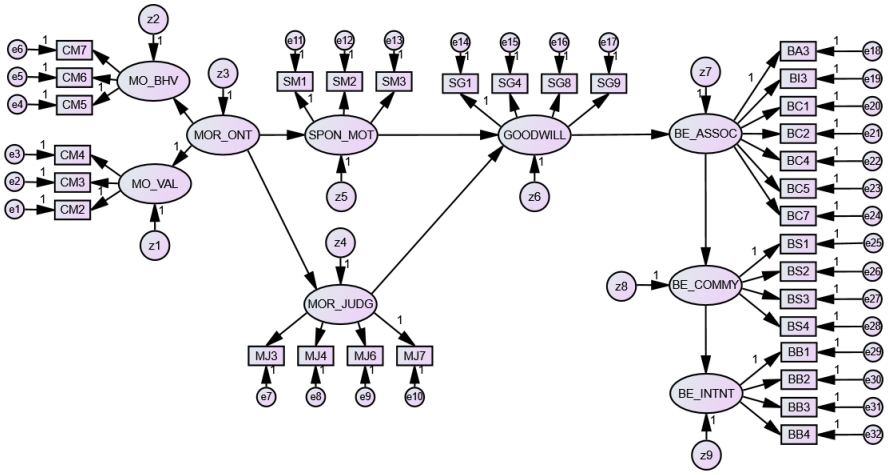
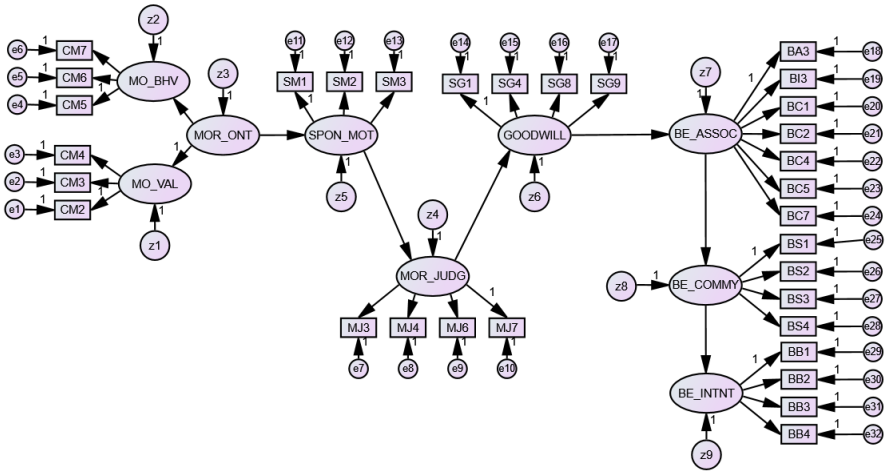


Figure 5.26 Full structural model 2

Figure 5.27 Full structural model 3



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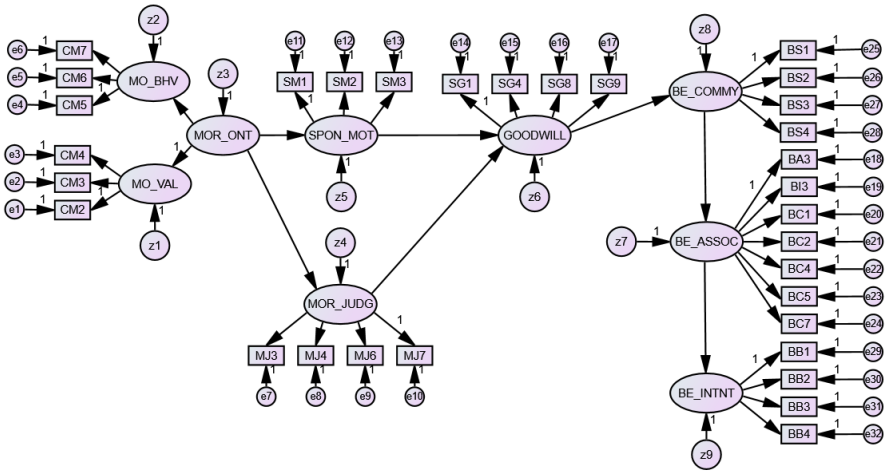


Table 5.56 Goodness of Fit comparison of competing full structural models

	Goodness of Fit Indices								
	χ^2	*df*	*p*	χ^2/df or CMIN/*df*	SRMR	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Model 1	943.88	455	0.00	2.07	0.07	0.84	0.95	0.96	0.06
Model 2	980.97	456	0.00	2.15	0.11	0.83	0.95	0.95	0.06
Model 3	991.22	455	0.00	2.18	0.08	0.83	0.95	0.95	0.06

Given the complexity of the posited models, and the refined EFA and CFA examinations, the overall fit indices for these models are considered adequate, based on the criteria values prescribed by various researchers (Schumaker and Lomax, 1996; Hair et al., 2003; Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003; Byrne, 2010; Kline, 2011) and adopted for this study (see Table 5.19, p. 142). However, the results indicate that Model 1 provides the best fit to the data. Model 1 also best reflects the conclusions drawn from the literature review, the Stage 1 exploratory studies and EFA and CFA examinations. Therefore, Model 1 was used to provide the model path evaluations.

5.5.5 FULL STRUCTURAL MODEL PATH ANALYSIS

Comparison of the three alternate models showed that Model 1 provided the best fit with the data set. Nonetheless, good fit alone is insufficient to support the proposed structural theory (Hair et al., 2010). The parameters, or paths, linking constructs within the structural model need to be statistically significant and directionally correct to demonstrate theory validity (Hair et al., 2010; Holmes-Smith, 2015). Table 5.57 provides the parameter estimates for Model 1 with assessments based on the earlier criteria established for standardised regression weights (β) (see Table 5.18, p. 140) as prescribed by (Hair et al., 2003; Holmes-Smith and Coote, 2003; Kline, 2011).

Table 5.57 Path association strengths for the structural model

Primary Construct Path	Path Association Strengths	*p* value
MOR_JUDG← MOR_ONT	Very Strong (β = 0.95)	***
SPON_MOT← MOR_ONT	Strong (β = 0.80)	***
GOODWILL← MOR_JUDG	Strong (β = 0.71)	***
GOODWILL ← SPON_MOT	Mild (β = 0.23)	***
BE_ASSOC ← GOODWILL	Strong (β = 0.74)	***
BE_COMMY ← BE_AASOC	Very Strong (β = 0.93)	***
BE_INTNT ← BE_COMMY	Very Strong (β = 0.90)	***
MO_BHV ← MOR_ONT	Strong (β = 0.63)	***
MO_VAL ← MOR_ONT	Strong (β = 0.67)	***

Note I: p values were significantly different from zero at the 0.001 level

Note II: the degree strength nomenclature is based on suggestions from Kline (2011) and Holmes-Smith (2015).

The results in Table 5.57 show that all of the path associations with the exception of *consumer perceived sponsor motivation* to *sponsorship-generated goodwill* were either strong or very strong lending support for the predictive validity of the theorised structure of the model. The path association for *consumer perceived sponsor motivation* to *sponsorship-generated goodwill*, while mild, was still statistically significant. Chapter 6 discusses and draws conclusions based on these path associations.

5.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

To conclude, this chapter presented the findings of the main study. Initially the profile of respondents to the online survey was described and the data was prepared for analysis. EFA was then conducted to refine the measurement models for the primary constructs. CFA through SEM was then conducted to further refine the measurement models so they could be appropriately incorporated into the full structural model. As a final step in CFA the models were tested for reliability and validity whereby it was established that suitable levels were achieved.

Following development of the full structural model two alternate models were considered. These competing models were compared and showed that Model 1 was the most appropriate model of the three considered for this study. Finally, path analysis was conducted to confirm the predictive validity of the full structural model.

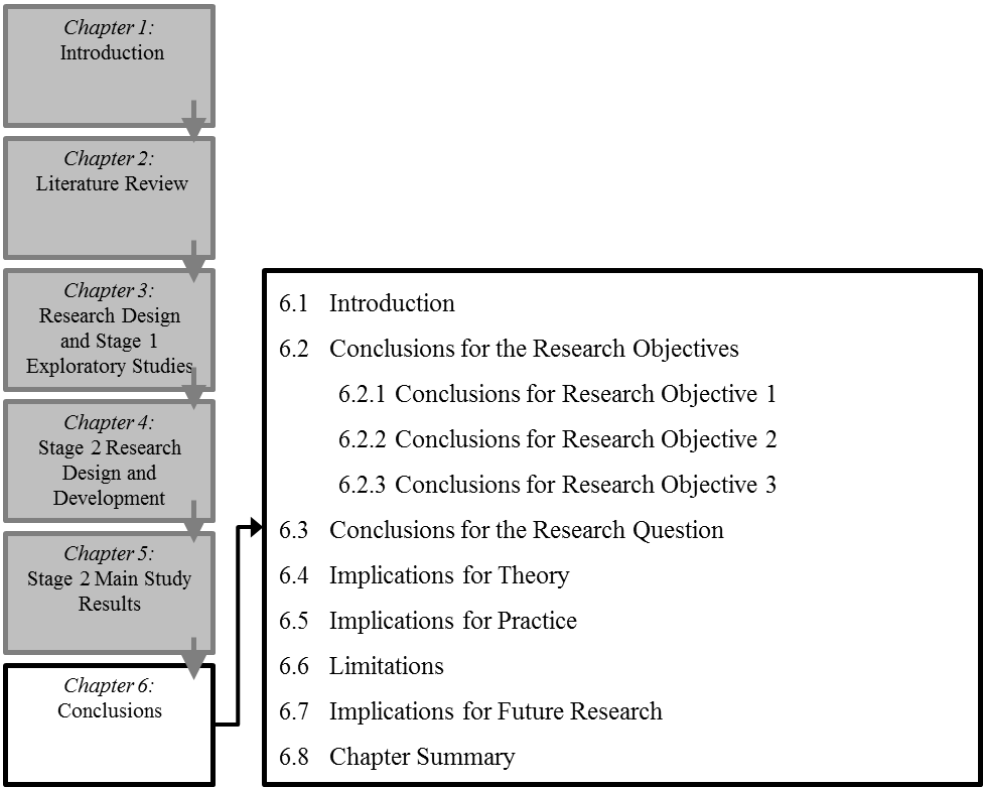
Next, Chapter 6 provides a discussion of the findings and conclusions from the main study.

6. Conclusions

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter reported the analysis of the data collected for the Stage 2 main study. This chapter presents conclusions for the research question and objectives based on findings from both stages of this research. While stating limitations, this chapter also presents contributions and implications of the research. Chapter content is provided across seven sections as shown in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1 Outline of Chapter 6



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The introduction (Section 6.1—this section) briefly summarises the previous chapters. Then conclusions regarding the three research objectives are presented (Section 6.2) followed by conclusions for the overall research question (Section 6.3). Implications for theory are discussed (Section 6.4), along with implications for practice (Section 6.5). Limitations (Section 6.6) and implications for future research (Section 6.7) are then stated followed by a final chapter summary at Section 6.8.

Next is a brief summary of each of the preceding chapters.

Chapter 1 outlined the broad field of sponsorship research (Section 1.1). The focus of this research was introduced along with the research question and objectives (Section 1.2). Justifications for the research (Section 1.3) were based on theoretical, practical and community issues. A two-stage mixed method research design was proposed with Stage 1 comprising exploratory studies followed by a quantitative online survey for Stage 2 (Section 1.4). The outline of the research was provided (Section 1.5) along with key definitions (Section 1.6). The scope of the research was delimited to sponsorship of grassroots activities with a particular focus on the context of junior sport sponsorship in Australia (Section 1.7).

Chapter 2 reviewed the literature relating to the parent discipline of sponsorship. The key concepts and factors involved in sponsorship's hierarchy of effects were explored (Section 2.2) with knowledge gaps identified in Section 2.3. Next the theoretical framework was developed (Section 2.4) with CBBE outcomes adapted in Section 2.5. The final theoretical framework (Figure 2.6) was presented in Section 2.6.

Chapter 3 provided justification for the post-positivist paradigm and mixed method design for this research (Section 3.2). Next, the Stage 1 exploratory studies were reported (Section 3.3). The exploratory studies included secondary data analysis along with a program of depth interviews and a focus group. Section 3.4 presented a summary of emergent findings and the implications for development of the conceptual model and hypotheses for this research. The conceptual model (Figure 3.5) and hypotheses were presented and ethical considerations (Section 3.5) were addressed.

Chapter 4 provided details of the Stage 2 main study survey design and development process (Sections 4.2 and 4.3), including selection and adaption of measurement scales. Section 4.4 provided details and results from testing of the survey instrument. EFA was employed in Section 4.5 to revise the measurement scales and develop a final research model (Figure 4.4) and hypotheses for the main study. Ethical considerations for the main study were then addressed (Section 4.6).

Chapter 5 reported the results of the main study for which an online survey of Australian adults was deployed. Section 5.2 provided a profile of the survey respondents and Section 5.3 described the preparation of the data for analysis. The results from an EFA of the constructs in the research model were detailed in Section 5.4 and Section 5.5 presented the results of SEM and comparison of alternate models for the final research

model, with Model 1 (Figure 5.25, p. 172) shown to provide the best fit. SEM showed the paths between constructs in the model that were statistically significant lending support to the predictive validity of the theorised structure of the model.

Finally, this **Chapter 6** brings the research together by drawing conclusions for the research objectives (Section 6.2) and research questions (Section 6.3) from comparison with the literature. This chapter incorporates literature published subsequent to the development of the frameworks and models used as the basis for data collection in this research. Implications for theory are presented in Section 6.4 with implications for practice detailed in Section 6.5. Limitations for this research are then discussed (Section 6.6) with implications for future research presented (Section 6.7).

6.2 CONCLUSIONS FOR THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This section discusses conclusions for each of the three research objectives. Through comparison with the extant literature, areas of agreement, or difference, and new insights are identified. The section is presented in three sections representing each of the research objectives. Section 6.1 and 6.2 are based on conclusions drawn from the Stage 1 exploratory studies. Section 6.3 discusses the final objective based on conclusions drawn from the main study.

6.2.1 CONCLUSIONS FOR RESEARCH OBJECTIVE ONE

This section discusses conclusions for the first research objective. It is based on findings from stages 1a and 1b exploratory studies. Those stages comprised an analysis of historical data supplied by an Australian company that employed sponsorship as a lead marketing tactic (Section 3.3.1) and eight depth interviews with sponsorship practitioners (Section 3.3.2). Research Objective 1 was:

***RO1**: To explore companies' sponsorship objectives and CBBE measurement practices for sponsorship of grassroots activities.*

There are two components to Research Objective 1. First, exploration of sponsor objectives for sponsorship of grassroots activities and second, CBBE measurement practices for sponsorship of grassroots activities. Findings from the exploratory studies showed the sponsors' objectives, while overtly expressed as being corporate brand image and reputation related, were intrinsically linked to commercial and operational outcomes. While measurement practice for sponsorship of grassroots activities was

limited to anecdotal feedback from company representatives and basic reporting from the rights-holders. These findings are now discussed in comparison to the literature.

In the depth interviews of the Stage 1b study (Section 3.3.2) all of the sponsorship managers identified brand related image and reputational outcomes as primary objectives for undertaking any sponsorship. For sponsorship of grassroots activities which can include junior sport, the managers also identified being seen to meet their CSR obligations as an objective. These findings support the literature where it has been shown many companies use sponsorship to drive public relations agendas related to corporate image and reputation (Cornwell, 2008; Cunningham et al., 2009). Specifically, Mack (1999) found businesses mostly undertake sponsorships at a local community level because of affordability, but also to be seen to be giving back to the community and enhance their overall image and goodwill.

What is not clear from the literature is whether sponsorship of grassroots activities is undertaken by sponsors solely for community relations purposes rather than to serve other commercial objectives, or for both objectives. In the depth interviews conducted with sponsorship managers, managers spoke of commercial drivers such as providing *'a pathway to sales'* or *'a social license to operate in a community'* as the underlying and ultimate objective. This finding extends the extant literature by showing the intrinsic objective for these companies to undertake sponsorship of grassroots activities was to drive commercial capacity, albeit through fostering a benevolent image.

The second element of Research Objective 1 was concerned with sponsors' CBBE measurement practices for sponsorship of grassroots activities. In Stage 1a of the exploratory studies (Section 3.3.1) the study company used brand-tracking surveys to compare the impact of its sponsorships on consumer perceptions of its brand attributes. This practice is consistent with recommendations from the marketing literature (Aaker et al., 2004a; Zikmund et al., 2013). Nonetheless, it was identified that the brand attributes this company were measuring were not grounded in the literature as observed in other studies (see Pappu et al., 2005). Additionally, the company was only measuring the impact of their larger grassroots sponsorships. This was due to a lack of broad consumer awareness of their smaller and localised grassroots sponsorships.

The depth interviews with sponsorship managers (Section 3.3.2) showed the measurement of grassroots sponsorship outcomes by those companies was virtually non-

existent. The main reasons given were: 1) the cost and resourcing implications of measuring outcomes from smaller local community events, and 2) the inability of the (usually) volunteer organisers of those events to provide relevant reporting. There was also a sentiment expressed that some communities could react negatively to over-surveying leading to an undermining of sponsor sincerity. As a result, the managers revealed a reliance on anecdotal reporting of grassroots sponsorship success, or at best, simplistic attendance based metrics supplied by the rights-holders. Therefore, the CBBE based outcomes of brand associations and loyalty were left unmeasured.

The conclusion from this research was that a significant gap exists between the sponsors' objectives and measurement of CBBE outcomes for their sponsorships of grassroots activities. This finding is consistent with the literature where a general deficit in sponsorship measurement is considered a problem for the industry (Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013; Newton, 2013).

This research extends the literature by identifying the key reasons why measurement of CBBE outcomes is even more challenging with sponsorship of grassroots activities such as junior sport. Next, the perspective of consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities was considered.

6.2.2 CONCLUSIONS FOR RESEARCH OBJECTIVE TWO

This section discusses conclusions for the second research objective. It is based on findings from Stage 1c of the exploratory studies that comprised a focus group and a series of depth interviews with Australian consumers (Section 3.3.3). Hypotheses from the findings were then tested in the main study (Section 5.5.5). Research Objective 2 was:

RO2: *To explore consumer perceptions of companies' sponsorship of grassroots activities.*

This research extends the understanding of consumer perceptions of sponsorship into the context of sponsorship of grassroots activities and specifically junior sport. There were two key conclusions regarding Research Objective 2 and these are discussed in turn. The two conclusions were:

1. Sponsorship of grassroots activities evoked stronger affective responses (both negative and positive) than more overtly commercial sponsorships such as professional sport.

2. Consumers were making morality based judgements of grassroots sponsorship scenarios.

It was initially found in the historical data analysis of Stage 1a that consumers rated the company's brand attributes higher when considering their sponsorship of grassroots activities, that included junior sports and cause-related activities, than the professional sport sponsorships (Section 3.3.1). Respondents in the focus group and depth interviews of the Stage 1c study also expressed more positive support for the notion of sponsorship of grassroots activities than that of professional sports (Section 3.3.3). These findings support the literature showing consumers are more appreciative of sponsorship when it is provided to rights-holders that are perceived as needier or more deserving (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Dolphin, 2003; Plewa and Quester, 2011).

In the Stage 1c study, deeper insights emerged showing the respondents were also more emotionally judgemental of sponsorship of grassroots activities. That is, on the one hand they were strongly supportive of sponsorship of grassroots activities. While on the other hand, they were more likely to be strongly critical of a sponsor's involvement if they perceived it as manipulative or having negative social impacts, such as with sponsorship of junior sport by fast food companies. This was in contrast to their consideration of professional sport sponsorships to which they expressed an impassive acceptance of them as being explicit, commercially motivated marketing.

Negative responses to sponsorship is an emerging topic for research (Crompton, 2014) and the findings in the Stage1c study extends the literature in this area. It also supports the findings of a more general study into community health in Australia that identified substantial public support for the restriction of fast food companies' sponsorship of community events (Pettigrew et al., 2012). The findings from the Stage 2 main study suggest *consumer moral judgements* is a significant mediator for sponsorship-generated goodwill and contribute to understanding why such negative responses may occur.

Further to this point, the consumers interviewed in Stage 1c showed a higher recall of sponsorships that were perceived to have negative social impacts. This was

regardless of their involvement with, or attachment to, the sponsored activity. This finding contradicts previous studies that show high consumer involvement has a significant influence on sponsor recall and positive affective responses (Alexandris et al., 2007; Bibby, 2009; Cahill and Meenaghan, 2013).

Therefore, the second conclusion for Research Objective 2 is that consumer's morality based judgements of a sponsorship are a stronger influence on recall and perceptions than other previously identified factors. Consumer perceptions of sponsor sincerity and motivation are considered to be important factors in the sponsorship hierarchy of effects (Meenaghan, 2001; Olson, 2010). This research builds on that understanding by identifying that, beyond assessment of a sponsor's motivations, the consumer's moral judgement of a sponsorship scenario affected their perceptions of, and responses to, the sponsorship. The comment '*'it makes sense, but am I ok with it? No!'*.' expressed by CM6 (see p. 71) during a depth interview exemplifies this finding.

As a result, the constructs of c*onsumer moral orientation* and *consumer moral judgement* were included in the research model for the main study. When tested, they showed high significance for *sponsorship-generated goodwill* (Section 5.5.5). Conclusions regarding the research model are discussed next in response to Research Objective 3.

6.2.3 CONCLUSIONS FOR RESEARCH OBJECTIVE THREE

This section discusses conclusions for the third research objective which was:

RO3*: To develop a model of consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the subsequent impact on sponsor CBBE.*

The conclusions for RO3 were drawn from testing of the conceptual model (Figure 3.5, p. 81) and hypotheses through a quantitative online survey (Chapter 5). The conceptual model was developed from the literature review (Chapter 2) and exploratory studies (Chapter 3). The test results and conclusions for the hypotheses are discussed next. Note: the degree strength nomenclature used in this discussion is based on suggestions from Kline (2011) and Holmes-Smith (2015).

H1a: *There is a significant positive relationship between a consumer's moral orientation and their judgement of sponsorship of grassroots activities.* The test results indicated *consumer moral orientation* has a very strong impact (β=0.95) on their

judgement of sponsorship of grassroots activities. This finding contributes to the literature as *consumer moral orientation* had not previously been included in sponsorship effect models of Meenaghan (2001), Cornwell et al. (2005), Olson (2010) or Alexandris and Tsiotsou (2012). The finding supports more general research whereby an individual's personal values have been shown to relate to their social attitudes (Boer and Fischer, 2013). The strength of the path association justifies the inclusion of this construct in the model.

H1b: *There is a significant positive relationship between a consumer's moral orientation and their perception of a sponsor's motivation.* The test results indicated *consumer moral orientation* has a strong effect (β=0.80) on their assessment of a sponsor's motives.

Previous sponsorship research has shown consumer perceptions of sponsor/activity fit is a mediating factor for their assessment of sponsor motives. Rifon et al. (2004) and Pappu and Cornwell (2014) cite the need for relevance of the association to be communicated so that positive goodwill can be generated. A consumer's previous knowledge and experience of the sponsor has also been acknowledged as a mediating factor in assessment of sponsor motives (Cornwell et al., 2005) with Menon and Kahn (2003) noting that consumers use heuristics to assess sponsor motives. However, *consumer moral orientation* had not previously been explored as a basis for perceptions of *sponsor motivation*. Therefore, this research extends the literature regarding moderators of *sponsor motivation*.

H2: *There is a significant positive relationship between a consumer's moral judgement of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the level of sponsorship-generated goodwill from the sponsorship.* The test results indicated *consumer moral judgement* has a strong effect (β=0.71) on the level of goodwill they feel towards the sponsorship. This finding contributes to the literature as *consumer moral judgement* had not previously been included in sponsorship effect models.

H3: *There is a significant positive relationship between a consumer's perception of sponsor motivation and the level of sponsorship-generated goodwill.* The test results indicated that a consumer's perception of *sponsor motivation* has a mild effect (β=0.23) on the level of goodwill they feel towards the sponsorship.

This finding supports previous research showing a consumer's assessment of *sponsor motivation* has a mediating effect on the level of goodwill generated from the sponsorship (Menon and Kahn, 2003; Rifon et al., 2004; Pappu and Cornwell, 2014). Nonetheless, the mild strength of the path (β=0.23) in this study shows that, with sponsorship of grassroots activities, *consumer moral judgement* at (β=0.71) is more influential. This finding builds on the previous research (see Olson, 2010; Pappu and Cornwell, 2014) and extends the understanding of the sponsorship hierarchy of effects.

H4: *There is a significant positive relationship between sponsorship-generated goodwill and factors within the sponsor CBBE* framework. The test results indicated that *sponsorship-generated goodwill* has a strong effect (β=0.74) on a sponsor's *brand associations*.

The finding that *sponsorship-generated goodwill* has a strong effect on *brand associations* supports the literature indicating sponsorship, through generation of goodwill, provides unique benefits to a sponsor (Meenaghan, 2001; Dolphin, 2003; Cornwell, 2008; Bibby, 2009). Previous studies have utilised scales for attitude towards a sponsorship as predictors of brand equity outcomes for sponsorship. Yet the results in those studies, where Olson (2010) found a path association of 0.42 and Alexandris and Tsiotsou (2012) found a path association of 0.29, have not shown as strong a relationship as the model in this research. Therefore, the establishment of a valid scale to measure *sponsorship-generated goodwill* and the strong path association shown in this model extends the literature and provides a useful contribution to sponsorship measurement practice.

Note: the hypotheses regarding *sponsor brand awareness* (H5 a, b, and c) became redundant once the decision to control sponsor awareness in the survey instrument, due to method issues, was taken (Section 4.3.4).

H6a: *There is a significant positive relationship between brand associations and sense of brand community.* The test results indicated *brand associations* has a very strong effect (β=0.93) on *sense of brand community* for a sponsor. This result supports earlier studies into CBBE (Keller, 1993; Belen del Rio et al., 2001; Pappu et al., 2005) that show positive *brand associations* are strong influencers of other CBBE elements.

Note: During CFA of constructs in the research model (Chapter 5) the *sponsor CBBE* measurement model was revised whereby the measurement scales for *brand*

associations, *brand image* and *brand credibility* were merged into a single construct for *brand associations* (Section 5.5.3). Hence hypotheses 6b and 6c regarding path associations for *brand image* and *brand credibility* became redundant.

Rationalisation of the initial constructs of *brand associations, brand image* and *brand credibility* into a singular construct provided a valid and more relevant measure for sponsorship settings. Hence, the research contributes to the understanding of how CBBE frameworks can be applied to sponsorship. It provides a valid response to calls from the literature for more credible methods of sponsorship measurement (Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013).

H6d: *There is a significant positive relationship between sense of brand community and behavioural intentions.* The test results indicated *sense of brand community* has a very strong effect (β=0.90) on *behavioural intentions.*

This result supports the value of including the *sense of brand community* construct in the model for sponsor CBBE. Hence, it supports the framework conceptualised by Hoeffler and Keller (2002) for how CBBE might be applicable in a CSR situation and extends this area of research into a sponsorship situation. The results show that *sense of brand community* is a valid contribution to sponsorship measurement practice, particularly in situations where community relations are a key objective.

The sponsorship literature has shown varied results in terms of a sponsorship's direct impact on consumer behavioural outcomes leading to suggestions of a tenuous link (Alexandris et al., 2007; Rowley and Williams, 2008; Bibby, 2009). The results of this research extend the literature by showing the significance of *brand associations* and *sense of brand community* as strong paths between sponsorships and consumer behavioural outcomes.

In summary, the results show the research model fits the data well. The significance and relative strength of the paths between constructs was confirmed in the predicted positive directions. As such, the inclusion of *consumer moral orientation* and *consumer moral judgement* in the model contributes to the literature regarding sponsorship effects. Furthermore, the validation of a measurement scale for *sponsorship-generated goodwill* contributes to models for measurement of sponsorship effects. In addition, refinement of the CBBE model builds on research from the CBBE and CSR disciplines to provide a valid model for its application in sponsorship of

grassroots activities. The following section presents conclusions based on the research question.

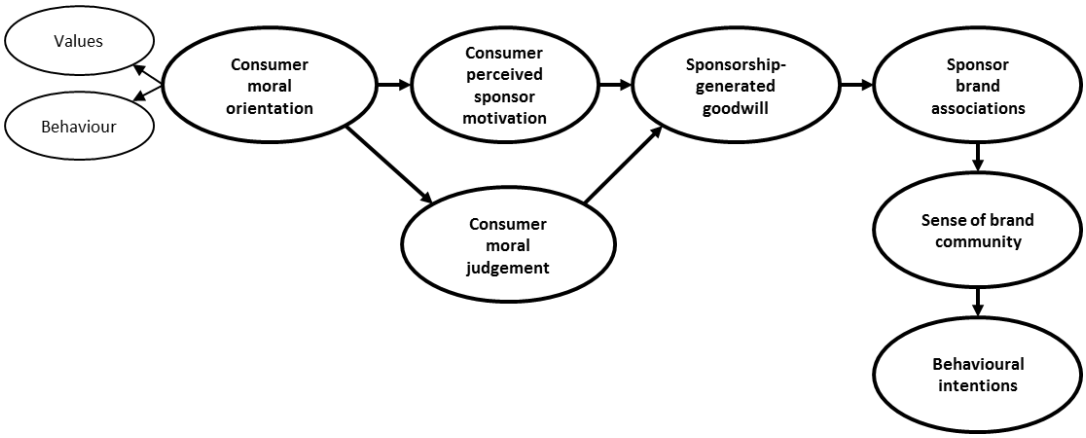
6.3 CONCLUSIONS FOR THE RESEARCH QUESTION

This section provides conclusions based on the overarching research question of this study: ***How does sponsorship of grassroots activities impact on sponsor CBBE?*** The preceding section presented specific conclusions for the individual research objectives that were designed to answer the research question. Therefore, the conclusions for the research question are more holistic in nature. The conclusions are drawn from both the exploratory and main studies of this research.

The exploratory studies revealed sponsorships of grassroots activities evoke stronger affective responses than more overtly commercial sponsorships. Nonetheless, the exploratory studies also revealed the potential for negative affective responses towards sponsorship of grassroots activities. Furthermore, sponsorship scenarios viewed in a negative way resulted in higher recall amongst the consumers. This led to the conclusion that the consumers were assessing sponsorship from a morality basis. Given there has been scant research into sponsorship of grassroots activities, these findings extend the understanding of how these sponsorships affect a sponsor's CBBE.

Based on findings from the exploratory studies the conceptual model (see Figure 3.5, p. 81) was developed and subsequently tested in the main study (Chapters 4 and 5). The final research model is shown in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2 Final research model: the impact of sponsorship of grassroots activities on sponsor CBBE



Source: developed for this research

As discussed in Section 6.2.3, the addition of *consumer moral orientation* and *consumer moral judgement* to the research model was validated by the results of SEM. The findings from the main study support the literature by showing sponsorship of grassroots activities can result in goodwill to a sponsor (Mack, 1999; Cornwell, 2008; Day, 2010). In addition, this research shows that, in the context of sponsorship of grassroots activities, *consumer moral judgement* has a stronger mediating effect on goodwill and CBBE than *consumer perceived sponsor motivation*, *sponsor/activity fit* and *consumer activity involvement*. As such, the research contributes an important finding for how sponsorship of grassroots activities impacts sponsor CBBE.

Findings from the main study also contribute a deeper understanding of which factors within the CBBE measurement model were more applicable for sponsorship of grassroots activities. Hence, a refined model of the CBBE framework comprising *brand associations* and *sense of brand community* as antecedents for *behavioural intentions* is contributed. As such, the literature regarding CBBE is extended along with the literature regarding the use of CBBE as a measurement of sponsorship.

In summary, conclusions for the research question show contributions have been made to the understanding of how consumers process sponsorship-linked marketing, what factors are most relevant to developing goodwill for a sponsorship in a grassroots context, and which elements of the CBBE framework are most affected by sponsorship of grassroots activities. Next the theoretical implications of these findings are discussed.

6.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY

This section considers the implications for the five theoretical contributions of this study as shown in Table 6.3. First, the implications for the parent discipline of sponsorship are discussed followed by implications for CBBE.

Table 6.3 Theoretical contributions of the study

Contribution	Related Discipline
1. An empirically tested and validated model of consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities	Sponsorship
2. Development of the constructs and validation of measurement scales for *consumer moral orientation* and *consumer moral judgement*	Sponsorship
3. Validation of a measurement scale for *sponsorship-generated goodwill*	Sponsorship
4. Refinement, testing and validation of the CBBE framework for measuring the impact sponsorship of grassroots activities has on sponsor CBBE	CBBE
5. Validation of a measurement scale for *sense of brand community*	CBBE

Implication 1. The predominant theoretical contribution from this study was the development of an empirically tested and validated model for consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities. While considerable research has been undertaken into sponsorship and its consumer knowledge effects, the vast majority of the research has been conducted in professional sporting settings. This research fills a gap in the sponsorship literature where the setting of grassroots sponsorships was not previously well explored. In doing so, it was found that consumers, regardless of their involvement with a sponsored activity, had stronger affective responses to sponsorship of grassroots activities. This led to inclusion of factors in the research model that had not previously been identified in the literature as discussed next.

Implication 2. This research identified that *consumer moral orientation* and *consumer moral judgement* are significant factors in consumer's cognitive processing of sponsorship-linked marketing. The literature review showed considerable research has previously been undertaken regarding the cognitive processing of sponsorship-linked marketing by consumers and their subsequent responses. Meenaghan (2001) and Cornwell et al. (2005) established theoretical models to explain how the processing mechanics are influenced by a range of individual (consumer), group level, market and management factors. Subsequent studies by Olson (2010), Close and Lacey (2013), Grohs and Reisinger (2014), and Pappu and Cornwell (2014) have supported various aspects of these models. Most notably, sponsor motivation and sponsor/activity fit were

identified as important individual considerations that influenced image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill to a sponsor.

This research builds on those previous studies by establishing that, beyond initial consideration of sponsor motivation and fit, consumers make morality based judgements. Through SEM of the final research model the factors *consumer moral orientation* and *consumer moral judgement* were shown to have valid and reliable scales with strong predictive ability for *sponsorship-generated goodwill*. Hence, the theoretical implication is that, given the broader emphasis on image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill as primary objectives for most sponsorships, these constructs should also be included in research into other sponsorship settings.

Implication 3. The literature review identified sponsorship measurement as a major challenge for the industry (Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013; Johnston and Spais, 2014). This study contributed a measurement scale for the construct of *consumer goodwill toward sponsorship*. Its application as a measure for sponsorship effectiveness and as a predictor for sponsor CBBE was confirmed through SEM.

Previous studies have used generalised scales for attitude towards a sponsorship (see Olson (2010) and Pappu and Cornwell (2014). Whereas in this research, because of the findings regarding moral judgements, and with the setting being sponsorship of grassroots activities, the scale was adapted to include items related to the notion of helpfulness. Given the strong and positive test results for this scale it should also be applicable in other sponsorship contexts.

Implication 4. This research explored the potential to adapt the CBBE framework for application in sponsorship settings. The CBBE framework was originally conceptualised by Keller (1993). A recent review paper by Keller (2016) notes there have been over 10,000 citations of his original paper. Yet the literature review established that sponsorship measurement practice tends not to extend to the factors involved in CBBE (Meenaghan and O'Sullivan, 2013; Newton, 2013).

Nonetheless, CBBE has been applied in CSR settings, which have similarities to sponsorship in terms of image transfer and sponsorship-generated goodwill outcomes (Polonsky and Speed, 2001; Plewa and Quester, 2011). As such it was considered a relevant direction for this research to follow and provide an extension of the literature. Adapting the CBBE framework through this research builds on the theoretical concepts

of Hoeffler and Keller (2002) who looked at CBBE in CSR settings and Pappu et al. (2005) who refined the measurement factors. This research provides a validated CBBE model applicable for sponsorship.

For this research the CBBE factors of brand image, associations and credibility needed to be combined into one construct (*brand associations*) due to a lack of discriminant validity (Section 5.5.3). The final seven item measurement model for *brand associations* was identified as a reliable measure (Cronbach's alpha 0.97) and demonstrated a very strong path association to *sense of brand community* (β=0.93). The theoretical implication is that, for sponsorship of grassroots activities, the most relevant and applicable CBBE factors relate to judgements of corporate level brand associations (e.g. more 'credible' or 'trustworthy') as opposed to functional product or service related attributes (e.g. 'reliability' or 'value for money').

Implication 5. A key adaptation for the CBBE framework was the inclusion of the construct *sense of brand community* in the model. This was considered relevant to sponsorship of grassroots activities as they are grounded in local communities. Testing of the model showed it to be a valid and reliable predictor of *behavioural intentions*. This contribution supports the conceptualisation by Hoeffler and Keller (2002). It is noted also that Keller (2016) now emphasises the importance of *sense of brand community* as consumers have become more socially involved with brands in new and different ways.

In summary, this research brings the theoretical framework for sponsor CBBE in line with the observation of Keller (2016) that more holistic consumer judgements of a brand are a key input into building CBBE. The hypotheses for the research model were proven, thus providing new constructs to be considered in sponsorship models. In addition, the adaption of the CBBE framework, with refinement of the *brand associations* scale and inclusion of *sense of brand community*, contributes an applicable and generalizable measurement model for sponsorship effects.

Next, the implications for practice are considered.

6.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

In addition to the implications for theory discussed in the previous section, this study has four principal implications for sponsorship practice. Sponsorship involves

practitioners on both the sponsor and rights-holder sides. As such, the four implications will be discussed for both perspectives. These are:

1. Consumers are generally impassive towards sponsorship and consider it to be an extension to advertising
2. Sponsorship of grassroots activities evokes stronger affective responses (both negative and positive)
3. Moral judgments are a significant factor in consumers' assessment of sponsorship scenarios, and
4. The research model has useful application for practice.

Implication 1. The Stage 1c exploratory study (Section 3.3.3) showed the interviewed consumers were generally unreceptive and impassive towards large sponsorships. They perceived them to be a marketing exercise and, like advertising, they would 'tune out' to it. Over-commercialisation of events and the inappropriateness of some sponsorships were criticisms raised. This finding supports the study by Carrillat and d'Astous (2009) that showed there is a limit to consumer's toleration of sponsorship-linked marketing.

The implication of this for both sponsors and rights-holders is that sponsorship needs to be undertaken with more respect for the consumer's enjoyment of the activity.

In short, sponsorship should add to the consumer experience of an activity rather than detract from it.

Implication 2. A key conclusion from the Stage 1c study (Section 3.3.3) was that sponsorship of grassroots activities evoked deeper affective responses from consumers. This was regardless of how involved they were with the sponsored activity. For the most part responses were positive. Yet, responses to sponsorship scenarios judged to be anti-social were equally, if not more strongly expressed. Additionally, the exploratory research showed that negatively judged sponsorships were the most frequently recalled. As a result, there are a number of considerations for practitioners.

First, the interviews with sponsorship managers (Section 3.3.2) found they perceived sponsorship of grassroots activities to be less valuable or attractive than professional sports sponsorships. They cited a lack of media exposure, less consumer

involvement or passion, and the lack of professionalism in volunteer based activities as reasons for this. Nonetheless, the conclusions from the consumer research of this study (Section 3.3.3) suggest the practitioners should take an alternate perspective that considers the value of positive community relations outcomes. Sponsors can be assured of broad-based sponsorship-generated goodwill and positive CBBE from sponsoring grassroots activities when it appeases consumers' moral judgements.

The implication is, sponsors who are prepared to work in partnership with grassroots rights-holders will benefit most. Sponsors should invest in leveraging to offset deficiencies in brand exposure and use company skills or resources to help build the capacity of the volunteer base. This in turn would ensure greater value for money goodwill returns than those generated from larger investments in professional sport done just for the sake of greater brand exposure.

Second, the implications are equally important for rights-holders. Professional sports could add value to their sponsorship offerings by leveraging their profile and lending support for grassroots activities such as the development of junior sports or supporting social causes. They may in the future experience more pressure from sponsors and consumers alike to do so. Equally, grassroots rights-holders could increase their levels of sponsorship from sponsors by placing greater emphasis on the deeper and more positive emotional support their activities generate across the broader community. Additionally, they should look to sponsors as a capacity building partner as opposed to just financial benefactors. For example, volunteer based organisations could seek in-kind support from sponsors such as staff volunteering and professional skills training.

Implication 3. Turning to the negative affective responses found in this research, there were very strong negative responses expressed in the exploratory research to sponsorship scenarios judged to be inappropriate or anti-social. The implications of this for sponsors are twofold.

First, sponsors need to be aware of how their sponsorship is being perceived in the broader community. This is because negative judgements are likely to do more long-lasting damage to their CBBE in the broader community than are likely to provide positive results in a smaller target audience that may not be as concerned about social impacts. For example, fast food companies' sponsorship of junior sport was criticised in

the Stage 1c exploratory study regardless of the consumer's involvement with the activity.

Second, sponsors need to be wary of which other sponsors may be associated with an activity to ensure negative associations are not transferred from other sponsors whose involvement is judged negatively. For rights-holders this issue is equally important because choosing to take money from the wrong sponsor can also negatively affect the rights-holder's brand. This is challenging for grassroots rights-holders as funding is often scarce, meaning the incentive to accept any sponsorship revenue is heightened. The implication is that any sponsorship of a grassroots activity needs to stand the test of consumer moral judgements. Sponsors and rights-holders alike need to be cognisant of their social responsibilities and wary of the trade-off between commercial and community benefits.

Implication 4. Chapters 4 and 5 detailed the development and testing of a model for consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities. This included validation of measurement models for *sponsorship-generated goodwill* and *sponsor CBBE*. These constructs are effective options for measuring the consumer knowledge effects of sponsorship-linked marketing. In short, they contribute the missing link in the measurement chain between sponsor recall and the likelihood of positive consumer behaviour.

Sponsors would benefit from use of these measurement models in two ways. First, they could be used to track the performance of existing sponsorships. In doing so the sponsorships, or associated sponsorship-linked marketing, could be monitored and adapted to ensure investments were providing return on CBBE objectives. This would also be useful in comparing sponsorships within a sponsor's portfolio. Second, the models could be used to test consumer reactions to proposed sponsorships.

From the rights-holder perspective, the measurement models could be used to test the response of consumers to proposed sponsors. This would demonstrate their professionalism and provide evidence to prospective sponsors of the activity's capacity to deliver consumer goodwill, thereby increasing the value of their properties.

In summary, this study has four implications for practice. Importantly it contributes to the measurement of sponsorship effects and CBBE outcomes which has been identified as problematic for the industry. The insights gained into consumer

perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities, and the role of consumer moral judgements, inform practitioners on how sponsorship impacts their brands and which sponsorship settings may be more suitable to meet their objectives. Above all, the measurement models for *sponsorship-generated goodwill* and *sponsor CBBE* provide useful tools to ensure better efficiency for sponsorship investments. Next the limitations of the research are discussed.

6.6 LIMITATIONS

While attempts were made to ensure both the internal and external validity of this research, limitations exist in any research context. The results of testing indicate that the model has good predictive abilities and measurement characteristics. Additionally, by testing the research model using a wider variety of real sponsorships than most previous research, the external validity of the model is high. Nonetheless, in undertaking the research and analysis of results, a number of limitations were identified. The following section outlines four limitations of this research.

First, the study was delimited to the singular grassroots context of junior sport. Second, while the main study sample size was considered adequate (n=309) for the purpose of the study, a larger sample size would provide the opportunity to better compare results across the various sports used in the study, as well as by demographic and other characteristics of the respondents. A third contextual limitation was the study being conducted using a sample drawn from only the Australian community.

Finally, modelling and statistically analysing real-world relationships cannot guarantee a perfect reflection of reality. For this study the fit of the research model was considered more than adequate. Even so, it only provides an indication of supported construct associations. The model was limited to inclusion of constructs identified in the exploratory research as having particular significance for the context of the research. Other constructs that have been examined in previous sponsorship studies were either controlled or considered peripheral.

These limitations do not render this research or any of the findings insignificant or unimportant. Nonetheless, perspectives and factors beyond the scope of this study may exist and the limitations are acknowledged to clarify the findings and identify opportunities for future research. Next the implications for future research are discussed.

6.7 IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The limitations acknowledged in the previous section and the findings of this study, provide a basis for four future research directions. These opportunities, will undoubtedly prove useful and are discussed next.

First, given the emphasis in sponsorship of long-term CBBE outcomes, a longitudinal study would be beneficial to examine continuity of results. Such a study could observe changes in consumer perceptions that may occur over time. Brand-tracking has shown to be effective at providing a longitudinal perspective of the outcomes of marketing activity. As such the inclusion of the constructs and measurement scales identified in this study in a company's brand-tracking would be a useful exercise.

Second, this study was delimited to Australian consumers. It would be relevant to test consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities in other countries where community activities would exist in many varying circumstances. For example, government driven policies regarding funding would vary across countries and undoubtedly have implications for community organisations and junior sport. Similarly, varying cultural norms would expectedly influence the way corporate involvement through sponsorship is perceived.

Third, a limitation to this study was sample size. While the main study comprised a larger variety of sponsorship examples than most such studies, the sample size restricted ability to compare results for different sponsors. For example, the question of whether sponsorship of junior sport is more beneficial for large corporations than local small businesses remains open. Therefore, a larger study would provide scope for deeper and more diverse analysis.

Finally, while this study displayed strong predictive abilities and measurement characteristics for the research model, it would be highly beneficial to replicate it in other sponsorship settings. Generalizability of the model is anticipated but varying results may be found in the setting of professional sport, as well as other grassroots settings such as community arts and cause-related activities. As such, further testing of the model could provide useful industry benchmarks for sponsorship comparisons beyond those based on media exposure value or heuristics.

6.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In conclusion, this chapter combined findings for the three research objectives with the literature to provide conclusions and implications for the research question. This research extends the understanding of sponsorship's hierarchy of effects, and provides deeper insights into sponsorship of grassroots activities. It also provides a valid model for measuring consumer perceptions of sponsorship of grassroots activities and the resulting impact on a sponsor's CBBE. The findings of the research offer sponsorship practitioners valuable insights and tools to improve the efficiency and value of their sponsorships. Importantly, the research also raises the profile for sponsorship of grassroots activities by providing evidence of its capacity for delivering greater sponsor benefits than previously understood.

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Appendices

APPENDIX A: STAGE 1B EXPLORATORY STUDY INDUSTRY PRACTITIONER INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Industry Practitioners Depth Interview Guide

PhD Research Project

The Impact of Junior Sports Sponsorship on Consumer-Based Brand Equity

PhD Candidate – Lenny Vance

Introduction

Objective: to establish rapport with the interviewee and allay any concerns they may have about the interview process.

Thank interviewee again for agreeing to participate in the project

Introduce topic and brief overview of how the interview will be conducted

Today we are going to be discussing the practice of sponsorship and I'd like to explore your company's approach to sponsorship

As you would have noted from our previous conversations and communications this interview forms part of a broader PhD research study I am conducting into the impact of various sponsorships on sponsor's brand equity.

I don't consider there to be any right or wrong answers to any of today's questions. They are merely intended to prompt discussion and I am just interested in your observations about sponsorship practice

I expect the interview should be completed within an hour

Confidentiality

Just to confirm again for you this interview is conducted in complete confidentiality

- Your information and opinions will be used for research purposes only
- All answers will remain confidential
- All information will be de-identified before publication
- To ensure I can capture a true reflection of today's discussion I am going to be recording the interview using a digital voice-recording device, are you comfortable with that?
- I'll also be making notes as you provide answers to help me with remembering key points

- Once downloaded a transcription of the interview will be forwarded to you for confirmation of its accuracy

- If at any time during the interview you wish to not disclose information, please feel free to say so

Discussion Point 1. To begin with could you introduce yourself and tell me a little bit about your role and experience within the sponsorship industry?

Discussion Point 2. In the pre-interview survey, you note that you have been in the role of ……. With this company for …….. Have there been any significant changes in sponsorship strategy or policy in that time? If so explore how this may have impacted on responses to Question A of the survey.

Company Description and Practice

Objective: to establish an inside perspective of the profile of the company and its sponsorship practice and objectives

Discussion Point 3 Could you tell me a little bit about your company? Perhaps describe your key consumer markets?

Discussion Point 4. Using responses to Questions D - F of the pre-interview survey explore the role of sponsorship within the company's marketing and communications mix.

Discussion Point 5. Use cue cards process to establish objectives for undertaking sponsorship and explore the implications of those objectives.

Sponsorship Evaluation

Objective: to gather details on industry practice for measurement of sponsorship performance

Discussion Point 6. Thinking about when it comes time to report on the performance of your sponsorships, how do you go about measurement? What criteria do you use and tell me about your evaluation process? Has the criteria and process changed over time and does it vary by type of sponsorship? Why?

(*Note*: explore to what degrees do "generation of goodwill" and "recall of sponsorship" come into evaluation of sponsorships?)

Discussion Point 7 How would you describe brand equity and what does it mean to your company?

Perceptions on various sponsorship types

Objective: identify and examine in differences in perceptions about various sponsorship types from professional sports through to grassroots activities

Discussion Point 8. Tell me about the pros and cons of the various sponsorship types you have in your portfolio.

- If for some reason you had to reduce your sponsorship expenditure by say 30 - 40%, which of your current sponsorships would you shed, and why?

Discussion Point 9. Use symbolic analysis to explore results of budget allocations identified in Question F of pre –interview survey

- e.g., "your company allocates X% to commercial sport sponsorships, what if those sponsorships weren't available? Do you feel you could achieve similar results from the other types of sponsorships?" Why/Whynot?

Discussion Point 10. Thinking about the sponsorship industry in general, what observations have you made over time and what improvements would you recommend when it comes to the various sponsorship types?

Discussion Point 11. Tell me about how you think the various sponsorship types we have discussed are considered by the community in general?

Conclusion

Ensure all key points are covered and clarified, that the interviewee is comfortable with the interview and has had a chance to express all the opinions they believe are warranted

Discussion Point 12. Provide final opportunity for additional comments or observations.

APPENDIX B: STAGE 1C EXPLORATORY STUDY CONSUMER INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Consumer Depth Interview Guide

(for Stage 1c of Exploratory Research Phase)

PhD Research Project

The Impact of Junior Sports Sponsorship on Consumer-Based Brand Equity

PhD Candidate – Lenny Vance

Preparation Date - July 2014

Introduction

Objective: to establish rapport with the respondent and allay any concerns they may have about the interview process.

Thank interviewee again for agreeing to participate in the project

PRIVACY ACT REQUIREMENTS

Introduce topic and brief outline of how the interview will be conducted

- As you would have noted from our previous conversations and communications this interview forms part of a broader PhD research study I am conducting into the impact of various sponsorships on sponsor's brand equity
- Today we are going to be chatting a lot about sponsorship. What we know and think about sponsorship of a range of activities and how you feel about the companies that undertake sponsorship
- To begin with I will collect some demographic details
- Then I have a series of questions to work through but really they are just meant to be prompts for discussion

– There are no right or wrong answers, this is not a knowledge test, I am simply looking for your natural thoughts and feelings about the subject.

– The discussion will last for about 45 minutes

Confidentiality

- Information and opinions will be used for research purposes only
- All answers are combined with other respondents at the end
- We are not conducting this interview on behalf of any individual company, rather it is for use in a PhD study into the general practice of sponsorship

- The privacy and well-being of all respondents will be respected at all times
- Information to describe each participant will be collected, however all personal details will be de-identified prior to use in any publication
- If at any time during the interview you wish to not disclose information or not continue with the discussions, please feel free to say so

Recording

- Describe how (digital audio recording)
- Give assurance that recordings will only be used for research purposes.

Respondent introductions

- Have respondent introduce themselves:
- Family, work/home duties, lifestyle, hobbies or participatory interests, outlook on life etc

Consumer Perceptions about Sponsorship

Objective: to explore, prior to any prompting with any stimulus, respondent's perceptions about sponsorship.

Aligns with Research Objective 2: To explore consumer perceptions of companies' sponsorship of grassroots activities

Discussion Point 1 Could we start by hearing what you think sponsorship is?

- clarify the difference between charitable donations and sponsorship

Discussion Point 2 Why do you think companies do sponsorship?

- What benefits do you think sponsors get from doing sponsorship?

Discussion Point 3 How do feel about the level of sponsorship you are exposed to?

Discussion Point 4 Is sponsorship a good or bad thing?

Perceptions About Sponsorship Types

Objective: to identify and explore any differences in perceptions about various sponsorship types

Discussion Point 5 progress through sponsorship types 1) arts and cultural events, professional sport, environmental or charitable causes, grassroots activities (incl. amateur/junior sport) to ascertain levels of support for these sponsorship types

- Explore why individuals think these are good or bad types of sponsorship
-
- Have you ever considered a sponsor when making a purchase decision?

Perceptions About Sponsors

Objective: explore impact of sponsorship types on sponsors CBBE

Discussion Point 6 Ask respondents to provide specific examples of sponsorships they are aware of (explores the impact of unprompted awareness)

- What are your feelings about that sponsorship?
- What are your feelings towards that sponsor?
- How would you describe the sponsor's image and reputation?

Use cue cards to determine word preferences

- What other words would you use to describe that sponsor?
- Explore how likely respondents would be to talk to others about those sponsorships (either negatively or positively)
- Would those sponsorships be likely to have an influence on future use of the sponsor's products or services if they were equal on other attributes?
- Does the sponsorship make you feel more or less loyal to the sponsor?
- Does the sponsorship make you feel more or less attached to the sponsor?

Discussion Point 7 Refer back to the respondent's answers about sponsorship types explore a specific sponsorship for a type they liked and then one they didn't (explores the impact of prompted awareness)

- What are your feelings about that sponsorship?
- What are your feelings towards that sponsor?
- How would you describe the sponsor's image and reputation?

Use cue cards to determine word preferences

- What other words would you use to describe that sponsor?

- Explore how likely respondents would be to talk to others about those sponsorships (either negatively or positively)

- Would those sponsorships be likely to have an influence on future use of the sponsor's products or services if they were equal on other attributes?

- Does the sponsorship make you feel more or less loyal to the sponsor?

- Does the sponsorship make you feel more or less attached to the sponsor?

Conclusion

Advise respondents that the interview is being concluded, ask for any further comments or observations regarding sponsorship.

APPENDIX C: STAGE 2 MAIN STUDY SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Consumer Responses to Sponsorship of Junior Sport in Australia

(Research Ethics Approval s/13/546)

Introduction

You are invited to take part in this survey for the University of the Sunshine Coast.

The survey is for a PhD study into sponsorship of junior sport in Australia and should only take around 10 minutes to complete. We are looking for responses from people who may be involved with the running of junior sport or who have children or grandchildren that participate in junior sport. Please note that if you have no involvement with junior sport in any way you should not complete the survey.

Junior sport is defined as an officially organised program for out of school hours (e.g. Netball, Soccer, Cricket or Athletics). *Sponsorship,* in a junior sport context, is the provision of funds, goods, services or equipment to a junior sports organisation or vouchers to players by a business in return for marketing opportunities.

Participation is voluntary and all your responses will remain anonymous. All information provided will remain strictly confidential and will only be used for the purposes of this research with access to the information limited to the project researchers. Incentives for participation are specified by the Research Panel Provider in line with ISO 26362 and research industry guidelines.

You can withdraw from the survey at any time without penalty and by continuing with the survey you are providing your consent to participate.

As you complete each section, please select the 'Next' button to progress with the survey. You may return to any of your answers by clicking the 'Previous' button.

Further information about this research and survey can be obtained from the researchers. Contact:

Mr Lenny Vance (Principal Investigator)
PhD Candidate

School of Business, University of the Sunshine Coast
P: 0409 473 369
E: lvance@usc.edu.au

or

Dr Maria Raciti (Principal Supervisor)
School of Business, University of the Sunshine Coast
P: 07 5430 1153
E: mraciti@usc.edu.au

If you have any complaints about the way this research project is being conducted you can raise them with the Principal Investigator or, if you prefer an independent person, contact the Chairperson of the Human Research Ethics Committee at the University of the Sunshine Coast: (c/- the Research Ethics Officer, Office of Research, University of the Sunshine Coast, Maroochydore DC 4558; telephone 07 54594574; email humanethics@usc.edu.au

Thank you, your participation in this survey is greatly appreciated by the researchers and the University of the Sunshine Coast.

PART A: Some quick questions about you and your involvement in junior sport.

Please complete the following questions by ticking the relevant boxes.
1 (CG). Are you ☐ Male or ☐ Female?
2 (CA). Which age group do you belong to? ☐ 18–25 ☐ 26–35 ☐ 36–45 ☐ 46–55 ☐ 56–65 ☐ 66+
3 (CP). What is your postcode? __ __ __ __

Screening Question: Respondents who tick any of the last three boxes in this section are to be excluded as not eligible

4 (GI). Regarding junior sport, which of the following best describes your level of involvement? (tick one box only)
☐ _My children (grandchildren, or children of my relatives) play junior sport and I sometimes go to watch them play in their competition matches
☐ _My children (grandchildren, or children of my relatives) play junior sport and I frequently go to watch them play in their competition matches
☐ _I help in some way with the running of a junior sport
☐ _My children (grandchildren, or children of my relatives) play junior sport but I never attend their matches – *screen out*
☐ _I played junior sport when I was younger but have no involvement now – *screen out*
☐ _I have never been involved in junior sport in any way – *screen out*

Screening Question: Respondents who are not involved with any of these sports (that tick the final box in this section) are to be excluded as not eligible

5 (FS). Of the junior sport/s that you have some involvement with, please select one junior sport from the following list that you are most involved with and about which you will focus on in completing the rest of this survey (tick one box only)

☐ _ Athletics, track and field

☐ _ Australian Rules Football (AFL)

☐ _ Basketball

☐ _ Cricket

☐ _ Football (Soccer)

☐ _ Netball

☐ _ Rugby League

☐ _ Rugby Union

☐ _ Swimming and diving

☐ _ Tennis

☐ _ I have no involvement with any of these sports – *screen out*

Screening Question: Respondents who can't think of a sponsor will be excluded from the survey (note: I will want to know % of respondents who are screened out at this point)

6 (FB). Please indicate which type of business is most active as a sponsor of the junior sport you have just selected. This business will become the focus for you in following parts of the survey. (tick one box only)

☐ _ Bank

☐ _ Insurance company

☐ _ Fast food chain

☐ _ Supermarket

☐ _ National retailer (e.g. a telecommunications company, a power company or a manufacturer or seller of electrical goods)

☐ _ A food or beverage brand (e.g. breakfast cereal or energy drink)

☐ _ A local business (e.g. real estate, newsagent, butcher, construction company or a community club)

☐ _ Other (please specify)

_____

☐ _ I can't think of a business that sponsors my chosen junior sport – *screen out*

7 (SN). What is the name of that business?

Name: _____

☐ _ Unsure

PART B: About the junior sport you selected

With the junior sport you selected in mind please answer the following questions.

8 (PI1). Approximately how long have you been involved with the junior sport you selected?

_____ years _____ months

9. How would you rate your relationship with the junior sport you selected?

PI2	Very strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very weak
10. In general, the junior sport you selected is best described by you as:									
PI3	Important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unimportant to me
PI4	Involving for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Uninvolving for me
PI5	Valuable to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Worthless to me
PI6	Exciting to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexciting to me
PI7	Appealing to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unappealing to me
PI8	Relevant to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Irrelevant to me

PART C: Businesses involved in sponsorship of junior sport

Now recalling the business that you identified is most active as a sponsor of the junior sport you selected, please answer the following questions.

11 (ST). What type of sponsorship support does that business provide to the junior sport you selected? (tick all relevant boxes)
☐ _Provides financial support to the national or regional association of the junior sport I selected ☐ _Provides financial support to the local club of the junior sport I selected ☐ _Provides goods, services or sporting equipment to the local club of the junior sport I selected ☐ _Provides vouchers to the players in the local club of the junior sport I selected ☐ _I'm not sure ☐ _Other (please describe) _____

PART D: Your views about that business's sponsorship of the junior sport you selected

12. In general the alignment of that business with the junior sport you selected would be best described by you as:									
PF1	A good fit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not a good fit
PF2	Compatible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not compatible
PF3	Well-suited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not well-suited
PF4	Makes sense	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Doesn't make sense

13. That business's sponsorship of the junior sport you selected is something you would consider to be:									
MJ1	Appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not appropriate
MJ2	Agreeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not agreeable
MJ3	Moral	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not moral
MJ4	Ethical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not ethical
MJ5	Good for the community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not good for the community
MJ6	Inoffensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Offensive
MJ7	Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dishonest

14. Thinking about that business's sponsorship of the junior sport you selected, how much do you agree with the following statements?							
	Very strongly agree						Very strongly disagree
SM1 That business is acting unselfishly by sponsoring the junior sport	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SM2 That business' sponsorship of the junior sport is a generous act	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SM3 That business' sponsorship of the junior sport is a charitable act by the business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. Thinking about that business's sponsorship of the junior sport you selected, how much do you agree with the following statements?							
	Very strongly agree						Very strongly disagree
SM4 That business has an underhanded motive for sponsoring the junior sport	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SM5 That business is only acting in its own self interest by sponsoring the junior sport	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SM6 That business has something other than charitable intentions when sponsoring the junior sport	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SM7 I am cynical about that business' motives in sponsoring the junior sport	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. In general, how do you feel about that business's sponsorship of the junior sport you selected?

SG1	I'm ok with it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	I'm not ok with it
SG2	It improves their standing with me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	It doesn't improve their standing with me
SG3	It increases my goodwill toward them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	It doesn't increase my goodwill towards them
SG4	It's helpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	It's not helpful
SG5	I like it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	I dislike it
SG6	It's not annoying	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	It's annoying
SG7	It's valuable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	It's not valuable
SG8	Favourable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not favourable
SG9	Positive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Negative
SG10	It's not intrusive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	It's too intrusive

PART E: The impact of the sponsorship on your perceptions of that business

17. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about that business.							
	Very strongly agree						Very strongly disagree
BA1 Overall, their sponsorship of the junior sport I selected has now improved my attitude towards that business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BA2 Overall, their sponsorship of the junior sport I selected now improves that business's image to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BA3 Overall, their sponsorship of the junior sport I selected now makes me believe that business can be relied upon	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. As a result of their sponsorship of the junior sport you selected you now perceive that business to be:							
	Very strongly agree						Very strongly disagree
BI1 More down-to-earth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BI2 More honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BI3 More sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BI4 More 'real'	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BI5 More friendly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BI6 More genuine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BI7 More caring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19. As a result of their sponsorship of the junior sport you selected you now believe that business is:							
	Very strongly agree						Very strongly disagree
BC1 More credible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BC2 More trustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BC3 More expert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BC4 More believable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BC5 More reputable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BC6 More reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BC7 More dependable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

20. As a result of that business's sponsorship of the junior sport you selected…							
	Very strongly agree						Very strongly disagree
BS1 You now feel a greater sense of attachment with that business	1		3	4	5	6	7
BS2 You now feel that you share something in common with that business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BS3 You now feel that you know that business better	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BS4 You now feel that business is a part of your community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BS5 You now feel that business has helped to strengthen your community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. As a result of that business's sponsorship of the junior sport you selected…							
	Very strongly agree						Very strongly disagree
BB1 You are now more likely to say positive things about that business to other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BB2 You are now more likely to do more business with that business in the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BB3 You are now more likely to recommend that business to people who ask your advice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
BB4 You are now more likely to encourage friends and relatives to do business with that business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

PART F: About you

22. How important are the following personal values to you…							
Very strongly important							Very strongly unimportant
CM1 Helpfulness (working for the welfare of others)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CM2 Honesty (genuine, sincere)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CM3 Loyalty (faithful to your friends, group)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CM4 Responsibility (dependable, reliable)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

23. To what extent do you agree with the following statements?							
Very strongly agree							Very strongly disagree
CM5 You feel it is important to serve as a volunteer in my community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CM6 It is important for you to form close ties with others in your community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CM7 You believe it is important to give of one's own time to community activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

24. What is your current life status? (tick one box only)	
CL 1	☐ _Couple family with no children at home
CL 2	☐ _Couple family with children at home

CL 3	☐ _One parent family with children at home
CL 4	☐ _Single living without family at home
CL 5	☐ _Living at home with parents
CL 6	☐ _Other (please describe) _____ __

25. What is your highest level of education? (tick one box only)	
CE1	☐ _ High school certificate
CE2	☐ _ Trade certificate
CE3	☐ _ Undergraduate degree
CE4	☐ _ Post graduate degree
CE5	☐ _Other

26. What is your approximate annual household income? (tick one box only)	
HI1	☐ _Under $50,000
HI2	☐ _$50,000 - $100,000
HI3	☐ _$100,001 - $200,000
HI4	☐ _$200,001 +

The researchers and the University of the Sunshine Coast thank for completing our survey, we greatly appreciate your thoughts and time. If you have any further comments to make about sponsorship of junior sport please do so below.

Survey End