

**Developing and Testing a Consumer Attributes Model to Measure the Effectiveness
of Facility Naming Rights Sponsorships in a Professional Baseball Setting**

by

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Abstract

Although the effectiveness of facility naming rights is generally assumed, there is a general lack of academic research into both how effective these facility naming rights agreements are to both the sponsor and team as well as what consumer attributes affect just how effective facility naming rights are. The purpose of this study is to examine a fan's reaction to a stadium that has also sold its naming rights to a corporate sponsor and how this relationship impacts their future behavior intentions towards attending future games and purchasing sponsor/team products. This study developed and tested a model that examines what consumer attributes predict their attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor. An additional purpose of this study is to determine how entering in these naming rights impacts the sponsor with branding aspects.

In order to develop and test this model, a survey was developed using previously validated and reliable measures. 657 fans of 2 Major League Baseball teams with stadium sponsors with two different types of products were surveyed that attended a home game. Structural equation modeling was utilized to test the model. The findings reveal that there is minimal spillover effect between the team and sponsor, when measuring game day experience. The findings reveal that there is little downside for a firm to enter into a facility naming rights as fans seem to separate the team from the sponsor, meaning that the sponsor is much more in-control of the consumer's attitude toward the sponsor. This is beneficial to the sponsor since it lowers the risk of entering

into an agreement, while also benefiting the team when selling the naming rights. The findings in this study also imply that there is a difference in what factor impact consumers' attitude toward the sponsor based on the type of sponsor, in this case a service or a good. This study contributes to the facility naming rights/sponsorship literature as the first theoretical model tested in a professional setting measuring facility naming rights effectiveness, as well as introduces the spillover effect theory into sports sponsorship research.

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List of Abbreviations

MLB	Major League Baseball
GDSQ	Game Day Service Quality
V	Valence
TI	Team Identification
PFS	Perception of Financial Status
PES	Previous Experience with Sponsor
ATS	Attitude Toward Sponsor
BA	Brand Awareness
BIm	Brand Image
BId	Brand Identity
FBI	Future Behavioral Intentions
PF	Perceived Fit
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Projected spending for sports sponsorships in 2016 is projected at \$22.4 billion dollars in North American alone (IEGSR, 2016). Sponsorship spending in Major League Baseball (MLB) and its 30 teams totaled \$778 million during the 2015 season, which was a 12 percent increase over the previous year (IEGSR, 2015a). The average length of a new naming rights deal at the four major U.S. professional sports leagues is trending up after the economic recession. In 2014, the average term length was 13.3 years, up from a low of 8.5 years in 2012 (IEGSR, 2015b). McCarthy & Irwin (2000) identified that facility naming rights agreements were a consistent source of long-term income for a professional sport franchise. Facility naming rights have long been seen as major component of sports sponsorships in MLB. With the Braves moving from Turner Field to SunTrust Park this year, there are currently 2/3rds of all MLB teams that have a facility naming rights sponsor. In addition to MLB stadiums, more than 75% of all North American major professional sport facilities are named after corporations (Schaul & Benson, 2013). Previous research has shown that facility naming rights sponsorships offer partners a degree of visibility that other forms of sponsorships generally cannot provide (Fullerton & Merz, 2008).

Mullen, Hardy & Sutton (2014) surmised that corporations are looking for specific benefits when they enter into a facility naming rights agreement: impressions or exposures, media coverage, tax considerations, brand building, public relations and community support, hospitality options, and sponsorship activation platforms. Reysen, Snider & Branscombe (2012) stated that the three main objectives why corporations enter into naming rights agreements are enhanced visibility of the corporation, sponsorship activation opportunities, and to influence consumers' intention to buy the sponsor's products.

Previous research that has examined the impact of facility naming rights across several different dimensions including marketing exposure, branding identity, and economic impact. Specifically, Crompton & Howard (2003) suggest that naming rights do offer corporations significant marketing advantages. McCarthy & Irwin (2000) also found that these type of relationships provide corporations with the most effective type of marketing tool in sports today. In contrast with these findings, Haan & Shank (2004), have argued that companies do not ascertain value which exceeds the cost associated with current naming right agreements. Further complicating the issue is the lack of previous research that has delved into the specific benefits that both the team and their corporate partner(s) redeem when entering into a facility naming rights contract.

Statement of the Problem

There have been several recent cases when a facility naming rights agreement has created a negative public relations issue for both the team and the sponsor (Brovsky, 2001; Crompton & Howard, 2003; Lieberman, 2003; Muret, 2010). This may be due to

the fact that, traditionally, stadium names in the United States usually convey a sense of the team's history, recognition, and offer a level of nostalgia for fans (Boyd, 2000).

While these types of issues have not stopped the growth of facility naming rights agreements, they still may cause a negative impact for both the sponsor and the team.

When a corporate sponsor enters into an agreement with the facility/team, there is an assumption that it is an investment in marketing/branding of the company. Although the effectiveness of facility naming rights is generally assumed, there is a general lack of academic research into both how effective these facility naming rights agreements are to both the sponsor and team as well as what consumer attributes affect just how effective facility naming rights are.

Chen and Zhang (2011, 2012) began to develop a theoretical model looking at facility naming rights in an intercollegiate setting which incorporates a limited number of consumer attributes and how these attributes affected the consumer's attitude toward sponsor and their future behavior intentions. There has not been a theoretical model that measures the effectiveness of facility naming right sponsorships from a professional sports setting, as well as looks at game day experience and previous experience with the sponsor affecting attitude toward the sponsor. In order to fully measure the effectiveness of facility naming rights sponsorships, researchers need to not only look at future behavior intentions, but if the sponsorship is impacting the marketing objectives that are major objectives of why corporations enter into these agreements. Based on the limitations of previous research, other academics have indicated that there continues to be a lack of information and understanding about the theoretical and practical mechanisms of sponsorship effectiveness (Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Speed & Thompson, 2000).

Corporate sponsors need empirical evidence in order to be able to guide decisions about whether facility naming rights as a form of sponsorship is functioning in meeting the marketing goals of the corporations. Teams and facilities need empirical evidence in order to minimize any potential negative impact, while maximizing the potential positive impact of a facility naming rights agreement.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine a fan's reaction to a stadium that has sold its naming rights to a corporate sponsor and how this relationship impacts their future behavior intentions towards attending future games and purchasing sponsor/team products and various branding outcomes. This study developed and tested a model that examines what consumer attributes predict their attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor. An additional purpose of this study was to determine how entering in these naming rights impacts the sponsor with branding aspects. In order to better understand this complicated relationship, a number of other variables have also been deemed necessary after studying the relevant literature, these include: game day service quality, valence, consumer's perception of the team's financial status, team identification, previous experience with the sponsor, perceived fit between the sponsor and the team, attitude toward the sponsor, future behavior intentions in terms of willingness to attend future games and purchase intention of products and services offered by the sponsor and team, as well as branding outcomes from the sponsor including: brand awareness, brand image and brand identification. This study developed a holistic integrative model that looks at the effectiveness of facility naming rights on both the team and sponsor side of

the agreement. It is expected that, through the development and testing of the proposed model, the findings of this study would start to provide a more comprehensive understanding on how consumers perceive corporate naming rights sponsorships of professional sport facilities, and how those perceptions impact their attitudes, future behavior outcomes, and branding outcomes. Corporations and professional sports teams may be able to take into consideration the findings of this study when deciding whether or not to enter into a naming rights agreement. The development of this model can increase the theoretical knowledge and be used by other researchers. This model could also be used to measure the effectiveness of current sponsorship relationships, and help with future sponsorship agreements.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical basis for this dissertation and model is based on Madrigal's (2001) beliefs-attitude-behavior intentions hierarchy model which was previously adapted by Chen & Zhang (2011). This theory suggests that a person's beliefs about an object and the implicit evaluative importance of those beliefs construct his/her attitude toward the object. An individual's attitude can then influence behavior intentions, which in turn predicts that person's behavioral response to the object (Chen, 2016; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Madrigal, 2001;).

Research Questions & Hypotheses

To guide the direction of the study, a set of research questions were developed as follows:

RQ1: To what extent does game day service quality, valence, team identification, perception of the team's financial status, and previous experience with the sponsor predict consumers' attitudes toward the facility naming rights sponsor?

RQ2: To what extent are brand awareness, brand image, brand identity, future behavioral intentions, and perceived fit predicted by the consumers' attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor?

RQ3: To what extent does game day service quality, valence, team identification, perception of the team's financial status, previous experience with the sponsor, brand awareness, brand image, brand identity, future behavioral intentions, and perceived fit contribute to a structural model for consumers' attitudes toward the facility naming rights sponsor?

RQ4: To what extent is there a difference in the structural model for consumers' attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor when considering type of sponsor's products (services compared to goods)?

To answer these research questions, a set of null and alternative hypotheses were developed:

H₀1: Game day service quality is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A1: Game day service quality is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H₀2: Valence is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A2: Valence is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H₀3: Team identification is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A3: Team identification is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H₀4: Fan perception of the team's financial status is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A4: Fan perception of the team's financial status is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H₀5: Previous experience with the sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A5: Previous experience with the sponsor is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H₀6: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the sponsor brand awareness.

H_A6: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the sponsor brand awareness.

H₀7: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the sponsor brand image.

H_A7: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a statistically significant predictor of the sponsor brand image.

H₀8: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the sponsor brand identity.

H_A8: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the sponsor brand identity.

H₀9: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the consumers' future behavioral intentions.

H_A9: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the consumers' future behavioral intentions.

H₀10: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the perceived fit between the team/stadium and the facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A10: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the perceived fit between the team/stadium and the facility naming rights sponsor.

H₀11: The type of the facility naming rights sponsor's products will not have a significant effect on the structural model of consumers' attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A11: The type of the facility naming rights sponsor's products will have a significant effect on the structural model of consumers' attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor.

Definitions of Terms

Attitude toward Stadium Naming Rights Sponsor – consumer’s psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating the stadium naming rights sponsor with some degree of favor or disfavor (Chen & Zhang, 2011; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993)

Brand Awareness – the rudimentary level of brand knowledge involving, at the least, recognition of the brand name (Hoyer & Brown, 1990)

Brand Equity – the incremental utility or value added to a product by its brand name (Yoo, Donhthu & Lee, 2000)

Brand Identification – customer’s psychological state of perceiving, feeling, and valuing his or her belongingness with a brand (Lam, Ahearne & Schillewaert, 2010)

Brand Image - the reasoned or emotional perceptions consumers attach to specific brands (Low & Lamb, 2000)

Facility Naming Rights – a transaction in which money or consideration changes hands in order to secure the right to name a sports facility (Thornburg, 2002)

Fan Identification – the personal commitment and emotional involvement customers have with a sport organization (Sutton, McDonald, Milne & Cimperman, 1997)

Future Behavior Intentions – a person’s perceived likelihood or the subjective probability that her or she will engage in a given behavior in the future (Institute of Medicine, 2002)

Game Day Service Quality – attendee’s satisfaction with the game day services at a sporting event venue (Martin, Howell, Newman & Martin, 2012)

Perceived Fit – global assessment of the connections that exist between the extension and parent brand, based on factors such as being in similar product categories, sharing an important attribute, or complementing each other in usage situations (Keller, 2002)

Perception of Financial Status – consumer’s impression of the commercial position that the team is currently in (Chen & Zhang, 2012; Chen & Zhang, 2011)

Sponsorship – the provision of assistance either as 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 organization for the purpose of achieving commercial objectives (Meenaghan, 1983)

Team Identification – psychological attachment that provides fans with a sense of belonging to a larger social structure (Wann & Branscombe, 1991)

Valence – the degree to which the service (game) outcome is perceived as good or bad (Brady & Cronin, 2001)

Significance of Study

Naming rights sponsorships have been shown to benefit the facility owner by providing a stable revenue source in order to meet financial obligations, benefits the sport team through making it more likely to attract a new facility or renovations to an existing facility, and benefits the corporate sponsor by providing a unique marketing approach for the entity to connect with the target audience and heighten brand awareness (Hollis, 2008). Corporations are continually looking for new avenues of sponsorships, while teams and facilities are looking for ways to attract new corporate sponsorships and show

evidence of sponsorship effectiveness. Facility naming rights are an avenue of sponsorships in sports that have a lack of comprehensive understanding of the impact on both the sponsor and the facility/team, especially in a professional setting. This study examined multidimensional factors of consumers' attitudes and beliefs, as well as their game day service quality, and measured professional naming rights sponsorships effectiveness through the development and testing of a theoretical model developed from related theories and previous research findings. Findings of this study will help to improve the understanding of the mechanism and function of professional naming rights sponsorship in an effort to maximize the effectiveness and value of this sponsorship form in professional sports, on both sides of the equation, and avoid negative consequences at the same time. The development of this model will increase the theoretical base knowledge and have practical implications not just for facility naming rights, but for general sponsorships as well.

Assumptions and Limitations of the Study

This study assumed that the respondents answered all the questions in the survey truthfully and to the best of their knowledge. Every construct was assumed to be measureable and that each previously developed instrument was valid to assess each construct.

Every effort was made to limit the number of limitations for this study. Ultimately, however, limitations still remain and researchers should be cautioned when attempting to generalize the results. One of the limitations of the study is the sample group itself. While every effort was made to obtain a sample group that was

representative of fans of a team in MLB that has a facility naming right sponsor, the sample was limited to respondents from an online consumer panel. The use of an online consumer panel to obtain responses may have a negative impact on the reliability and validity on the data collected. The constructs measuring game day service quality and valence were measured months after the respondents attended a MLB game. Ideally, game day service quality should be measured as close to the actual game day as possible. This study was limited to a self-administered online survey, in which social desirability and level of sincerity could not be controlled. Until future studies, the present study is limited in its applicability to many other setting.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Corporate Sports Sponsorships

Sponsorships have been one of the fastest growing marketing platforms in recent decades (Meenaghan & O’Sullivan, 2013). In the charity, arts, entertainment and sport industries, corporate sponsorships have flourished as a structured exchange mechanism whereby the industries organizations can access heterogeneous resources from commercial partners in return for promotional affiliation and enhancement (Meenaghan, 2001). Researchers commonly accept that sponsorship can be viewed as a business-to-business relationship between a sponsor and a sport entity for mutual benefits (Farrelly, Quester, & Greyser, 2005; Henseler et al., 2011). This implies that a sport entity earns the monetary support and/or other in-kind resources needed to improve team quality and other managerial aspects of the club, while the sponsor obtains the tangible benefits of being associated with the sport entity (Chen & Zhang, 2011; Yang, 2008).

Because corporate sponsorships are an institutionalized support mechanism ubiquitous throughout sport and its various segments, engagement in this type of inter-organizational alliance spans a myriad of connected industries, organizations, activities, and managers (Crowley, 1991). Similar to any other type of alliance, the resources exchanged within a sponsorship are heterogeneous and not necessarily related to a

sustainable competitive advantage (Amis, Pant & Slack, 1997). Corporations and properties use sponsorships to achieve marketing objectives (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2004) and gain financial value from the persuasive nature of the medium (Cornwell, Pruitt, & Van Ness, 2001). Sponsoring firms depend on the sponsorship for the ability to reach a target audience by increasing consumer awareness, improving employee morale, and establishing goodwill (Mishra, Bobinski, & Bhabra, 1997).

Unlike advertising, sponsorships associate the brand of the sponsor with the team or venue sponsored, developing a direct transfer of goodwill between them (Bergkvist, 2012). Although companies may sponsor activities in a variety of industries, about two-thirds of all sponsorship spending is through sports. Further, while other marketing activities are growing at a relatively slower rate, sponsorship has grown at a rate of about 5% annually, despite challenging economic conditions (Delia & Armstrong, 2015). Meenaghan (2001) stated that growth in sponsorship “can largely be attributed to corporate disillusion with media advertising and by extension the perceived relative effectiveness of sponsorship as a method of marketing communications” (p. 191).

Sponsorship portfolios may include a variety of properties, including naming rights, uniforms, venue signage, endorsement of individual players, teams or sports; and more common direct-to-user sponsorship, which may encompass free or discounted product, transport and entry to local clubs or hotels, and volume rebates to clubs (O’Brien & Kypri, 2008; O’Brien, Miller, Kolt, Martens, Webber, 2011; Reilly, 2010). Although sponsorship and advertising are related marketing communications tools, sponsorship differs from advertising in several ways. In contrast to the extended messaging opportunities incumbent with advertising, sponsorship operates in impoverished media,

which communicates limited message chunks confined to brand name and logos (Kelly, Ireland, Alpert, & Mangan, 2014). Evidence suggests that consumers process sponsorship and advertising differently. Sponsorship typically targets consumers during sporting events with which they are passionately engaged (Cornwall, 2008; Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2005). Sponsorship offers the unique advantage of enabling product consumption simultaneously with message exposure (Kelly et al., 2014). The objectives of sponsorships include increasing brand awareness, enhancing and changing brand image, corporate hospitality, increasing sales, and ultimately increasing stock price (Cornwall, 2008; Walliser, 2003). According to Shank and Lyberger (2014) as well as Irwin, Sutton, & McCarthy (2008), sales and market share objectives are the most popular sponsorship objectives within sports. Sponsorship affects not only the event itself, but also allows leveraging through sponsorship-linked advertising, which enhances the overall impact (Kelly, Cornwell, McAlister, & Coote, 2012).

Cousens, Babiak, and Bradish (2006) suggested that while the importance of the relationship marketing paradigm to sponsorship has been acknowledged in the literature, it has not carried over into research that specifically examines the dynamic nature of the interactions between the sport and sponsor. Stotlar (1999) surveyed the opinions and provided support for the concerns of Mahony, Madrigal, and Howard (1999) that the sport industry suffered from managerial complacency when it came to the sponsorship relationship. Mullin, Hardy, and Sutton (2014) attributed this to the prevalence of export professionals with little business education or experience working in marketing management roles, and widespread media coverage and high visibility driving substantial revenues from sponsorship without the need for high levels of marketer expertise. There

seems to be asymmetrical relationships between the sponsor and sponsee based on different levels of commitment, and perceived inequities in resource allocation (Thibault & Harvey, 1997). This arises because, yet again, it is extremely difficult to directly attribute sponsorship value to particular actions (Meenaghan, 1991). Unlike conventional vertical channel relationships, value in the sponsorship relationship is typically realized by two parties at different times. Sport organizations often receive revenues from rights' fees at the beginning of the relationship, while sponsors may not realize any substantive return until much later and only after investing considerably more funds to activate the association (Farrelly, 2010). There are also many hidden costs associated with sponsorship that could cause the sponsor to question the value in the investment (Sam, Batty, & Dean, 2005). Farrelly (2010) found that the worth and value of rights' fees are typically a function of the additional marketing efforts or activation, and it is critical that sponsor partners develop a shared interpretation of their respective roles in this value creation, above and beyond rights' fees.

Researchers have recognized the potential for a sponsorship alliance to differentiate and add financial value to a sponsoring firm's brand while serving as a primary method of resource acquisition for sponsored sport organizations (Jensen, Cobbs, & Turner, 2016). Sport sponsorship sometimes allows companies to target a niche market with very little waste on spectators outside their target market (Irwin et al., 2008). Past research has shown that fans are emotionally involved when attending sporting events (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Maroco, & Ross, 2012; Kwak, Kim, & Hirt, 2011; Madrigal, 2003), and global brands use this emotional impact of sport to connect with the consumers (Santomier, 2008).

Sponsorship Trends

In the past couple of decades, sponsorship has evolved from a merely philanthropic activity to a popular marketing vehicle (Cornwell, 2008). Corporate sport sponsorship has moved from a philosophy of corporate donation to a key element of marketing strategy used by major corporations to create brand value and obtain a competitive advantage in the marketplace (Henseler, Wilson, & Westerberg, 2011). The first definition of sponsorship was proposed by Meenaghan (1983) which stated that sponsorship “can be regarded as the provision of assistance either financial or in-kind to an activity by a commercial organization for the purpose of achieving commercial objectives” (p. 9). The key implication with this definition is that sponsorship is directed at achieving commercial goals, which distinguishes it from activities which solely focus on philanthropy goals (Walraven, Koning & Bottenburg, 2012). The next definition was developed by Gardner and Shulman (1988) which defined sponsorship as “investments in causes or events to support corporate objectives (for example, by enhancing corporate image) or marketing objectives (such as increasing brand awareness)” (p. 44). This definition implies that sponsorship is starting to be thought of as a strategic as well as a tactical instrument (Walraven et al., 2012). A more recent extension of the definition was presented by Cornwell (1995) which states that sponsorship-linked marketing is “the orchestration and implementation of marketing activities for the purpose of building and communicating an association to a sponsorship” (p. 15). This definition means that just because a sponsorship contract has been signed, it does not mean that an automatic link is set within the consumers’ minds of a link between the sponsor and the sponsored (Walraven et al., 2012). Sponsorship has recently been stated as a strategic partnership

between a sport property and sponsor company (Meenaghan, McLoughlin, & McCormack, 2013).

Cornwell (1995) defined sponsorship-linked marketing as “the orchestration and implementation of marketing activities for the purpose of building and communicating an association to a sponsorship” (p. 15). Over the next two decades, Cornwell’s research focused beyond sports sponsorship to the entirety of properties where the promotional tool is used. These works recognized sponsorship as a promotional activity that provides a direct link between a sponsor’s offering of that sponsor via their interactions with a sponsored property, where sponsorship-linked marketing is the effort undertaken by stakeholders to communicate this link (Cornwell, 2008, Cornwell, Humphreys, Maguire, Weeks, & Tellegen, 2006; Nickell, Cornwell, & Johnson, 2011). Conwell, Weeks, and Roy (2005) introduced a consumer-focused sponsorship-linked marketing communications model that combines theorized sponsorship outcomes with market and management factors as well as individual and group level factors, which has served as a conceptual basis for much of the empirical work regarding sport sponsorship. Chadwick (2007) has argued that the transaction view where sponsorship is restricted to an exchange of money and rights is now a thing of the past. Sponsorship has shifted from a marketing tool to a business platform where the need for strategic collaboration and mutually beneficial outcomes for both the sponsor and sport property is seemingly more vital (Farrelly, 2010).

Facility Naming Rights Sponsorships

The upward trend in sports sponsorships sending is also observable in professional facility naming-rights deals. Stadium naming rights are defined as “a transaction in which money or consideration changes hands in order to secure the right to name a sports facility” (Thornburg, 2003, p. 2). With the financial magnitude and long-term contract of naming rights, this form of sponsorship has already been recognized as an excellent source of contractually obligated income and a critical element of the funding process for many facility construction projects (Crompton & Howard, 2003; McCarthy & Irwin, 1998). In such a partnership between two entities, the sport organization earns ongoing payment to fund stadium construction and to keep pace with escalating operation costs (Chen & Zhang, 2012). The sponsoring businesses obtain desired exposure and marketing opportunities (Clark, Cornwell, & Pruitt, 2012; Thornburg, 2003).

The purchase of stadium naming rights as a form of sponsorship has been seen as one of the most cost effective (McCarthy and Irwin, 2000). According to McCarthy and Irwin (2000), the two main reasons for companies to buy facility naming rights are the direct marketing opportunities and to generate company goodwill from the society. Naming rights research has revealed that that venue naming rights sponsorships offer partners a degree of visibility that other forms of sponsorship generally cannot provide (Fullerton & Merz, 2008).

While corporate naming agreements first began during the 1970s (Crompton & Howard, 2003), they did not become widespread in the United States until the late 1990s (Boyd, 2000). The earliest example of a facility naming rights agreement was when the

Schaefer Brewing Company purchased the rights to have its name attached to the National Football League's (NFL) New England Patriots' home field (Crompton & Howard, 2003). The number of sport venues that have been renamed has risen, as has the amount paid by corporations to do so (Hollis, 2008). The global market for naming rights is estimated at approximately \$4 billion (Kolah, n.d.). Today, more than 75% of North American major professional sport facilities are named after corporations (Schaul & Benson, 2013). Facility naming rights spending is also prevalent in intercollegiate athletics, with financially constrained athletic programs seeking ever-greater support from corporate sponsors and big-name donors willing to pay millions for the rights to name the latest stadium or arena after their brand or surname (Chen & Zhang 2012; Eder, Sandomir, & Miller, 2013; Greenberg, 2008, Tanner, 2001).

On the other hand, many large European football clubs have elected to sell corporate naming rights to player uniforms, but not to sell naming rights to their venues despite evidence suggesting such rights would be quite lucrative (Crompton & Howard, 2003). Prominent German soccer club Borussia Dortmund's Signal Iduna Park has held the name of a locally-based insurance company since 2005, but a significant number of fans (as high as 70%) still refuse to use the corporate name when referring to the stadium (Woisetchlarger, Haselhoff, & Backhaus, 2014). Similarly, many NCAA Division 1 athletic departments have forgone significant revenue from stadium naming rights (Tanner, 2001), possibly because of the belief that a naming-rights sponsorship could be met with resistance from fans who are concerned about the increasing commercialism in college sports (Bentubo, 2007; Zhang, Won, & Pastore, 2005).

Different from other forms of sponsorships, naming rights sponsorships are usually contacted for a much longer length of time. This long-term nature makes it easier for all parties involved to build stronger business connections with each other, leading this kind of marketing avenue to be more effective than short-term event sponsorships (Becker-Olsen, 2003; Clark et al., 2002). However, the length of stadium naming rights contracts reduces the availability of these unique marketing opportunities that were relatively few from the start (Chen & Zhang, 2012). By 2012, 84 of 121 teams in the four major professional sport leagues had reached venue sponsorship agreements with corporations (Munsey & Suppes, 2012). Since naming rights opportunities are limited and costs are so high in major league sports, a natural trend of growth would involve expanding beyond major league facilities into middle-tier markets, such as minor league and intercollegiate sports (McCarthy & Irwin, 1998).

There is a big difference in the financing or valuation of naming rights agreements in professional sports when compared to intercollegiate sports. Although eight-figure annual agreements are becoming the norm for professional sport facilities (“Naming rights deals”, 2011), naming rights deals in college sports only average approximately \$800,000 per year for football stadiums and \$900,000 for basketball arenas (Dosh, 2014). While these totals are substantially less than average for professional sport facilities, they are still significant. The largest intercollegiate football naming rights deal is a \$1.5 million annual agreement of the University of Houston’s new Texas Dow Employees Credit Union Stadium (Duarte, 2014), which represented a nearly 5% growth to University of Houston’s annual athletic revenues (“NCAA Finances”, 2014).

A benefit that corporations derive from acquiring the rights to name a stadium is that the corporation's name appears each time the facility is named in the press (Reysen & Snider, 2012). Newspapers use the corporate name 70% of the time a venue is referenced instead of the previous historical name, so awareness of the corporate name is high (Armstrong, 2004). Even local residents, when surveyed, give the corporate name 90% of the time (Fatsis, 1997). There are two primary motivations for corporations into naming rights deals: increased exposure and ability of the sponsorship to generate additional sales (Crompton & Howard, 2003). Turley and Shannon (2000) support this by stating that visitors to the sporting event will likely be there for a longer period of time and thus exposed to the ad for a longer period of time than more traditional forms of advertising, such as television commercials. Ford spent \$40 million to purchase the naming rights for Ford Field for over 20 years. The company received an estimated \$19.2 million of broadcast media value during the 2006 Super Bowl that was broadcasted on ABC. Ford received an estimated three minutes and 42 seconds of exposure, and the cost for a 30-second broadcast commercial spot in the game was \$2.6 million (Front Row Marketing, 2006).

There are conflicting findings in the area of naming rights effectiveness. Some scholars have observed notable increase in the stadium sponsor's stock price at the time of the announcement of the deal – an increase considerably larger than the return associated with other major marketing programs, such as Olympic sponsorships and celebrity endorsements (Clark, Cornwell, & Pruitt, 2002). On the other hand, Leeds, Leeds, & Pistolet (2007) found little evidence that there is a significant impact on the value of companies that bought naming rights, and no evidence that there was a

permanent, positive impact. Researchers have also found that a company's naming of a stadium does not influence consumer's purchase decisions of their products (Haan & Shank, 2004).

DeSchriver and Jensen (2003) attempted to develop a model that could predict the impact of key variables on the value of North American major league sport venue naming rights agreements. They examined 10 demand variables such as team success, newness of building, length of naming rights agreement, and local population. The researchers reported the variables of year in which agreement was signed, new team becoming a tenant in the facility, and local population, which all had a significant impact on the value of naming rights agreements. Gerrard, Parent, and Slack (2007) found a combination of numerous variables, including population, average household income, stadium capacity, diversity of events held in the facility, and type of anchor tenant, explained 83% of the variance in naming rights values of professional and collegiate sport facilities.

Consumer perceptions of goodwill are not only the major difference between sponsorship and advertising (Meenaghan, 1991; McDonald, 1991), they are also the major factor that contributes to sponsorship success (Alexandris, Tsaousi, & James, 2007; Bennett, 1999). Such perceptions about goodwill derive from the appreciation of individuals who believe that sponsorship can be a benefit to the event (or organization) with which it is involved (Meenaghan, 1991). Madrigal (2001) found that consumers who hold positive beliefs about sponsorships form a more positive attitude toward the sponsor than consumers who do not. Lee, Sandler, and Shani (1997) reported that sponsorship outcomes were influenced by both positive and negative beliefs in the minds of consumers of the Olympic Games. Chen and Zhang (2012) found that student's

beliefs about naming rights sponsorships were positively related to attitudes toward a sponsor.

Issues in Facility Naming Rights Sponsorships

Andersen (1995) noted that professional sport is probably the most commercialized sector of popular entertainment in American society because of the invasion of corporate sponsorships. Fans do not always react positively to corporate renaming of sport venues (Greenberg & Gray, 1996; Hollis, 2008). It has been suggested that a feeling of home (in this case, home stadium) can be a component of an individual's identity (Marcus, 2006). Belk (1988) explained that individuals may consider possessions and/or places as part of the extended self, and that the unintentional loss of such should be regarded as a loss or lessening of self. When spectators return to a stadium repeatedly over time, a sense of identification with a venue can be developed (Penny & Redhead, 2009). This love of place has been named topophilia (Bale, 1996; Ramshaw & Gammon, 2010). Home stadiums have been found to generate location pride, awareness, and geographic memories (Ramshaw & Gammon, 2010).

Bale (1996) suggested that stadium developers and planners have too often ignored the power of topophilia. Chen & Zhang (2012) found that fans who feel emotionally attached to a stadium indicated having more negative attitudes and intentions toward a potential sponsor. In recent years, conjecture in the media regarding potential sales of naming rights to historic stadiums, such as Wrigley Field and Yankee Stadium, were met with extreme contempt from Cubs and Yankees fans, with many indicating that they would never again attend a game if the name of the stadium was sold to a corporate

buyer (Dodd, 2008; Muret, 2010; Sandomir, 2008). In 2004, residents of San Francisco passed a proposition to replace the corporate name of the city's stadium with its historical title (Buchanan, 2008).

Facility naming rights agreements are a partnership between a corporation and the sport venue. The behavior of either entity can reflect poorly on the other (Popp, Eddy, & McEvoy, 2014). The Houston Astros endured consumer backlash due to their stadium naming rights agreement with Enron after the corporation's accounting scandal was made public in 2002 (Jensen & Butler, 2007). The Astros eventually paid \$2.1 million to buy the naming rights back (Crompton & Howard, 2003). In 2013, Florida Atlantic University sold its football stadium naming rights to prison management company GEO Group, sparking an outcry from students and the public and ultimately resulting in the company bowing out of the agreement (Patterson, 2013).

There is a potential negative impact caused by putting a corporate name on a facility shared by the community (Welch & Calabro, 1997). Boyd (2000) suggested that corporate naming of sport venues negatively affects city pride, as well as fan identification with the team. Corporate naming can cause a loss of distinctiveness for the city and the fans who identify with the team (Boyd, 2000). Administrators may also be concerned about devaluing the historical equity of venues by replacing current building names with corporate ones (Finley, 2010). Traditionally, sport stadiums were usually named after a local trait or person in a community to highlight the connection between the team, the facility, and the place (Boyd, 2000; Charcar & Hesterly, 2004). When looking at major league baseball stadiums who do not have naming rights sponsors, tradition and history seems to play a big part in this (New York Yankees, Boston Red

Sox, Los Angeles Dodgers, etc.). When a corporation places a name on a stadium, it reminds the people who attend a sporting event that the event is actually a business, and the fans are actually paying customers who are helping to market a corporate entity (Boyd, 2000).

Some researchers have recommended a cautious approach when determining whether to engage in naming rights agreements due to poor behavior by sponsoring firms (Jensen & Butler, 2007; Moorman, 2002) or because of public backlash due to corporate naming of venues with historic and nostalgic value to team supporters (Reysen, Snider, and Branscombe, 2012). Several researchers have found that fans have indicated potential anger and negativity toward hypothetical naming-rights sponsors, and subsequently indicated negative future intentions toward those brands (Chen & Zhan, 2012; Eddy, 2014; Reysen et al., 2012).

As with corporate sponsorships, there is a lack of research on the accurate valuation of facility naming rights. Bentubo (2007) attempted to gauge the value of a handful of high profile college football stadium naming rights, suggesting that the corporate naming of the University of Notre Dame's football stadium was worth \$6 million per year, while other universities with strong football programs such as the Ohio State University and University of Michigan could command between \$1.5 - \$2.5 million annually. DeSchraver and Jensen (2003) found that the year naming rights contracts were arranged, the new team becoming a facility tenant, and area population all significantly predicted facility naming rights values for major league team stadia. The same study by DeSchraver and Jensen (2003) found that the year naming rights were sold for a facility impact their value, with more recent deals commanding higher values even after

controlling for inflation. Gerrard et al. (2007) suggested that the age of a sport facility can have a negative impact on the value it can command in naming rights.

Popp, DeSchriver, McEvoy, and Diehl (2016) conducted a study in which the purpose was to create a hedonic framework to develop and refine an econometric model that can explain the relationship between certain variables and the value of naming rights, particularly in United States collegiate sports facilities. Football stadiums were seen as less valuable than arena naming rights, possibly because college football stadiums are typically single-purpose venues. The greater the attendance, the more sponsors were willing to pay for those additional impressions. This finding did contradict DeSchriver and Jensen (2003) who found no significant relationship between attendance and pro sport venue naming rights, in terms of valuation or impact.

Game Day Service Quality

From the customer's point of view, service quality is the first indicator of the company's performance, followed by satisfaction and perceived value, which influences customers' future intentions (Moreno, Hervas, Prado-Gasco, Nunez-Pomar, 2014). Service quality refers to the result of an evaluation process, an attitude concerning the superiority of the service based on a comparison between service expectations and perceptions of the outcomes (Gronroos, 1984; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996). Satisfaction is related to feeling of happiness and surprise in response to the service, which previous research has indicated is more emotional and somewhat more holistic (Oliver, 2014).

Previous literature has also pointed out that perceived quality of products is positively associated with consumers' satisfaction, which in turn predisposes consumers to make purchase decision (Carlson & O'Cass, Cronin & Taylor, 1992, Dagger & Sweeny, 2007; Lassar, Manolis, & Winson, 2000; Zeithaml, Bitner, & Gremler, 2014). In the context of sporting events, literature has consistently shown that customer satisfaction is significantly associated with future behavioral intention, such as attending future sporting events (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Kwon, Trail, & Anderson, 2005; Wakefield & Blodgett, 1996; Yoshida & James, 2010). Previous studies have also suggested that consumer satisfaction from consumption experiences is closely related to the development of consumers' identification (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Funk & James, 2001; Hur & Lee, 2004). Sport consumer's satisfaction has been shown to be a direct function of their overall perception of product or service (Theodorakis, Koustelios, Robinson, & Barias, 2009; Yoshida & James, 2010). By studying the relationship between quality, satisfaction, and future intentions, some studies in the field of sport management find that service quality predicts satisfaction (Greenwell, Fink, & Pastore, 2002; Tsuji, Bennett, & Zhang, 2007).

Ko, Zhang, Cattani, and Pastore (2011) concluded that service quality is important in both sports and sports management, especially in regards to consumer loyalty. Previous research has shown that individual attendance at sporting attendance is not merely predicted by the win-loss record of the sports team (Brady, Voorhees, Cronin, & Bourdeau, 2006). Once at a venue, the perceptions of service quality will impact on a spectator's satisfaction, which in turn influences re-patronage intentions (Wakefield & Sloan, 1995).

Theodorakis, Kambitsis, Laios, & Koustelios (2001) analyzed the quality perceived by basketball spectators and the importance of the dimensions of quality perceived by basketball satisfaction, thereby demonstrating the existence of a positive relationship between tangibles, reliability, and satisfaction. Greenwell et al. (2002) found that tangibles influence ice hockey spectators' satisfaction, while Yusof and See (2008) discovered the dimension known as sportscape, referring to location (Wakefield & Blodgett, 1995) significantly influences spectators' satisfaction. When studying the relationship between perceived value and other variables, satisfaction can be considered a consequence of value (Oliver, 2014; Sanchez & Iniesta, 2006). Moreno et al (2014) finds that perceived quality is an antecedent of perceived value, which supports earlier findings of Cronin et al. (2000) which revealed perceived quality to be an antecedent of service value.

H₀1: Game day service quality is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A1: Game day service quality is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

Valence

An attitude is based upon cognitive or affective features whereby negative information tends to have a greater impact on overall evaluations than comparably extreme positive information (Ajzen, 2001). The negativity bias occurs very early in the dealing out of new information since the information is being categorized into positive or

negative valence classes (Chen & Lurie, 2013). Valence reflects the degree to which the service outcome itself is perceived as good or bad (Brady and Cronin, 2001).

Previous research suggests service evaluations vary based on the valence of the outcome (Chen and Dubinsky, 2003; Sundaram and Webster, 2000) and the valence moderators can affect internal responses toward a service environment (Oakes, 2000). An assessment of whether an outcome was good or bad has a prominent effect on customer service evaluation (Brady et al., 2006). In service encounters, the actual outcome itself can be viewed as positive or negative and that this valence can influence service evaluations (Brady et al., 2006). For example, in a sporting event, if the team the consumer was rooting for won or loss, the outcome of the game would be the valence.

Outcome valence is described as a prerequisite for good service (Gronroos, 1998), which means that if the outcome of a service experience is perceived as adequate, the evaluative emphasis is placed on process dimensions such as functional quality and service environment quality (Brady et al., 2006). In some service contexts, outcome variance is difficult to control. At a sporting event, fans can be dissatisfied with the experience if their preferred team loses, regardless of the quality of the staff and service environment (i.e. the stadium or arena) (Brady et al., 2006). Brady et al. (2006) found that the effect of valence on satisfaction was indeed stronger than the effects of the service quality, particularly in a sporting event context.

Valence ties into Zillman, Bryant and Spolo's (1989) disposition which suggests that sport fans derive enjoyment from watching their favorite team succeed and watching a disliked team fail. Swanson et al. (2003) found that subjects motivated by a desire to establish and sustain a positive self-concept were likely to attend sporting events and, to a

lesser event, share those experiences with others through word of mouth communications. Word of mouth is likely dependent on team success. Fans with high self-esteem enhancement motivations would seek to increase their motivation with a team, particularly a winning team (Swanson et al., 2003).

H₀2: Valence is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A2: Valence is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

Team Identification

Customer loyalty has been referred to in the literature as a favorable attitude and consistent purchase behavior toward a particular brand (Wilkie, 1994), which can be interpreted as a function of perceived product superiority, social bonding and their synergic effect (Oliver, 2014). In a sports context, team loyalty represents a form of psychological connection to a team resulting in consistent and enduring positive behaviors and attitudes toward a team (Funk & James, 2001). Attitudinal loyalty is a function of the psychological processes including the commitment and attitudinal preference of a person toward the team (Bauer, Stokburger-Sauer, & Exler, 2008; Kaynak, Salman, & Tatoglu, 2008). The most common measures of attitudinal loyalty in sponsorship studies are fan involvement and team identification (Alexandris, Douka, Bakaloumi, & Tsasousi, 2008; Chen & Zhang, 2011). Fan involvement refers to the perceived interest and personal importance of a sport activity to an individual (Ko et al.,

2008; Shank & Beasley, 1998), while team identification represents the extent to which a fan believes the team is an extension of his or herself (Theodorakis, Wann, & Weaver, 2012; Wann, Melnick, Russell, & Pease, 2011).

A study conducted by Biscaia, Correia, and Rosado (2013) found a statistically significant relationship between attitudinal loyalty and attitude toward sponsor. This finding was supported by prior literature that indicated that fans' attachment to a team plays a pivotal role on developing favorable dispositions toward the sponsors (Madrigal, 2001), and highlights the importance of sports fans as an attractive target group for corporations aiming to engage in sponsorship programs (Hong, 2011). Attitudinal loyalty was also found to be significant in predicting purchase intentions for sponsors (Biscaia et al., 2013), which supported previous literature that fans with a strong attachment to the team are likely to buy products of the sponsors (Madrigal, 2001).

Abrams and Hogg (2006) think that the support for the home team is more than an act, it is a part of identification with that team and/or what it represents. Fan identification with a team is heavily influenced by social categorization (Martinez & Janney, 2015), which Turner and Tajfel (1986) described as that which delineates the discrimination of intergroup support, allowing the in-group to collectively not support the other group. Researchers have found a positive relationship between team identification and cognitive, affective, and behavior sponsorship outcomes (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Madrigal, 2001). Long-term sponsorship, although typically enacted for profit generating process, may indirectly contribute to a consumer's team identity (Delia, 2014), which has been suggested to encourage the well-being of an individual (Wann, 2006). Delia (2014) found that sponsorships may allow companies to ride the wave of fan loyalty.

Irwin and Asimakopoulos (1992) suggested that sponsors are more attracted to invest in sport teams with a strong bond with their fans, given that goodwill toward the team can be transferred to the sponsors' brands or products (Madrigal, 2001). Meenaghan (2001) suggests that sponsor's investment in professional sport teams generates a goodwill effect among fans, which in turn influences their attitudes and behaviors toward the sponsor. Parker and Fink (2010) contend that once the relationship between team and sponsor is established, the sponsor becomes a member of a tight network of fans. Previous research has suggested that sponsors want to observe fans having the same positive reaction regarding the sponsorship as they have toward their team (Madrigal, 2001; Shaw & McDonald, 2006). Parker and Fink (2010) and Hong (2011) maintain that being a fan of a team contributes positively to the attitude toward the sponsor, given that the goodwill that fans feel toward the team can be transferred to the sponsoring brand via team-sponsor association (Madrigal, 2001). Other studies have highlighted that attitudes toward sponsors are influenced by consumers' identification with the team or sport (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008; Schlesinger & Gungerich, 2011).

Identification is important in the context of fan behavioral intentions because individuals that are high in identification tend to have better attendance and purchasing habits than lowly identified fans (Judson & Carpenter, 2005; Matsouka, Chelladurai, & Harada, 2003; Sutton, McDonald, Milne, & Cimperman, 1997). Team identification has also been found to have a positive relationship with sponsor recognition, attitudes toward sponsors, and sponsor purchase intentions (Davies, Veloutsou, & Costa, 2006; Dees, Bennett, & Villegas, 2008; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Kim & Kim, 2009; Madrigal, 2000, Pope & Voges, 2000; Smith, Graetz, & Westerbeek, 2008; Zhang et al., 2005).

Previous literature has also suggested that team identification is an important predictor of various attitudes and behavioral intentions relative to naming rights agreements (Chen & Zhang, 2012; Reysen et al., 2012).

Reysen, Snider, and Branscombe (2012) conducted a study in which the purpose was to examine the effect of corporate renaming of a sport venue and degree of team identification of fans' anger, and to assess whether perceived threat to the distinctiveness of the team mediated this interaction. The researchers used an experimental research design where participants were randomly assigned one of four hypothetical situations in which a large corporation had donated money to a historical college basketball arena. The results showed that, compared with when the stadium name remained the same, highly identified fans believed the name change would harm the distinctiveness of the team, which resulted in greater felt anger. However, the degree of anger might not be enough to significantly affect fans' intentions, particularly highly identified fans, to continue attending games and purchasing team merchandise (Eddy, 2014).

H₀3: Team identification is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A3: Team identification is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

Perception of Financial Status

Although commercial support is necessary in order for sports to be successful ventures, it should be noted that there is growing concern about the over-commercialization of sports (Zhang et al., 2005). For example, Lee et al. (1997) indicated that increased marketing activities in the Atlanta Olympic Games caused considerable discussion about over-commercialization and the loss of the Games' amateur nature. Consumers' attitudes toward commercialization reflect their reaction to these excessive marketing activities, which may also affect their attitudes toward events and sponsors (Lee et al., 1997). Corporations choose to sponsor sport events as a marketing communication to facilitate brand image building (Lee et al. 1997; Shanklin & Kuzma, 1992). However, it has been found that consumers negatively respond to sponsors who excessively promote or market products in sport events. Excessive commercial activities can cause negative image transfer (Zhang et al., 2005).

The vast majority of the research conducted with attitude toward commercialization has been done with college sports. Attitudes towards commercialism in college sport has been defined as "one's cognitive and affective reaction to the excessive commercialization utilization of intercollegiate athletics with an undue emphasis on profit" (Zhang, Won, & Pastore, 2005, p. 178). Corporate sponsorship is considered by some to be an especially destructive element to the egalitarian nature of amateurism (McAllister, 1998). Zhang et al. (2005) measured the impact of college students' attitudes toward commercialization of an intercollegiate athletic program and found that attitudes toward commercialization significantly explained 12% of the variance. Chen and Zhang (2012) found that students who thought less favorable about

commercialization in college sports were more likely to possess negative attitudes toward the sponsor and its products.

Although naming rights deals can increase revenue and close the gap in disparity in revenue between successful and non-successful team, especially in collegiate sports, there is a potential for fan backlash as naming rights are sometimes viewed as a more commercialized activity compared to other forms of sponsorship (Eddy, 2014; Woisetchlager et al., 2014). Zhang et al. (2005) identified a subgroup of college sport fans that are highly identified, but appear to be concerned with the increasing commercialism in college sports to the point of having an adverse effect on purchase intentions. Woisetchlager et al. (2014), through the lens of the social identity theory, reported that fans can perceive naming rights sponsorships as the out-group encroaching on the ritual place of the in-group.

Collegiate and professional teams might be able to overcome most of the resistance toward corporate naming rights sponsorships when people are convinced that corporate support is essential, especially when fans consider that their favorite team is losing its impact because of a budget or financial shortage (Wolf, 2007). Since the pressure to build a winning team comes partially from the expectations of fans, communicating that financial shortage is one of the major obstacles for higher achievement that would make fans more encouraged to embrace a corporate naming rights sponsorship (Chen & Zhang, 2012). Chen & Zhang (2012) found that, when surveying students, that they generally did not recognize the financial difficulty of the athletic programs and consider financial support for a sponsorship necessary.

H₀4: Fan perception of the team's financial status is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A4: Fan perception of the team's financial status is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

Previous Experience with Sponsor

Prior experience with a service or product has a substantial impact on brand-choice for subsequent purchases of the service, as the main evaluation occurs after consumption (Zeithaml, 1981). Thus, attitudes towards the brand are primarily formed after the first purchase (Bennett, Hartel, & McColl-Kennedy, 2005). Speed and Thompson (2000) stated that a consumer's response to a brand sponsoring a sporting event can be affected by her or his prior experience with the brand. Dean (2002) suggested that consumers' different prior attitudes toward the sponsoring brand influence the degree of attitude changes.

H₀5: Previous experience with the sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A5: Previous experience with the sponsor is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

Attitude Toward Sponsor

The overall attitude toward a product or brand is formed based on a number of attitudes toward each of the product attributes (Robertson, 1970). The development of a

favorable attitude toward the sponsor is suggested in the literature as a pivotal factor for sponsorship effectiveness (Alexandris, Tsaousi, & James, 2007; Chen & Zhang, 2011; Speed & Thompson, 2000) and the theory of planned behavior provides a theoretical foundation to this notion. Attitudes can be formed through direct experiences with an entity or exposure to knowledge and messages (Albarracin, Johnson, & Zanna, 2014). They evaluate, give meaning and distinguish concepts from each other. According to the expectancy model developed by Fishbein & Ajzen (1975), these evaluative meanings occur in response to new information and inform the beliefs about the entity. Each belief links the entity with a certain feature and a person's overall attitude is determined by the subjective values of the entity's features in interaction with the strengths of these links (Ajzen, 2001). Another way to explain it is that a person's beliefs about an object represent the basis of his/her attitude toward the object, with beliefs being viewed as the linkages between an attitude-object and its attributes, characteristics, outcome, goal, or value (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

Sponsorships are intended to trigger individual consumer's reactions that transcend monetary return and this encompasses the development of individuals' positive attitudes toward a brand through involvement in the sponsored activities (Visenti et al., 2016). Positive attitudes toward a brand typically build more slowly over time (Visentin & Scarpi, 2012), and usually span a much longer time horizon than a typical event sponsorship, which is why the length of time of a facility naming rights sponsorship comes into play. It may take years for sponsors to fully realize value of the sponsorship as a shift in consumer attitude toward the sponsor's brand can require a long-term association between the two parties (Speed & Thompson, 2000). Exposure is one thing,

but what really matters is the impact of exposure (Shilbury, Westerbeek, Quick & Funk, 2009). Firms engaging in sponsorship activities are expecting to see sport consumers having the same positive feelings regarding sponsorship brand as they have toward their team (Shaw & McDonald, 2006), and sport consumers tend to have favorable attitudes toward the sponsor if they believe that the sponsorship is important to the team (Madrigal, 2001; Cornwell, Humphreys, Maguire, Weeks, & Tellegen, 2006).

Alexandris et al. (2007) suggests that sponsor's favorability and transfer of goodwill are the specific consumer attitudes that are targeted with sponsorship activities and past research has suggested that attitude toward the sponsor is an important predictor of purchase intentions (Koo, Quarterman, & Flynn, 2006; Speed & Thompson, 2000).

While team identification can affect attitudes toward the sponsor itself, fan involvement has had a lesser impact on purchase intentions than has attitudes toward the sponsor itself, or the belief that the sponsors offered, or the belief that the sponsors offered important support to the team (Dees et al., 2008).

Biscaia et al. (2013) found that attitude toward the sponsor showed a significant positive effect on the intentions to purchase products of that sponsor confirming previous studies (Madrigal, 2001; Schlesinger & Gungerich, 2011; Speed & Thompson, 2000).

This is consistent with the idea that consumer attitude toward the sponsor is more meaningful than pure awareness in predicting sales (Crompton, 2004). Sponsorship activity can change consumers' responses to a specific organization, resulting in the development of positive attitudes toward the sponsor, which can then lead to increased consumer willingness to buy the sponsor's products (Harvey, Gray, & Despain, 2006). Literature supports the idea that there is a positive relationship between attitudes toward

sponsorship and sponsor behavioral intentions (Alexandris et al., 2007; Chen & Zhang, 2012, Dees et al., 2008; Eddy, 2014).

Measuring Sponsorship Effectiveness

Marketing scholars and industry professionals have emphasized the importance of measuring the effectiveness of sport sponsorship (for the sponsor and sponsee) in regard to its cognitive, affective and behavioral outcomes among sport consumer (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005). Numerous scholars have taken interest in theoretical explanations of sponsorship effectiveness in relation to consumers as a result of the cognitive, affective, and behavior outcomes of sponsorship (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005; Nickell, Cornwell, & Johnston, 2011; Speed & Thompson, 2000). In an attempt to understand how sponsorship benefits sponsor companies, as well as sport teams, researchers have theorized on how sport consumption relates to sponsorship effectiveness (Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Cornwell et al., 2005). Measures of sponsorship outcome in a practical setting allow sport industry to justify expenditures on corporate sponsorships by showing a return on investment or meeting particular objectives (Stotlar, 2004). Neither academic nor industry professionals have been able to crack the black box (Cornwell et al., 2005) of sponsorship, or understand how sport consumers process or consider sponsor information before exhibiting measurable cognitive, affective, and behavioral outcomes. Cornwell et al. (2005) were the first researchers to provide a general consumer-focused model of sponsorship information processing. However, research has shown that most sponsorship information either fails to gain attention (d'Ydewalle & Tasmin, 1993) or is not correctly stored in mind (Pham & Johar, 2001).

There are limited measures for sponsorship evaluation available, and what literature is available contains conflicting results (Stotlar, 2004). These shortcomings are even more pronounced in the context of naming rights sponsorships, as there is limited research on the effectiveness of naming rights, what literature is available contains conflicting results (McCarthy & Irwin, 1998; Nagel, 1999). Eddy (2014) found that participants held quite positive attitudes toward sponsorships in general, but held generally negative intentions to purchase sponsor products. This lends support to the position that naming rights sponsorships can be measured using minimally adapted sponsorship scales, but must still be examined separately from other forms of sponsorship (Eddy, 2014).

There is evidence that some firms are investing vast sums to activate sport sponsorships internally to build corporate identity, employee identification, and performance over the long term (Farrelly & Greyser, 2007; Rogan, 2008).

Jacobs, Pallav, and Surana (2014) stated that researchers should take a comprehensive approach and avoid studying the effects of sponsorships on return on investment alone, in order to understand which features of sponsorship within the overall communication strategy of the sponsor brand. Recently, sport management researchers have acknowledged that studying the effects of sponsorships is indeed limited, as it would overlook the whole process between consumers' experience of the sponsorship and their behavior (Visentin, Scarpi, & Pizzi, 2016). Meenaghan (2013) stated that the measurement deficit raises fundamental questions about the strategic management of sponsorship. Because of this gap between the investment required by sponsorships and the relative lack of measures of individual level outcomes (Thjomoe, Olson, & Bronn, 2002), sponsors' decisions too often seem based upon faith, rather than objective

measurable results (Cornwell & Kwak, 2015). Sponsorship has been researched in multiple, heterogeneous contributions that have looked at either a stock market perspective (Bouchet, Doellman, Troilo, & Walkup, 2015; Martinez & Janney, 2015) or a consumer perspective related to a fans' engagement with the brand (Chavanat, Martinet, & Ferrand, 2009), word-of-mouth (Lau & Ng, 2001), memory (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005), and social buzz (Delia & Armstrong, 2015), while other studies have included elaborate performance metrics related to cost per reach, long-term brand associations and awareness (Jacobs et al., 2014).

Early studies that specifically explored the wealth effects of official sponsorships have yielded inconsistent results. Mishra et al. (1997) found a positive impact of sponsorship announcements when they examined 76 national and international sponsorships of arenas, Olympics, concerts, and charities. Miyazaki and Morgan (2001) and Farrell and Frame (1997) both examined the 1996 Summer Olympics in Atlanta and came up with differing results. The former found statistically significant increases in stock prices, while the latter found a negative impact on stock prices. Cornwell, Pruitt, and Clark (2005) explored the relationships between sponsorship announcements and stock prices in professional sports leagues. Their central finding notes an increase in shareholder wealth associated with the announcement of the sponsorship. Clark, Cornwell, and Pruitt (2009) explored the impact of title event sponsorship announcements on shareholder wealth. The researcher found that title sponsorships appear to trade largely at market clearing prices. There was also a correlation between sponsorship by high tech firms and large firms and perceived sponsorship success. Bouchet et al. (2015) examined the internationalizing aspect of sponsorship on

shareholder wealth, or the impact that international football matches have on the stock market returns of sponsoring firms. Their main finding was that sponsorship of international football matches does indeed create shareholder value for the sponsoring firms, and is enhanced if the sponsoring firm backs a football club that already enjoys a high profile.

Visentin, Scarpi, and Pizzi (2016) conducted a study in which the purpose was to advance a more comprehensive model of sponsorship effects which accounted for both the various causal relations that the literature provided up to now, as well as to answer the call for actual data on the responses to sponsorship activities (Athanaspoloulo & Sarli, 2015; Biscaia, Correria, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013) with a specific focus on purchasing behaviors (Chavanat et al., 2009). The researchers developed a three-stage model (assessment, elaboration, behavior) that attempts to reshape the funnel through individuals are driven from assessment of the sponsorship to in-store behavior, passing through brand associations. The researchers collected survey responses from a large European outlet center that had both a Nike and an Adidas flagship store. The findings confirmed the three-stage model, as well as showing that a fit-based sponsorship route get a boost in brand attitudes and thus increases sales and WOM generation. The finding also shows that sponsors should be focused more on the long-term effects on sponsorships, rather than solely focusing on the short-term effects.

Cobbs, Tyler, Jensen, and Chan (2016) conducted a research study that looked at the resource-based view of sponsorship management by evaluating the heterogeneity of resources accessed by the sponsored sport organizations in relation to its competitive survival. The authors collected historical data on F1 team existence and alliances with

sponsor forms from 1950 through 2007 and employed survival analysis modeling methodology. The authors found that by accessing either performance or financial resources through sponsors, F1 teams were able to reduce their odds of dissolution by over 65%. While the study's findings provided evidence to support the contention that sponsorships offering performance-based resources are effective survival tools in this context, the impact of such sponsorships appears to weaken as teams gain experience. F1 teams become more self-sufficient and less reliant on external sources for a competitive performance advantage as maturing teams develop internal performance competencies over time (Levitt and March, 1988).

Branding

Researchers on brand placement have applied three main theories to explain the effects on consumers' memory and brand attitude (Cowley, 2012). The theory of mere exposure helps to explain brand placement in which consumers are exposed to brand stimuli in a subtle manner triggering perceptual fluency (Nadeau, O'Reilly, Cakmak, Heslop, & Verwey, 2016). Perceptual fluency is based on the assumption that the processing of stimuli becomes increasingly easier as consumers experience increased exposure (Tulving & Schacter, 1990). This encourages a positive affective response which is transferred to the evaluation of the brand that was placed into the entertainment context, meaning that the mere exposure effects will be greater with more repetition and lesser known brands will see a greater benefit from these subtle placements than more familiar brands (Cowley, 2012). The theory of conditioning is used to explain the effect of brand placements based on continued pairing of the brand with an unconditioned

stimulus such as an affective-laden character or situation (d'Astous & Cartier, 2000). The affective response then transfers to the brand after repeated exposure in the direction of the stimulus for a more familiar brand (Gibson, 2008), or the development of a new image for less-known brands (Strick, van Baaren, Holland, & van Kaippenberg, 2009). This process can, and usually does, happen without any actual intent by the consumer to process the information from the stimulus (Cunningham, Raye, & Johnson, 2004). The third theory explains brand placement effects when the brand has a prominent placement. Brand stimulus is cognitively processed leading to changes in brand attitudes (Van Reijmersdal, Neijns, & Smith, 2007). This process may be used by consumers to make affective adjustments in their attitudes, or to learn about new ways of using a product (Cowley, 2012).

A firm's engagement in a sport sponsorship agreement heightens both brand exposure and access to its products among sport fans, providing the opportunity to bring previously distant stakeholders into close proximity (Cunningham, Cornwell, Coote, 2009). Some marketing researchers have suggested that the sporting event image can be linked with and transferred to a brand image through sponsoring activities (Gwinner, 1997, 2005; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999, Keller, 1993) However, both academics and managers are skeptical about the marketing effectiveness of sponsorships compared with alternative communications (Lardinoit & Derbaix, 2001; Olson & Thjomoe, 2009). Similar to a celebrity endorsement in advertising, targeted consumers can be indirectly persuaded by sponsorship activities because they tend to associate the image of a sporting event with the sponsoring event with the sponsoring brand (Keller 1993; McCracken, 1989). In line with this, Gwinner (2005) suggested that the sporting event associations

retained in the mind of the consumer can also be transferred to the sponsor's brand, and serviced by pairing consumer knowledge of a sporting event with a brand.

Brand Awareness

The awareness of a sponsor is a widely accepted mechanism used for assessing the effectiveness of a sponsorship program (Miloch & Lambrecht, 2006; Walsh, Kim, & Ross, 2008). One of the most important objectives of sponsorship is to enhance corporate image and increase brand awareness (Gross, Javalgi, & Taylor, 1994). A solid awareness of a sponsor is crucial to increase brand equity (Keller, 1993), as well as to avoid the ambush marketing tactics of competitors (O'Reilly, Nadeau, Seguin, & Harrison). The concept of brand awareness refers to a consumer's ability to identify the brand under different conditions, and consists of brand recall and brand recognition performance (Keller, 1993). Simply put, brand awareness can be thought of as a buyer's ability to recognize and identify a brand within a certain category in enough detail to make a purchase of that brand. (Percy & Rossiter, 1992). Aaker (1996) states that brand recall is related to the consumer's ability to retrieve from memory the brand name without any mention of product category or other brands, while brand recognition relates to the consumer's ability to remember past exposure to a brand when provided brand cues. Brand awareness will affect purchase decision through brand association (Keller, 1993)

As stated by Keller (1993), brand awareness is related to brand equity. If you are able to raise awareness of your brand among customers, the likelihood of it entering the consumer's evoked set is increased. Consumers' evoked sets are those brands that

consumers seriously consider before making a purchase (Jobber, 2007). Because of this, brand equity is a way to measure the strength of the brand in the marketplace by adding tangible value to a company through the resulting sales and profits. There are two types of brand equity: customer-based brand equity which resides in the mind of consumers and consists of brand awareness and brand image. The second type is propriety-based brand equity which is based on assets that are attributes to the company and consists of patents and channel relationships (Jobber, 2007).

Brand awareness is important because the awareness of a persuasion attempt invokes a different mental process for the consumer (McCarty & Lowry, 2012). Aware consumers engage in a persuasive knowledge model of effects which then critically processes information provided in the brand placement (Nadeau et al., 2016). While the typical advantage of brand placement for marketers is the avoidance of the persuasion knowledge model, this cognitive engagement can be triggered when the paced brand gains too much prominence bringing it from the background to the foreground (Cowley, 2012). Sponsorship can benefit firms by increasing brand awareness and by also increasing positive affect about the firm and its brands (Clark, Cornwell, & Pruitt, 2002). Lopez (2002) found that a naming rights agreement can increase brand awareness upwards of 80% in a community.

Crompton (2004) refers to sponsorship awareness as being the first stage in the sequence of sponsorship benefits, because to be effective with target audiences, sponsorship must first be known to exist (Farrelly et al., 2005). If awareness is not the first thing to be achieved, sponsors cannot meet their subsequent objectives (Biscaia, Correria, & Rosado, 2013). Brand awareness is critical to achieving broader strategic

objectives since consumers may feel better about the brand because of the effect triggered through exposure inside the stadium (O'Reilly et al., 2007).

Committed fans may be more likely than the average sport consumer to become aware of the sponsors' brand (Ko et al., 2008; Miloch & Lambrecht). However, it is the repeated exposure to the messages during the games at the stadium that likely determines the ability to recall a brand as a team sponsor (Biscaia et al., 2013). This highlights that role of having naming rights in the stadium stands and displaying brand's logo on team shirts (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2004; Chen & Zhang, 2011), since both sponsors used in the Biscaia et al. (2013) study used those sponsorship activation strategies. This aligns with the idea that awareness increases as a function of exposure (Walliser, 2003). Canon raised its brand awareness on their brand name from 40 to 85 percent among males when choosing to sponsor football in the United Kingdom (Jobber, 2007). On the other hand, Haan and Shank (2004) found that the vast majority of their respondents could only name four or less NFL stadiums using unaided recall.

H₀6: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the sponsor brand awareness.

H_A6: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the sponsor brand awareness.

Brand Image

Keller (1993) stated that brand image consists of brand associations and other informal connections linked to the brand's connections in the consumer's memory.

Image can be defined as the sum of beliefs, attitudes, and impressions that a consumer or group of consumers holds for a company (Barich & Kotler, 1991). An image of a sponsoring company exists in individuals' minds, and a single company does not have a universal corporate image (Brown & Dacin, 1997). Individual perception of products and services are influenced by image, and image should serve a critical role within an organization's marketing communication (Dichter, 1985). Image can be used as a marketing tool to provide an organization with the opportunity to differentiate from competitors, enhance the perceived value of an organization's products and services, and attract and retain customers (Howard, 1998). Research suggests that image can impact consumer product judgements and responses in a positive manner (Keller & Aaker, 1992).

There has been previous research on the concept of image transfer, in which sponsorship is used to transfer images from one entity (the sponsee) to another (the sponsor) via the sponsorship (Gwinner, Larson, & Swanson, 2009). According to Gwinner (1997), sponsorship can be used to associate certain characteristics of the type of activity that is sponsored, such as sports, arts, or public events. The purpose of this is to transfer the image and characteristics of the event or facility or team to the corporate brand. The goal is to transfer the meanings customers attending a sporting event have to that event, to a brand or company (Gwinner, 1997).

Cornwell and Maignan (1998) stated that enhancing brand image is included as a typical goal for using sponsorship as a marketing tool. Improvement of corporate image is a distinct objective of sponsorship, and sponsorship can have a positive, long-term impact on corporate image (Rajaretnam, 1994). This effect can differ based on the

company, as well as the type of sponsorship (Javalgi, Taylor, Gross, & Lampman, 1994). According to Cornwell and Maignan (1998), in order for brand image to be affected by sponsorship, a brand's connections have to have been established in the memory of customers. This influences how different kinds of information can become attached to the brand in memory. Sponsorship seeks to build an association or link between the sponsored event, team or stadium to the brand (Andersson & Karlsson, 2014).

H₀7: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the sponsor brand image.

H_A7: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the sponsor brand image.

Brand Identity

Brands, as carriers of symbolic meanings (Levy, 1959), can help consumers achieve their fundamental identity goals and projects (Belk, 1988; Escalas & Bettman, 2014; Fournier, 2009; Ratneshwar, Mick, & Huffman, 2003; Holt, 2005). Stokburger-Sauer, Ratneshwar, and Sen (2012) define brand identification as a consumer's perceived state of oneness with a brand. Lam, Ahearne, Hu & Schillewaert (2010) define brand identification as a customer's psychological state of perceiving, feeling, and valuing his or her belongingness with a brand. Consumer-brand identification is understood as the individual consumer's perception of similarity between the brand and the consumer (Bagozzi & Dholakia, 2006; Bergami & Bagozzi, 2000). Stokburger-Sauer (2010) assumed that consumer-brand identification positively influences satisfaction with the

brand and thus represents the basis for added consumption value (Fournier, 1998). A strong consumer-brand identification has a positive effect on satisfaction, loyalty, and advocacy (Stokburger-Sauer, 2010).

Most definitions of consumer's identification with a brand derive from the social identity theory based on social psychology (Tuskej, Golob, & Podnar, 2011). The need for identification is thought to be motivated by one or more higher-order self-definitional needs (Brewer, 1991; Kunda, 1999; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Kim, Congchul, and Aeung-Bae (2001) define the level of consumer-brand identification as the degree to which the brand expresses and enhances consumers' identity to which the brand expresses and enhances consumers' identity. Belen del Rio, Vazquez, and Iglesias (2001) and Carlson, Suter, and Brown (2008) distinguish between personal identification and social identification function of the brand. Personal identification function means that consumers can identify with a specific brand and develop feelings of affinity towards the brand, whereas social identification refers to the brands ability to act as a communication instrument allowing consumers to manifest the desire to integrate with or to dissociate from the groups of individuals that make up their closest social environment (Belen del Rio et al., 2001). According to Carlson et al. (2008), personal identification with a brand refers to the degree of overlap between an individual's self-schema and the schema s/he holds for a brand. Brand identification conveys and enhances the transfer of brand effects from brand personality to attitudinal loyalty (He, Li, & Harris, 2012; Iglesias, Singh, & Batista-Foget, 2011; Sirgy et al., 2008). Brand identification conveys the effects of brand personality on behavioral brand loyalty (Carlson & Donovan, 2013; He et al., 2012). Donavan, Janda, and Suh (2006) explored the idea of brand

identification in the context of a sports franchise and found that it led to heightened self-esteem and an increased propensity to purchase brand-related merchandise for personal use and for others.

H₀8: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the sponsor brand identity.

H_A8: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the sponsor brand identity.

Future Behavioral Intentions

Intention to purchase a product unfolds as a function of the beliefs and attitudes that individuals develop with respect to the sponsor (Lee & Cho, 2009; Lobo, Meyer, & Chester, 2014). Purchase intentions are not the same as actual purchase behaviors, yet consumers' intentions are vital in guiding their behaviors (Ajzen, 2011). Purchase intentions refer to the person's conscious plan in exerting an effort to purchase a brand (Spears & Singh, 2004). Dees, Bennett, and Villegas (2008) suggest that purchase intentions represent an indicator of an individual's motivation to make a specific purchase behavior.

From a sponsor's perspective, consumer purchase intention is the most useful indicator of sponsorship effectiveness given its impact on future sales (Crompton, 2004). The intention to purchase sponsors' products is a focal indicator for sport entities to legitimize their relationships with actual sponsors and to negotiate future sponsorship contracts (Hong, 2011). Various research has focused on how attitudes toward the

sponsorship relates to customers' responses (Bennett, Cunningham & Dees, 2006; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Tsiotsuo & Alexandris, 2009). Attitudes translate into behaviors, including WOM and purchase behaviors (Delia & Armstrong, 2015). Intention to purchase the sponsor brand is not determined exclusively by sponsorship-related factors (such as individual attitude toward the sponsorship); it is also influenced by sponsor-related factors (such as individual attitudes toward the sponsors, e.g. Biscaia et al., 2013).

A fan's response to the sponsor passes through a series of stages, from first becoming aware of the sponsor, to finally adopting purchase intentions and behaviors toward the products (Meenaghan, 2001). Fans' awareness toward the sponsor, and purchase intention is subsequent to that positive attitude (Schlesinger & Gungerich, 2011). Several studies have used purchase intention as the final indicator to evaluate sponsorship effectiveness (Alexandris et al, 2007; Madrigal, 2001). However, most studies refer to generic sponsors, rather than focusing on actual sponsors associated with a team (Hong, 2011).

Ko, Kim, Claussen, & Kim (2008) noted that consumers' involvement with the sport had a significant role on purchase intentions toward generic sponsors' products, while Lee, Harris, & Lyberger (2011) suggest that sport consumers with higher attendance frequency are more likely to buy products from generic sponsors of an event. These studies were based on the idea that the stronger the link with the team, the more the fans might feel it is their duty to purchase the sponsors' product as a way to repay the sponsoring brands for supporting the team (Crimmins & Horn, 1996). Studies have continued to find that corporate sponsorship of sport teams lead to greater intention to

buy the sponsor's product (Pope & Voges, 2000) as well as actual increases in purchasing behavior (Shannon & Turley, 1997). However, Haan and Shank (2004) found that a company's naming of a stadium does not influence consumer's purchase decisions of their products.

Conative response can be defined as "the person's motivation in the sense of his or her conscious plan to exert effort to carry out a behavior" (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Willingness to attend future games can be defined as a conative response towards the sponsee in this study, in order to see whether any negative or positive effect exists toward the team/facility participating in a corporate naming rights agreement. Chen and Zhang (2012) found that fans' willingness to attend future games was predicted by their identification to the team and stadium and not likely impacted by their feelings of commercialism. The same study found that attitudes toward the sponsorship showed a positive impact on willingness to attend sporting events in this study.

H₀9: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the consumers' future behavioral intentions.

H_A9: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the consumers' future behavioral intentions.

Perceived Fit

There is support within previous sponsorship research that perceived congruence between property and sponsor is essential for a positive brand evaluation as a result of the pairing (O'Reilly & Lafrance Horning, 2013). If there is no shared schema between the

brands, then the pairing may elicit dissonance, causing a negative evaluation of the pairing (Chien, Cornwell & Pappu, 2011). Congruence has been defined as the degree to which the direct or indirect relevance between the sponsor and the event exists (McDonald, 1991). The fit, or congruence, between a sponsor and an event is considered an antecedent of individual response to the sponsorship and has been consistently considered the key starting point (Meng-Lewis, Thwaites, & Gopalakrishna, 2013, Rifon, Choi, Trimble, & Li, 2004; Roy & Cornwell, 2004; Ruth & Simonin, 2003). Functional fit describes the perceptions of relatedness that is developed between the sponsor and sponsored activity (Grohs, Wagner, & Vsetecka, 2004). The match between a sporting event and a sponsoring event and a sponsoring brand is critical to convey the right message to the right consumers (Crimmins & Horn, 1996; McDaniel, 1999). Matching a brand with the right type of endorsement will create positive outcomes such as a more positive outcome such as a more positive attitude towards the brand and a higher brand recall (Gwinner, 1997). If the image associated with a particular sporting event is mismatched with the lifestyles and interests of the target market, the sponsor fails to reach the target consumers and to convey the proper message or associations (Crimmins & Horn, 1996). Previous studies have found that the nature of the relationship between a brand and a sporting event and the association of a certain product category with a certain sporting event can influence the degree of congruence (Cornwell, 1995; McDaniel, 1999).

The higher the perceived fit between sponsor and object, the greater the effects observed (Gwinner, 1997). The greater the perceived fit between the brand associations of the sponsor and that being sponsored, the greater the transfer potential of those

associations (Smith, 2004). Individuals assess fit based on either functional or symbolic dimension (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008), so that the greater the fit between the event and the brand, the higher the likelihood that these dimensions are transferred from the event to the brand (McDaniel, 1999; Olson & Thjomoe, 2011), and the greater the effects (Olson, 2010). Fit has been related to credibility (Rifon et al., 2004). Wolfsteiner, Grohs, and Wagner (2015) suggested that the perceived brand-event fit determines the extent to which individuals are able to correctly identify the sponsoring brand, thus triggering in the mind of consumers the establishment of a network of brand associations (Cornwell et al., 2006).

Johar and Pham (2000) concluded through experimentation that sport identification is dependent on the market prominence the sponsor holds and the overall relatedness of the sponsor and event. The idea of sponsor fit seems to be influenced by proximity, as approximately 80% of naming rights deals in professional sports are held by companies in the same municipality as the facility (Lefton, 2009). Pruitt, Cornwell, and Clark (2004) found enhanced market reactions when the sponsor of a NASCAR team had a direct tie-in to automobiles. Brands that are able to produce perceptions of relatedness are more readily identifiable with being the actual sponsors of the team or even (Pham & Johar, 2001). The actions that consumers intend to take are dependent on the level of perceived fit between the event and sponsor (Becker-Olsen, 2003; Koo, Quartman & Flynn, 2006). Cornwell, Pruitt and Clark (2005) found that both high tech firms and firms with congruence between the product and sport sponsored resulted in positive changes in the stock price.

Speed and Thompson (2000) suggested that congruence between a brand and a sporting event has a significant influence on sponsorship outcomes, such as attitude toward the sponsoring brand and purchase intention. The purchase intentions of consumers are positively influenced by favorable attitudes towards sponsorships that were identified as having appropriate fit (Barone, Miyazaki, & Taylor, 2000). Kinney and McDaniel (1996) found that Visa's sponsorship of the Olympic games has created a favorable attitude toward its ads and brands. This includes a higher purchase intention, which resulted from advertising a congruent personality association between Visa and the Olympic Games, such as excitement and prestige.

H₀10: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the perceived fit between the team/stadium and the facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A10: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the perceived fit between the team/stadium and the facility naming rights sponsor.

Service Products Compared to Goods Products

In packaged goods, the product is the primary brand, while, with services, the company is the primary brand (Berry, 2000). While goods and services draw upon a certain set of branding principles, there are common differences in the emphasis given to specific tools (De Chernatony & Riley, 1999). All goods and services deliver a bundle of benefits, but the way they are received is very different for services, since the benefit is

created through its experience (Bateson, 1995). Brand impact shifts from product to company as service plays a greater role in determining customer value (Berry & Parasuraman, 1991). The execution of branding strategies may need adjustments in emphasis to comply with services' specific features (De Chernatony & Riley, 1999).

A service's products characteristic of intangibility is a main apparent difficulty faced by consumers when evaluating a service's quality and in differentiating between competing brands (Firth, 1993; Fitzgerald, 1988), as well as making it harder to set prices (Berry & Yadav, 1996; Thomas, 1978). There are several common branding strategies that companies have utilized to attempt to overcome some of these issues. The size and reputation of the company can be used as a proxy for quality when selecting between service companies (Boyd, Leonard & White, 1994; Ford, 1990), while consumers are also willing to pay higher fees for services for companies with a strong reputation (Firth, 1993).

Getting consumers to recognize the company itself as a brand, in which it is characterized by a distinct corporate identity, personality, and image, has been considered a critical service-branding strategy (Onkvisit & Shaw, 1989; Knisely, 1979), because it provides endorsement, recognition and acceptance, as well as making them seem more tangible (Diefenbach, 1992). This is summed up by Berry, Lefkowitz and Clark (1988) in that in services, the company name is the brand name. A service product company wants to use branding strategies to provide relative tangible clues (De Chernatony & Riley, 1999) to make the intangibility of the service brand more easily understood (Onkvisit & Shaw, 1989). Controlled communications such as advertising and promotion were found to make a substantial contribution to brand hearsay (a communication

variable) with service brands, due to its ability to tangibilize service concepts and ultimately reduce the consumer's perceived risk (Grace & O'Cass, 2005). Brodie, Whittome and Brush (2009) found that a service brand must have a coordinated marketing program that integrates the external communications that build customers' perception of brand image and company image with the trust based service delivery processes. This may be one reason why a service product company decides to enter into a facility naming rights sponsorship agreement. The brand name is then attached to a tangible object, which the company uses as one of these tangible clues.

Roy and Cornwell (1999) conducted a study in which they surveyed managers of companies that were sports sponsors to determine any difference between service and goods companies. The researchers discovered that both service and goods companies have similar objectives for their sponsorships which including enhancement of brand image and brand awareness. However, service companies reported higher mean perceived effectiveness on all five elements of brand knowledge, especially corporate image, brand personality and image of quality.

H₀11: The type of the facility naming rights sponsor's products will not have a significant effect on the structural model of consumers' attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A11: The type of the facility naming rights sponsor's products will have a significant effect on the structural model of consumers' attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor.

Theoretical Background

Theory of Planned Behavior

According to Ajzen (1991), an attitude toward an object plays a significant role in predicting a person's behavioral intentions and can affect a behavioral response to the object (Ajzen, 2001). An attitude represents a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998), such as good-bad, pleasant-unpleasant or likable-dislikable (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000). People form attitudes as a tool in dealing with the complex world around them (Zanna & Rempel, 1988).

Belief-Attitude-Intentions Theory (Madrigal 2001)

Madrigal (2001) employed a hierarchy of belief-attitude-behavior intentions, which was an application of the theory of planned behavior, developed by Ajzen (1985). This serves as the main theoretical foundation of this study. A person's beliefs about an object and the implicit importance of those beliefs construct his/her attitude toward the object. An individual's attitude can then influence his/her behavioral intentions, which in turn predict that person's behavioral response to the object (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Madrigal, 2001). The expected outcomes from a facility naming rights sponsorships, including attitude transfer, behavioral intentions, and branding objectives, are considerably influenced by consumers' beliefs about the advantages and disadvantages of the sponsorship and the perceived importance of those beliefs (Chen & Zhang, 2012). Madrigal (2001) suggested that a behavior is often predicted by behavioral intentions.

Spillover Effects

Spillover effects refer to a change in a customer's evaluation by one object that causes a change in that same customer's evaluation of another object (Schumann, Wunderlich, & Evanschitzky, 2014). Due to spillover effects, a service failure by one company (i.e. a team/stadium) may have negative effects toward another company or brand (facility naming rights sponsor). Simonin and Ruth (1998) discovered that consumers' attitudes toward a brand alliance could influence subsequent impressions of each partner's brand, or that spillover effects existed. These effects also depended on other factors such as product fit or compatibility, and brand fit or image congruity (Keller & Lehmann, 2006). Although a co-branded ingredient can facilitate initial brand expansion acceptance, a self-branded ingredient can lead to more favorable long-run extension evaluations (Desai & Keller, 2002). Building on this, Janiszewski & Van Osselaer (2000) state that borrowing equity from another brand does not necessarily build equity for the parent brand

In a cobranding context, evaluation of the focal brand can be affected when the customer perceives the characteristic of the partner brand to be fusing with, influencing, or rubbing onto the characteristics of the focal brand (Simonin & Ruth, 1998). In this research, the focal brand is considered as the sponsor, while the partner brand is the team/stadium. The performance of the joint product is highly likely to influence the focal brand as spillover is most likely to occur in the direction of the cobranded offering to the parent brand (Balachander & Ghose, 2003). This spillover can be either positive or negative, causing enhancement or detracting of focal brand evaluation, respectively

(Keller & Aaker, 1992; Loken & John 1993). Spillover effects are grounded in the information integration theory, which describes how attitudes form and the change in response to the integration of new information with existing attitudes, cognitions or thoughts (Anderson, 1981). When confronted with new information, people integrate existing knowledge from various sources to make an overall judgement. If the new information is highly favorable, highly unfavorable, or very important, it strongly influences the resulting judgment (Schumann et al., 2014).

Voloato and Unnava (2006) stated that the negative behavior of one of the partners, such as incompetence and immorality, may spillover on the other partner in a marketing alliance. A study conducted by Yang, Huang, & Li (2010) found that perceived website service quality not only affects customer evaluations, but also spillover positive effects to its partners: hotels. Another study conducted by Sabiote Ortiz, Frias-Jamilena and Castaneda Garcia (2017) discovered that consumers who are satisfied with their online purchasing experience will perceive the hotel to be of higher quality than do those who are unsatisfied with their experience of information search and purchasing, and transferred their attitude from one service provider to the other due to the spillover effect. Brand scandals have been found to spill over not only from only one product to another within a brand family (John, Loken & Joiner, 1998), but also from one cooperating partner to another (Herm, 2014).

Service spillover refers to the impact of a service encounter with one organization on a subsequent encounter with a different organization (Allen, Brady, Robinson, & Vorhees, 2014). There have been numerous studies which show the existence of mood effects in service encounters (Gardner, 1985; Menon and Dubem 2000), which explain

that a consumer's negative mood could plausibly carry over to a subsequent encounter with a different firm, resulting in poor evaluations of both firms (Allen et al., 2014). Bourdeau, Cronin, and Voorhees (2007) found that quality perceptions spillover between two different brands when they are combined to provide a seamless service experience. It was found during this study that positive quality evaluations of one partner can result in beneficial gains for other service partners, or grave consequences if one partner's service quality is substandard. When service failures are attributed to a service partner, the effects on partnering firms are equally detrimental (Bourdeau et al., 2007). Weber and Sparks (2004) concluded that an airline's service quality is negatively affected in case of its partners' service failure.

The process of attribution underlies how people assign any type of blame or credit for the observed performance (Folkes, 1998). In a cobranding context, consumers may identify as the source of good or bad performance the focal brand alone, the partnering brand alone, the brands jointly, or neither brand (but some extraneous factor instead) (Newmeyer, Venkatesh, & Chatterjee, 2014). The spillover effect based on the information integration theory would mean that the consumers' evaluation or attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor is affected by their experience with the team and stadium. In this case, their experience with the team and stadium are measured by game day service quality and valence.

Social Identity Theory

Social identity theory is centered on the relationships between self, role, and society, and posits that an individual's self-concept is partially derived from knowledge

of their membership in social groups (Laverie & Arnett, 2000; Turner & Tajfel, 1986). Social identity theory suggests that group members seek to establish and strive to maintain a positive and distinct group identity (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Management and businesses have relied heavily on social identity theory to explain intra- and intergroup phenomena (Postmes & Branscombe, 2010). If a comparison made between an in-group and a relevant outgroup results in a great perceived similarity, the distinctiveness of the in-group may be threatened (Reysen & Snider, 2012). Because degree of identification with a group reflects the extent to which group events affects an individual (Branscombe & Doojse, 2004), highly identified group members who perceive intergroup similarity are more likely to be threatened by the loss of group distinctiveness than are low identifiers.

Being a follower of a sport organization can be a central concept of social identity, and the performance of the team can therefore have an impact on the individual's self-worth (Tajfel, 1981; Wann & Schrader, 2000). Individuals will exhibit a variety of behaviors and attitudes in order to achieve or maintain a positive social identity, which in turn boosts self-esteem, regardless of whether they are active participants in an organized group or not (Brown, 2000; Reysen & Branscombe, 2010). Social identity theory is considered applicable to fan behavior in sport, since fan behavior is socially visible, involves relationships with others, and one can experience satisfaction associated with being a member of a fan group (Laverie & Arnett, 2000).

Eddy (2014) found that fans views a strong tradition and the history surrounding their team/stadium as important sources of distinctiveness against the college football landscape. Fans held generally positive views toward sponsorship, which suggests that, while sponsorship in general may actually be an in-group strengthening activity, naming

rights sponsorships could cross a line that could ultimately affect the positive distinctiveness of the in-group (Eddy, 2014). Thus, fans' attempts to regain their lost self-worth were manifested as negative intentions toward the purchase of sponsors' products (Turner & Tajfel, 1986).

Balance Theory

Balance theory is useful in explaining the attitude formation and attitude change caused by a sponsorship (Dean, 2002). The basic concept behind the balance theory is the cognitive consistency, indicating that people tend to harmonize the values in their mind and to have balance and order in their lives (Heider, 1958). When incongruence happens in their thoughts, they are likely to reconcile the conflict and build a new balance (Chen, 2009). This research supports the notion people will tend to like anything that is connected to things they already like, and dislike anything that is associated with things they do not like before. Without this, they will not have a balance (Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Dean, 2002). Consequentially, a consumer's attitude or behavior toward an object would be built or changed in a way to restore balance (Dean, 2002).

In a sports sponsorship partnership, the sponsor is building a connection with the sport venue. According to the balance theory, fans who like the sponsored sport venue will then form (or change to) similarly positive attitudes or behaviors toward the sponsor (Chen, 2009). This balancing process is believed as the major function and objective of sponsorship investment and has been proved effective in previous research (Dalakas & Levin, 2005, Dean, 2002, Madrigal, 2001). Stipp and Schiavone (1996) found that attitude toward the Olympics could transfer to the Olympic sponsors, as well as that the

attitude toward Olympic sponsorships in general had a significant impact on a sponsor's image. Of course, this works the opposite way as well. Fans who do not like the sponsored sport venue tend to form attitudes to balance in the negative direction, which is one reason why researching how the game day experience affects the consumer's attitude toward the sponsor. This is supported by Dalakas and Levin (2005) in their inquiry of NASCAR fans, which revealed that fans tended to form a negative attitude toward the major competitors of their favorite driver and consequently form a negative attitude toward their sponsor.

Balance theory suggests that when an individual holds different attitudes toward two associate objects, he/she tends to reconcile the conflict and build a new balance (Dean, 2002). The individual and two associated objects resemble the three points of a triangle: his/her attitudes toward the two objects will be changes to a balance point whenever there is a triangle appearing on his/her mind (Madrigan, 2001). This could indicate that a consumer's attitude toward the sponsor and his/her attitude toward commercialization could cause an interaction when they are connected by a facility naming rights sponsorship contract with his/her favorite team or stadium. In turn, this interaction could change his/her attitude in an either positive or negative direction toward both objects and have an influence on both his/her future behavioral intentions, as well as the various branding objectives of the sponsor (Chen, 2009).

Attribution Theory

Attribution theory is how consumers draw inferences about actors (e.g. sponsors) using character or situation information (Kelley & Michela, 1980). Attribution theory

refers to a broad understanding of sense making and is foundational in explaining that consumers use information from different sources to build or modify the images associated with the entity of focus (Kelley & Michela, 1980). In balance theory, a well-liked corporate sponsorship is hypothesized to result in significant enhancement of sponsor image in consumers' perception. In attribution theory, it is suggested that consumers can also use negative attribution (i.e. corporate self-interest) to explain the sponsor-sponsee linkage (Chen, 2009). Attribution theory suggests that consumers would attempt to understand why a sponsor likes to give money or other resources to a sponsorship deal (Dean, 2002; Kelley, 1973; Kelley & Michela, 1980). A consumer will try to develop a subjective explanation of why actions have occurred and make causal inferences.

Kelley (1973) developed a corollary theory named the discounting principle in which people will discount the effect of an attribution when an alternative explanation could specify the behavior. Studies utilizing attribution theory have consistently shows that when extrinsic motivation explains an event, intrinsic motivation is discounted (Chen, 2009). Folkes (1988) used the discounting principle to explain consumers' reactions to a product endorsement, which indicated that consumers attributed an automobile endorsement to mercenary motives and discounted the linkage between the endorser and endorsed product.

Adams (1963) proposed the equity theory to explain how consumers generate attribution in sponsorship activities. When people are involved in an exchange process, they determine the equity by assessing the ratio of what they receive from the exchange to what they give into the process. If the output is proportional to the input, people will

perceive an equitable relationship (Adams, 1963). Dean (2002) utilized this equity theory to explain how attributions are developed in the context of a charity event sponsorship and indicated that the donation by the sponsor could be evaluated as an inequitable exchange since the company received only the right to have some promotional messages in the event. This perceived inequity may lead consumers to attribute some hidden objective to the company's motivation for sponsorship (Dean, 2002). Walliser (2003) also found that the perceived benefit and returned goodwill was negatively related to the perceived exploitation of the event.

The attribution theory posits that consumers cognitively infer a motive for the sponsorship behavior and attributions are not always negative (Dean, 2002). On one hand, sponsorship can be attributed to the goodwill or an altruistic motive of a corporation which results in positive belief, image, and attitudes. On the other hand, consumers might attribute to the self-interest and more exploitative to the sponsor, which would create negative responses such as less desirable sponsor image, beliefs, and attitude (Chen, 2009). Dean (2002) indicated that both positive and negative attributions could occur and thus, the effect of consumer attributions in sponsorship need to be further investigated in various situations.

In the current study, Madrigal's (2001) belief-attitude-behavior intention model would be adopted to explain how consumers perceive corporate naming rights sponsorship, how consumers' beliefs affect their attitudes, and in turn influence their behavior intentions and branding outcomes of the sponsor. The attribution theory helps to explain how a consumer builds his/her belief toward corporate facility naming rights sponsorships, and how those beliefs would affect his/her attitudes toward the sponsor.

Pretesting consumer reaction to a proposed sponsorship can help ensure that unexpected negative attributions do not appear (Dean, 2002) and also prevent negative attributions that would result in unfavorable consequences for both corporations and teams/facilities involved in naming rights sponsorships.

Brand Attachment Theory

Attachment theory posits that individuals develop mental associations of significant others, and of their relationships with others (Bowlby, 2012; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). Meaningful attachments can be extended to personal relationships with places, personal possessions and brands (Vlachos, Theotokis, Pramataris, & Vreopoulos, 2010). Brand attachment is an extension of attachment theory in marketing and asserts that consumers develop similar connections to brands (Kwon & Armstrong, 2004; Thomson, MacInnis, & Park, 2005). Brand attachment is viewed as a long-lasting, commitment inducing bond between the brand and the consumer. Brand attachment can be defined as the strength of the bond connecting the brand with the self (Bernal Castillo, 2014). Consistent with attachment theory (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007), this bond is exemplified by a rich and accessible memory network that involves thoughts and feelings about the brand and the brand's relationship to the self (Bernal Castillo, 2014).

Attachments can extend beyond the person-person relationship context. Consumers can develop attachments to gifts (Mick & DeMoss, 1990), collectibles (Slater, 2001), places of residence (Hill and Stamley, 1990), and brands (Schouten & McAlexander, 1995), among other special objects. Attachment symbolizes a psychological state of mind in which a strong cognitive and affective bond connects a

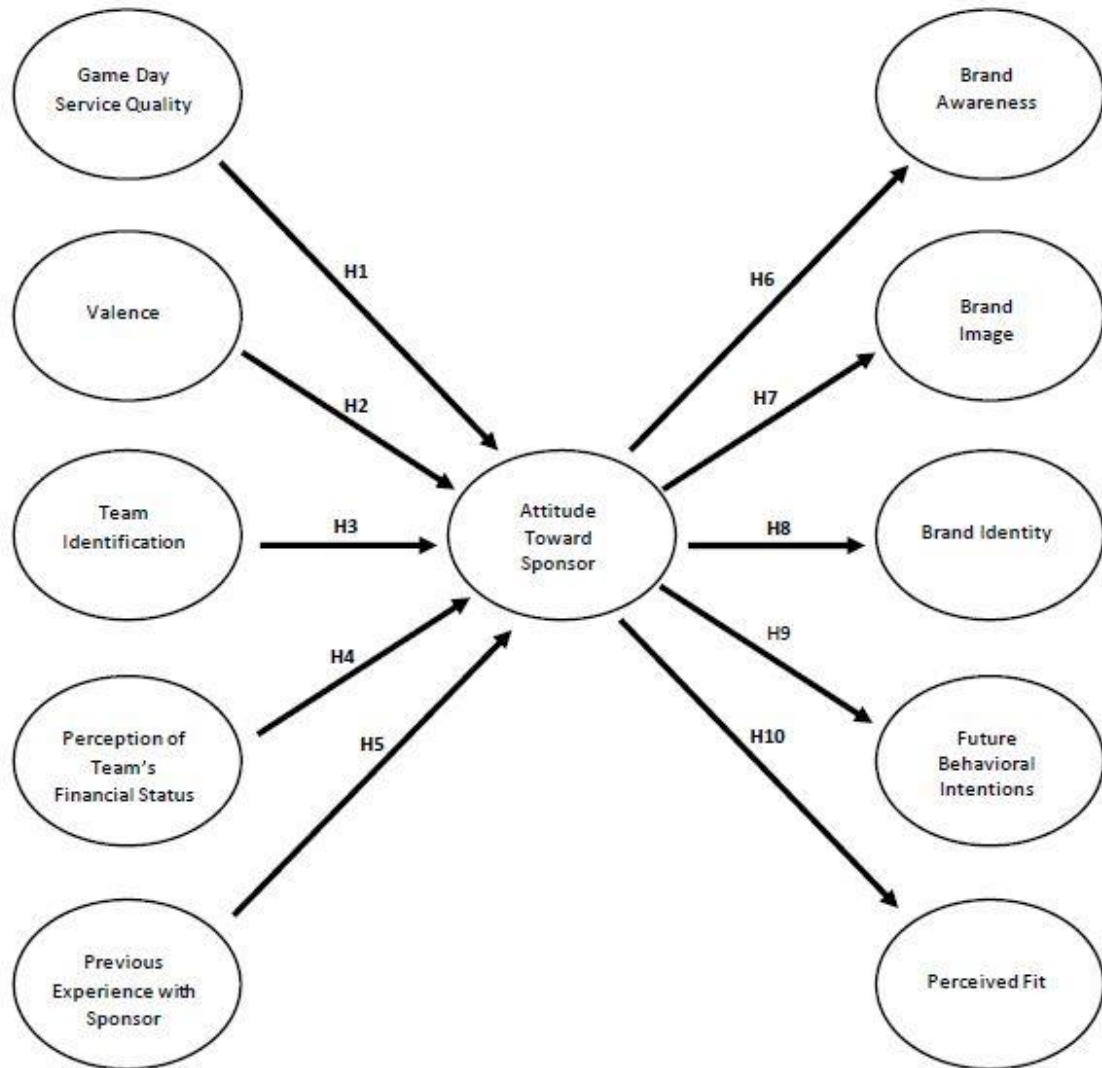
brand with an individual in such a way that the brand is viewed as an extension of the self (Bernal Castillo, 2014). Chaduri & Holdbrook (2001) showed that commitment to a brand saves a customer the cost of seeking new relations with other brands. Brand attachments with the brand can forecast how often the brand was purchased previously and how often will be purchased in the future (Esch Lagner, Schmitt & Geus, 2006; McAlexander, Schouten, & Koenig, 2002). Sport consumers develop favorable attachments to various aspects of the sport consumptive experiences (Kwon et al., 2005).

Congruence Theory

Congruence theory suggests that consumers best remember congruent information associated with their prior expectations, since memorized information and its retrieval is influenced by similarity or relatedness between sponsoring brands and sponsored sponsorship (Cornwell et al., 2005; Mandler, 1982, Srull, 1981). In regards to sponsorship, congruency theory has been used to evaluate the functional or image-related similarity between the sponsee and the sponsoring brand (Gwinner, 1997; Grohs, Wagner, & Vsetecka, 2004). Congruence theory has been used to examine the match-up hypothesis in the context of celebrity endorsement (Kahle & Homer, 1985), positing that advertising effectiveness is increased when a celebrity's image converges with the image of an endorsed brand. Gwinner and Eaton (1999) demonstrated that the transfer of image from the event to the sponsoring brand was higher when the event and sponsor were congruent in either functionality or image. Keller (2001) noted that when information conveyed by different communication options share common meanings, communication robustness will be reinforced.

Based on the literature, the following theoretical model was developed:

Figure 2.1: Proposed Theoretical Model



The hypotheses are restated below:

H₀1: Game day service quality is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A1: Game day service quality is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H₀2: Valence is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A2: Valence is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H₀3: Team identification is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A3: Team identification is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H₀4: Fan perception of the team's financial status is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A4: Fan perception of the team's financial status is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H₀5: Previous experience with the sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A5: Previous experience with the sponsor is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H₀6: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the sponsor brand awareness.

H_A6: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the sponsor brand awareness.

H₀7: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the sponsor brand image.

H_A7: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the sponsor brand image.

H₀8: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the sponsor brand identity.

H_A8: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the sponsor brand identity.

H₀9: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the consumers' future behavioral intentions.

H_A9: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the consumers' future behavioral intentions.

H₀10: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the perceived fit between the team/stadium and the facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A10: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the perceived fit between the team/stadium and the facility naming rights sponsor.

H₀11: The type of the facility naming rights sponsor's products will not have a significant effect on the structural model of consumers' attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A11: The type of the facility naming rights sponsor's products will have a significant effect on the structural model of consumers' attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter goes through a complete description of the research methods utilized in the study in order to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses developed in chapter 2. The research design includes quantitative data collection and analysis methods. The research sample and survey development process is also addressed in this chapter. Specifically, the data analysis techniques to address the research questions and test the hypothesis will be highlighted. Specifically, exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, as well as structural equation modeling (SEM) will be reviewed.

Human Subjects Approval

Since the researcher was conducting research and collecting data from human subjects for both the pilot and primary study, certain conditions for conducting research with human subjects needed to be met in order to ensure ethical and regulatory requirements were upheld. Based on these requirements, a request for exempt category research was submitted to the Auburn University Institutional Review Board for Research Involving Human Subjects (IRB). In order to be able to submit a request for IRB approval, the researcher had to complete a course on social and behavioral

responsible conduct of research conducted by the Collaborative Institute Training Initiative at the University of Miami. Following the regulations put forth by the Auburn University IRB, the IRB was approved for use from April 28, 2017 to June 21, 2019 under the following protocol number: 16-202 EX 1606. A copy of the online information letter used to consent the participants with IRB approval has been included in the appendix.

The Research Instrument

The research instrument was developed as an online-based survey through Qualtrics. The individual measurements chosen to use in this survey have been well-tested and are previously validated and reliable. Content validity of the individual scales was established from a thorough review of the relevant literature as well as feedback from professors and graduate students. The individual measurements are discussed in detail below. A copy of the final survey instrument has been included in the appendix.

Measurements

An online survey was formulated that included the following sections: (a) game day service quality, (b) valence, (c) team identification, (d) perception of team's financial status, (e) previous experience with sponsor, (f) attitude toward sponsor, (g) brand awareness, (h) brand image, (i) brand identity, (j) future behavioral intentions, and (k) perceived fit. Additionally, some fan information questions were included in the beginning of the survey, and a demographics section was included at the end of the survey for sample description purposes.

Game Day Service Quality

Eventserv-Short was developed by Martin et al. (2012) in response to the major issue of the original Eventserv measure being the length hurting the real world applicability. The original 32 items from the Eventserv measures were examined by the corrected item-total correlations between each of the items. Nine of the 32 items had corrected item correlations greater than .60, but two were redundant. The final Eventserv-Short measure utilizes 7 items and has a Cronbach's alpha of .81 (Martin et al., 2012). The respondents are instructed to please rate their level of satisfaction with each of the 7 items. Some items included in this measure are: "The quality of the beverages inside the stadium," "The friendliness of the security staff at the stadium," and "The amount of time it takes to get around once inside the stadium." Each of the items was measured on a Likert-type 5-point scale (1 = extremely dissatisfied to 5 = extremely satisfied).

Valence

Valence is measured by a 5-item scale developed by Brady et al. (2006) that reflected the degree to which respondents evaluated the outcome of the game to be good or bad. The respondents were asked to evaluate your feelings based on the outcome of the last MLB home game that they attended. The items are measured on a 5 point Likert-type scale with a variety of answers such as 1 = extremely good to 5 = extremely bad and 1 = extremely satisfied to 5 = extremely dissatisfied.

Team Identification

Team identification was defined as one's level of attachment to or concern about a particular sport team (Wann & Barnscombe, 1993). In their study about sponsorship, Cornwell et al. (2005) suggested that identification is one of the processing mechanics related to sponsorship outcomes. To measure team identification, five items in the modified version of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (Madrigal, 2001). The original Sport Spectator Identification Scale was developed by Wann and Branscombe (1993) to study spectator behavior. Madrigal (2001) modified the original scale for the purpose of applying it to studying sport sponsorships. The wording was adapted and personalized for each item into the setting of a specific Major League Baseball team depending on what the last MLB home game that the respondent attended. Items included: "When someone praises (insert MLB team), it feels like a personal compliment," "I feel a sense of "ownership" for the (insert MLB team) rather than just being a fan," and "When some criticizes the (insert MLB team), it feels like a personal insult." Each of the items was measured on a Likert-type 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Chen (2009) calculated $\alpha = .90$.

Perception of Team's Financial Status

Chen and Zhang (2011, 2012) suggested that how fans perceived the financial status of their favorite team could have an important influence on the assessment of corporate naming rights sponsorship effectiveness. Chen (2009) developed a 5-item scale, focused on intercollegiate athletics, from a review of literature. The statements were adapted to a professional baseball setting and personalized for each item into the

setting of a specific Major League Baseball team depending on what the last MLB home game that the respondent attended. Items in this scales include: “I know that the majority of major league baseball teams operate with a budget surplus,” “I think that the (Insert MLB team) need the income for the facility naming rights sponsorship to run the team,” and “Due to the enormous growth in the cost of facilities, marketing, and player salaries, major league baseball owners have struggled to find needed resources to fund their teams.” Each of the items was measured on a Likert-type 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Chen (2009) calculated $\alpha = .82$.

Previous Experience with Sponsor

In order to measure a respondent’s previous experience with sponsor, a question had to be answered, “How many products or services have you ever purchased from (insert MLB sponsor)?” If the respondent chose 0, then this measure was skipped as this indicates that the respondent had no previous experience with the sponsor. If the respondent chose anything other than 0, a consumption satisfaction scale developed by Oliver (2004) and shortened by Zboja and Voorhees (2006). The shortened version is used in this study and was shown by Zboja and Voorhees (2006) to have strong construct reliability ranging from .94 to .96 across the two samples that were used in their study. The wording was adapted and personalized for each item into the setting of a specific Major League Baseball sponsor and team depending on what the last MLB home game that the respondent attended. Some items included in this measure are: “I am satisfied with my decision to purchase a product(s) and/or service(s) from (insert MLB sponsor)”, “I think that I did the right thing when I bought a product(s) and/or service(s) from (insert

MLB sponsor),” and “My choice to buy a product(s) and/or service(s) from (insert MLB sponsor) was a wise one.” Each of the items was measured on a Likert-type 5-point scale (1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree).

Attitude toward Sponsor

A number of studies have been conducted to measure how sponsorship affect attitudes towards sponsors in both professional and collegiate sports (Ciafrone et al., 2008; Cianfrone & Zhang, 2006, Dees et al., 2008; Gray, 1996; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Kuzma et al., 2003, Madrigal 2000, 2001; Speed and Thompson, 2000; Zhang et al., 2005). Measures used across these studies to measure the construct were inconsistent and needed to be modified into the facility naming rights setting. Chen & Zhang (2012) selected five items that were believed to be most appropriate and modified each of them to suit this specific form of sponsorship. The wording was adapted and personalized for each item into the setting of a specific Major League Baseball sponsor and team depending on what the last MLB home game that the respondent attended. Among the five items in the developed scale: “I am favorable of the (Insert MLB team) fan to purchase products from (Insert MLB sponsor),” I think that it is a wonderful idea to buy products produced by (Insert MLB sponsor),” and “Because (Insert MLB sponsor) is the naming rights sponsor, I have a positive attitude toward (Insert MLB sponsor).” Each of the items was measured in a Likert-type 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Chen (2009) calculated Cronbach’s alpha at .82.

Brand Awareness

Brand awareness is the ability for a buyer to recognize or recall that a brand is a member of a certain product category (Aaker, 1991). Yoo and Donthu (2001) developed a 5-item brand awareness scale. Four items were based on previous research (Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Rossiter & Percy, 1987; Snull, 1984). While developing their measure, Yoo and Donthu (2001) discovered there was no discriminant validity between brand awareness and brand association, as well as a high correlation between the two (.89), so they were combined into a brand awareness scale. The wording was adapted and personalized for each item into the setting of a specific Major League Baseball sponsor and team depending on what the last MLB home game that the respondent attended. Items included in this measure include: “I can recognize (insert MLB sponsor),” “I am aware of (insert MLB sponsor),” and “I have difficulty in imagining (insert MLB sponsor) in my mind.” Each of the items was measured in a Likert-type 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

Brand Image

Brand image is operationally defined as the expression of an individual’s evaluation of a brand (Chang & Liu, 2009). Through a review of literature, Chang & Liu (2009) developed a 7-item measure for brand image measuring the three subsets: user image, corporate image, and service image. The wording was adapted and personalized for each item into the setting of a specific Major League Baseball sponsor depending on what the last MLB home game that the respondent attended. Items in the measure include: “The user of (Insert MLB sponsor) is unique,” “The company of (Insert MLB

sponsor) is socially responsible,” and “The service of (Insert MLB sponsor) is worthy.” Each of the items was measured on a Likert-type 5-point scale (1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree). The Cronbach’s alpha was calculated as .86 (Chang & Liu, 2009).

Brand Identity

Stokburger-Sauer, Ratneshwar, & Sen (2012) developed a brand identification measure consisting of 5 items through interviews and pilot studies, as well as previous literature. They found this scale highly reliable with an alpha of .94 and item-to-total correlations ranging from .82 to .89. The wording was adapted and personalized for each item into the setting of a specific Major League Baseball sponsor depending on what the last MLB home game that the respondent attended. Items in this measure include: “I feel a strong sense of belonging to (Insert MLB sponsor),” “(Insert MLB sponsor) is like a part of me,” and “(Insert MLB sponsor) has a great deal of personal meaning to me.” Each of the items was measured on a Likert-type 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

Future Behavior Intentions

Trail, Fink & Anderson (2003) modified a 4-item future behavioral intentions scale to fit in a sports content. With 364 participants in their survey instrument, the future behavioral intentions scale was found to have a Cronbach’s alpha of .84 as well as an average variance extracted (AVE) of .58. The wording was adapted and personalized for each item into the setting of a specific Major League Baseball sponsor and team depending on what the last MLB home game that the respondent attended. Items in this

measure include: “I am likely to attend future (insert MLB team) games” and “I am likely to purchases products/services from (insert MLB sponsor).” Each of the items was measured on a Likert-type 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

Perceived Fit

Gwinner & Bennett (2008) developed a 4-item measure that allowed respondents to consider fit on their own terms with restricting the basis used to define fit. The Cronbach’s alpha calculated for this measure was .93 and the composite reliability was .93 (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008). The wording was adapted and personalized for each item into the setting of a specific Major League Baseball sponsor and team depending on what the last MLB home game that the respondent attended. The items included in this measure are: “There is a close fit between (insert MLB sponsor) and (insert MLB team),” “My image of the (insert MLB team) is consistent with my image of (insert MLB sponsor),” and “It makes sense that (insert MLB sponsor) is the facility naming rights sponsor for the (insert MLB team).” Each of the items was measured on a Likert-type 5-point scale (1 = strongly agree to 5 = strongly disagree).

Demographics

The following demographic information was obtained from the respondents: gender, age (enter your birth year), education, ethnicity, marital status, household income, and occupation.

Statistical Programs Used for Data Analysis

The data collected from the pilot study and main study were analyzed using the Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS 23.0) application to conduct reliability, normality, collinearity, and exploratory factor analysis. Subsequent to this, the Analysis of Moment Structure (SPSS AMOS 22.0), a structural equation modeling (SEM) program was used to generate a confirmatory factory analysis (CFA) as well as a structural equation model (SEM).

Pilot Study

Sample and Data Collection

The research conducted a pilot study using a snowball convenience sample in order to test the survey and the reliability of the measurement scales. A link to the survey was given to two professors at a university in the southeastern United States to distribute to students in their classes during November and December 2016. Students were asked to pass along the survey to 5 other potential respondents that they knew that qualified for the survey. In order to qualify to take the survey, the respondent had to have attended a Major League Baseball game during the 2016 season. At this point in the research, there were no fans of specific teams being sought out, so any of the 30 MLB teams were acceptable. The pilot study version of the survey had 115 questions. A total of 282 responses were recorded from this sample. After deleting responses that were not filled out correctly, or did not answer the attention filters correctly, the final usable sample

analyzed was 150 responses. However, the pilot study was a lengthy survey so time could have attributed to the usability of responses.

Scale Reliability

Reliability is defined as the extent or degree to which a scale consistently measures test scores across samples and testing conditions (Anastasi, 1988). Reliability can be tested by looking at the strength and significance of the correlation between all the scale items (Robinson, Shaver & Wrightsman, 1991). Internal consistency describes the extent to which all the items in a scale measure the same concept or construct and hence it is connected to the inter-relatedness of the items within the measurement. The most common method of assessing internal consistency is through the use of coefficient alpha with Cronbach's alpha being the most popular method used (Douglas, 2008).

Cronbach's alpha was developed by Lee Cronbach in 1951 to provide a measure of the internal consistency of a test or scale. It is expressed as a number between 0 and 1 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). The closer the Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1, the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). Researchers have differed in their interpretation of a cutoff score for Cronbach's alpha. The minimum accepted level for use in the social sciences is .5 or above (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). For the purposes of this research, the recommended value set by Nunally (1978) of .7 will be considered acceptable. George and Mallery (2003) provided further justification for this recommended value and broke the recommended values down further to .90 and above is excellent, .80 is good, .70 - .60 is acceptable. Any

values falling below .60 are considered unsatisfactory and would be evaluated for deletion.

Data Analysis

SPSS version 23.0, developed by Apache Software Foundation, was utilized to execute a reliability analysis on the individual measurement scales. Cronbach's alpha was calculated in SPSS to determine how reliable the internal consistency of the measurement subscales were at the .05 level. The initial alpha score for Perception of Team's Financial Status was .601, so the researcher deleted the statement "Without the facility naming rights sponsorship, I believe the (MLB team) do not have enough funds to renovate the stadium" based off of the item-total statistics, which improved the alpha score to .738. The statement "(MLB sponsor) cares more about its promotion than the success of the (MLB team)" was removed from the Attitude Toward Sponsor scale based off of the item-total statistics. Table 3.1 shows the Cronbach's alpha for each measurement subscale based on the 150 pilot study respondents. All the subscales revealed acceptable Cronbach alpha values ranging from .724 to .946.

Table 3.1: Pilot Study Scale Reliability Statistics

Variable	Cronbach's Alpha	N
Game Day Service Quality	0.892	7
Valence	0.920	5
Team Identification	0.892	5
Perception of Team's Financial Status	0.738	4
Previous Experience with Sponsor	0.946	5
Attitude toward Sponsor	0.871	4
Brand Awareness	0.903	5
Brand Image	0.838	7
Brand Identity	0.930	5
Willingness to Attend Future Games	0.902	5
Purchase Intention of Sponsor's Products	0.791	4
Perceived Fit	0.724	4

After the pilot study data were collected, the researcher made changes to the survey based off of feedback, and the desire to focus on the appropriateness of the questions and economy of the survey. Feedback was given from professors and colleagues who went through the survey to ensure content validity, as well as feedback on the length of survey and the wording of survey statements. The decision was made to combine purchase intention of sponsor's products and willingness to attend future games into a future behavioral intentions scale as described above to reduce the number of questions in the survey. A few extraneous scales were also deleted from the survey before it was finalized for data collection to reduce the number of items down further. The finalized survey for the main study was 82 questions, a reduction of 33 questions. IRB modification was applied for and approved for the primary research study. The same protocol number: 16-202 EX 1606 is in place.

Study Sample

The decision was made, in order to get a big enough sample to run a structural equation model, to narrow the potential sample down from fans who attended a MLB home game of any of the 30 MLB teams during the 2016 season to fans of 2 specific teams who attended a MLB home game during the 2016 season. Ten MLB teams were eliminated as the researcher wanted to use 2 teams for this study that had a facility naming rights sponsor which 10 MLB teams do not have as of 2017. The researcher then looked at the MLB attendance rankings for average attendance for each home game (ESPN, n.d.). The two teams chosen were both in the top tier of attendance rankings for the 2016 season. Because of objectives of this study and particularly research question 4, one team had a sponsor whose products were more commonly thought of as a service and the other team had a sponsor whose products were more commonly thought of as a good. Both teams have had the same facility naming rights sponsor for over 10 years. One team is on the west coast, while the other is in the Midwest. Since 2001, the west coast MLB team has had a winning percentage of .527, with 3 World Series wins, while the Midwest MLB teams had had a winning percentage of .562, with 2 World Series wins (Major League Baseball, 2017).

Online Survey Panels

An online access panel or survey panel is a pool of people who have agreed to repeatedly take part in web survey (Goritz et al., 2002). Online panels are an important, if not the dominant form of reactive web-based research in the medium term (Couper, 2000). Online panels are increasingly being used as a mode of data collection for market

(Comley, 2007; Postoaca, 2006), social (Tortora, 2009), psychological (Goritz, 2007), and medical research (Couper, 2007). The most familiar type of an online panel is a general population panel, which typically includes hundreds of thousands to several million members and is used for both general population studies, as well as for reaching respondents with low incidence events or characteristics. The panel serves as a frame from which samples are drawn to meet the sample needs of studies (Baker et al., 2010).

Online panels reduce the cost associated with locating appropriate respondents and ensure their immediate availability, along with additional benefits such as easy identification of key sample segments, increased response, augmented response quality, shorter field times and ethical advantages (Gortiz et al., 2002). Participation in online panel surveys compared to face-to-face studies is often more appealing, comfortable, easy, and saves time (Goritz et al., 2002). An online panel offers flexibility with regard to possible study designs as a whole range of both temporal observation plans and designs for variance control can be realized. There is a greater readiness to participate with online panelists and, as a result, the response rate is higher than in free standing online surveys. Particular target samples, such as this study, can be drawn without time and money consuming pre-screening of large shares of the population. The occurrence of having the same participant take the same survey multiple times is less likely in online panels (Goritz et al., 2002). Several studies have looked at concurrent validity across different survey methods and administered the same questionnaire via telephone interviews and web and online panel surveys and found evidence of greater concurrent validity and less measurement error in the web and panel data (Chang & Krosnick, 2009; Malhotra & Krosnick, 2007; Thomas, Krane, Taylor & Terhanian, 2008).

Potential panelists arrive to an online panel website, such as oneopinion.com, either by responding to measures of site promotion, word-of mouth and referral schemes, or invitation by mail, email or phone. Both Raulfs (1998) and Goritz et al. (2002) found that approximately 60% of survey respondents can be won over to a panel. Potential panelists sign up by filling out a registration form in which the panelists' profile data is gathered and fed into a database. At a minimum, most reputable research companies in the United States follow what is called a double opt-in process, whereby a person indicates his/her interest to join the panel, and then the company sends a follow-up email where the person must take a positive action to indicate interest in joining the panel. This double opt-in process has come to define the difference between a panel and simply a database of email addresses. After agreeing to join, panelists are typically assigned a unique identification number which is used to track the panelist throughout their lifetime on the panel (Baker et al., 2010). When a sufficient number of panelists or a satisfactory number of particular target people have enrolled, they can be sampled and subsequently invited to surveys. In order to keep non-response low, panelists are often compensated for their participation which include incentives such as direct payments, bonus-points and raffle tickets (Goritz et al., 2002). An active member is typically defined as a panelist who has either participated in at least one survey or update his/her profile in the past year (Baker et al., 2010).

Researchers have to avoid being "survey-happy" with the same respondents and strive not to generate panel fatigue or panel conditioning (Bannan, 2003; Schonlau, Ronald & Elliot, 2003). Specialty panels that survey panelists on the same topics are at a higher risk of creating professional respondents, as are the panels for companies with a

concentration of customers from a single sector (Evans & Mathur, 2005). While obtaining a sample that is representative for the general population is not possible for online surveys because participants select themselves, there is a caveat for online panelists. In general, online panelists do select themselves for the panel in its entirety, but they do not pick themselves for individual surveys. Because of this, the phenomenon of self-selection is only in the first, but most important recruitment stage and the representative problem is alleviated. However, online panelist data can suffer from lacking generalizability (Goritz et al., 2002). There has been research that has shown incidences of false qualifying with online panels. Miller (2008) found an average of about 5% fraudulent respondents across the 20 panels he studied. These respondents are often referred to as fraudulents or gamers who assumed false identities or misrepresent their qualifications in order to maximize rewards (Baker & Downes-LeGuin, 2007).

Online Survey Panel Selection

The researcher used an online survey panel company to collect respondents for the primary study. The researcher put out bids for 300 responses for two sets of fans who attended home games of the MLB teams selected during the 2016 season to 5 online survey panel. This was a total of 600 responses. The bids ranged from \$3.00 to \$8.75 depending on company and team requested, with an outlier of \$26.75. After researching each individual company, the researcher chose to accept the bid of \$3.00 a response from Critical Mix. Because of the length of the survey and the potential for fraudulent responses, the researcher included 2 attention filter statements in order to easily identify respondents and filter out those responses from valid ones. “Please answer somewhat

disagree” was included as part of the Perception of the Team’s Financial Status subscale and “Please answer somewhat agree” was included as part of the Brand Awareness subscale. If the participant did not answer either of those two statements correctly, their responses were not included in the data analysis.

Critical Mix

Critical Mix offers its customer access to their proprietary online panels including OneOpinion, which was used to collect data for this study. These panels were developed and actively managed by a team of experienced panel managers whose sole responsibilities are to ensure the quality, composition, and activity level of each panel. Panelists are recruited using both online and offline methods and are validated using third-party sources before he/she can become an active panel member. Validity is maintained using Critical Mix’s proprietary sampling platform which was built specifically with the goal of mitigating bias, reducing the opportunities for human error, and improving the quality of online research. Panel members are typically invited to take part in a survey via an email link which typically includes length of the survey, the incentive amount for completing the survey and link to the survey. The Critical Mix panels offer cash-based and point-based incentives to all respondents which depends on the length of the survey and the likelihood of finding the targeted respondents. Critical Mix uses their third-part Imperium products (RelevantID and Verity) to validate its panelists and ensure that client surveys are free of fraudulent respondents. In order to avoid respondent bias, Critical Mix enforces contact frequency to restrict panelists from participating in too many surveys during a given period of time (Critical Mix, 2015).

Data Collection for Study

As stated before, Critical Mix was chosen as the online survey panel company to collect 300 responses for each of the two MLB team fans for a total of 600 responses utilizing the online survey developed through Qualtrics. Critical Mix told the researcher that it would take a total of approximately 2 weeks to collect the 600 responses. Data collection started on May 5, 2017, and was initially completed on May 16, 2017. On May 16, 2017, the data showed 344 responses for the Midwest MLB team and 299 for the west coast MLB team. The researcher went through and cleaned the data of incomplete responses and responses that did not answer the attention filter statements correctly. After cleaning the data, the sample was down to 224 for the Midwest MLB team and 220 for the west coast team. Critical Mix starting collecting more responses and finished collecting responses on June 6, 2017. The total initial responses for the survey was 2,633 responses. After filtering out responses that did not qualify for the survey and only keeping fully complete responses as well as the responses that answered the two attention filter questions correctly, the final sample size was 657 combined responses. The final sample size was 341 fans who attended a game of the Midwest team and 316 fans who attended a game of the West coast team.

Assumptions of Multivariate Analysis

All multivariate statistical procedures are based to some degree on assumptions. A purpose of screening data is to assess the adequacy of fit between the data and the assumptions of a specific procedure (Mertler & Vannatta, 2013). If one or more of the assumptions are violated, the results of the analysis may be biased (Kennedy & Bush,

1985). These are the assumptions that the researcher is using and the results of the normality and multicollinearity tests will be presented in the results section.

Normality

In order to make sure that the data are appropriate for multivariate analysis, a test for normality must be conducted. If the data fails to meet this assumption, this will result in inflated chi-square statistics which will affect the model fit (Mertler & Reinhart, 2003). In this study, normality of the data set were determined on the basis of the skewness and kurtosis statistics. Skewness was determined with the data if a variable had an absolute value greater than 3. Kurtosis was determined with the data if all the variables were above the acceptable range of 10. These cutoff values were adopted from Kline (2015).

Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is a statistical phenomenon in which two or more variables are highly correlated. Pearson's r statistic is used in this study to determine the level of correlation between variables (Mertler & Reinhart, 2003). A Pearson's r statistic greater than .850 is indicative of potential issues with multicollinearity (Kline, 2015). In structural equation modeling, latent variables are assigned a metric of 1 with standardized regression weights within a plus or minus 1 range. Violating the multicollinearity assumptions can inflate those statistics which causes parameter estimates to no longer be the best linear unbiased estimates.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is a method of discovering the number and nature of latent variables that explain the variation and covariation in a set of measured variables (Preacher & MacCallum, 2003). There is a general consensus that EFA is preferable to the Principal Components Analysis (PCA) mainly because EFA seeks the least number of factors which can account for the common variance shared by a set of variables. Factors reflect the common variance of the variables, excluding unique variance (Krishnan, 2011). It does not differentiate between unique variance and error variance to reveal the underlying factor structure (Costello & Osborne, 2009). In contrast, PCA accounts for the total variance of variables. Components reflect the common variance of variables plus the unique variance (Garson, 2010). PCA is computed without regard to any underlying structure cause by latent variables (Costello & Osborne, 2009). Components are calculated using all of the variance of the manifest variables, and all of that variance appears in the solution (Ford, 1986). The issue with this is that researchers rarely collect and analyze data with an a priori idea about how the variables are related (Floyd & Widaman, 1995). Preacher and MacCallum (2003) strongly recommended that PCA be avoided unless the researcher is specifically interested in data reduction.

The aim of EFA is to reveal any latent variables that cause the manifest variables to covary. During factor extraction, the shared variance of a variable is partitioned from its unique variance and error variance to reveal the underlying factor structure. Only shared variance does not discriminate between shared and unique variance (Costello & Osborne, 2009). When the factors are uncorrelated and communalities are moderate, it

can produce inflated values accounted for by the components (Gorsuch, 1997). Since EFA only analyzes shared variance, EFA should yield the same solution (all other things being equal) while also avoiding the inflation of estimates of variance accounted for (Costello & Osborne, 2009).

This study utilizes maximum likelihood extraction which allows the computation of a wide range of goodness-of-fit indices (Krishnan, 2011). Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum and Strahan (1999) argued that if data are relatively normally distributed, maximum likelihood is the best choice because it also permits statistical significance testing of the factor loading and correlations among factors and the computation of confidence intervals. Gaskin (2017) states that maximum likelihood maximizes differences between factors and is the approach used in AMOS, so if the researcher is going to use AMOS for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural modeling, maximum likelihood should be used during the EFA.

This study also utilizes a varimax rotation. Rotation cannot improve the basic aspects of the analysis, such as the amount of variance extracted from the items (Costello & Osborne, 2009). Orthogonal rotations constrain factors to be uncorrelated. Varimax (Kaiser, 1958) has been generally regarded as the best orthogonal rotation and is overwhelmingly the most widely used orthogonal rotation in psychological research (Fabrigar et al., 1999). Researchers have indicated a preference of orthogonal rotations because of its simplicity and conceptual clarity (Nunnally, 1978). For varimax rotation, a simple solution means that each factor has a small number of large loadings and a large number of small loadings. This simplifies the interpretation because, after a varimax rotation, each original variable tends to be associated with one or a small number of

factors, and each factor represents only a small number of variables. The factors can often be interpreted from the opposition of few variables with positive loadings to few variables with negative loadings (Abdi, 2003).

Factor Retention in Exploratory Factor Analysis

One of the most critical methodological decision for researchers using EFA is the number of factors to retain (Hayton, Allen & Scarpello, 2004). Factor retention decisions may be more important than other relevant decisions (i.e. choice of factor analytic method, type of rotation) because there is evidence of robustness across alternatives for these other decisions (Zwick & Velicer, 1986). EFA needs to balance parsimony with adequately representing underlying correlations, so its utility depends on being able to differentiate major factors from minor ones (Fabrigar et al., 1999). There is conceptual and empirical evidence that both specifying too few factors and specifying too many factors are substantial errors that affect results, with specifying too few considered too few (Hayton et al., 2004). Both types of misspecifications have been empirically demonstrated to lead to poor factor-loading pattern reproduction and interpretation (Velicer, Eaton & Fava, 2000).

Despite all the evidence and research with factor retention decisions, there is no overall consensus on the appropriate criteria to use. Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) stated that one of the issues with EFA is that there is no criterion against which to test the solution as the interpretation of results is based on researcher judgement. A general rule is that when using EFA, researchers should retain factors until additional factor account

for trivial variance (Hayton et al., 2004). Researchers are advised to use both multiple criteria and reasoned reflection (Henson & Roberts, 2006).

One of the most commonly used methods is the Kaiser or mineigen greater than 1 criterion (K1), which retain factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 (Kaiser, 1960). The rationale is that the reliability of a component must always be nonnegative when its eigenvalue is greater than 1 (Kaiser, 1970). The K1 rule is the default retention criterion for a number of commonly used statistical packages, including SPSS (Hayton et al., 2004). Fabrigar et al. (1999) concluded that not only is there substantial evidence that K1 is inaccurate, but they could find no study in which this rule worked well.

Another commonly used method when determining factor retention is Catell's (1966) scree test, which involves an examination of a plot of the eigenvalues for breaks or discontinuities. The rationale for this test is that a few major factors for the most variance, resulting in a steep cliff as these factors are identified first, followed by a shallow scree describing the small and relatively consistent variance accounted for by the numerous minor factors (Hayton et al., 2004). Identify the break point in which the scree begins and retain only factors that do not belong to the scree (Catell & Jaspers, 1967). The scree test suffers from subjectivity and ambiguity (Hayton et al., 2004).

Mertler and Vannatta (2013) mention a third criterion when determining the number of factors to retain. This criterion is to retain and interpret as many factors as will account for a certain amount of variance. The general rule of thumb is to retain the number of factors that account for at least 70% of the total variability (Stevens, 2001). This number can depend on the type of research that is being conducted. In social sciences, where information is often less precise, it is not uncommon to consider a

solution that accounts for 60 percent of the total variance (and in some cases even less) as satisfactory (Hair, Black, Babin & Andersen, 2010).

Just as it is important to have criteria to determine what factors to keep, it is also important to have criteria for individual item retention on the individual items. Item communalities are useful for recommending which items should be deleted and which should be retained (Douglas, 2008). An item's communality measures the amount of variance that is accounted for by the factor solution (Hair et al., 2010). Communality scores assess the acceptable levels of explanation for each observed variable as well as to help to determine whether or no sufficient components have been retained in the solution. Ranging on a scale of 0 to 1.0, items with communalities closer to 1.0 were candidates for retention and indicate suitability for factoring. Researchers have recommended .50 as minimum acceptable limits for items communalities (Hair et al., 2010).

The other important criterion for individual item retention is factor loadings. Items with a loading above .40 were kept in this study as acceptable, while values over .50 were considered practically significant, and values greater than .70 indicate a well-defined structure (Hair et al., 2010). This study also considered deleting items with less than a .15 difference between the target factor loading and any cross loading. A cross loading occurs when variables have more than one significant loading on components (Hair et al., 2010).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

After an EFA is run, a confirmatory factory analysis (CFA) is then run in AMOS in order to determine or confirm the dataset and the model. CFA is a confirmatory

technique and is theory driven. The researcher uses a hypothesized model to estimate a population covariance matrix that is compared with the observed covariance matrix. Technically, the researcher wants to minimize the difference between the estimated and observed matrices. The hypothesized model is tested to see how well it fits the model (Schreiber, Nora, Stage, Barlow & King, 2006). The CFA is also known as the measurement model of the structural equation model and depicts the pattern of observed variables for those latent constructs in the hypothesized model. A major component of a CFA is the test of the reliability of the observed variables. Researchers also use the CFA to examine the extent to interrelationships and covariation (or lack thereof) among the latent constructs (Schreiber et al., 2006). The CFA verifies the number of the factors and the patterns of item-factor relationships (Brown, 2014).

Factor loadings, unique variances, and modification indexes are estimated for one to derive the best indicators of latent variables prior to testing a structural model (Schreiber et al., 2006). CFA allows researchers to test a structure exactly and test whether or not it is plausible on the basis of both internal and external consistencies of unidimensionality (Dillette, 2016). When poor model fit is encountered in SEM studies, it is more likely that this will be due to misspecifications in the measurement model (CFA) than in the structural model. This is because there are usually more things that can go wrong in the measurement model than in the structural model (e.g. problems in the selection of observed measures, misspecified factor loadings, additional sources of covariation among observed measures that cannot be accounted for by the specified factors) (Brown, 2014).

In order to assess the model fit of the CFA and SEM with the hypothesized theory, the model fit must be tested to see how well the proposed model accounts for all the correlation between the variables. If the researcher accounts for the major correlations inherent in the data set, then the model will have good fit. If there is not a good fit, then there is a significant discrepancy between the correlations proposed and the actual correlations observed. There are differing reports of acceptable thresholds and which goodness-of-fit metrics to report. Goodness of fit is inversely related to sample size and the number of variables in the model. The acceptable thresholds for this study regarding goodness-of-fit come from Dillette (2016), Hair et al. (2010), and Hu & Bentler (1999) and are shown in Table 2.

Table 3.2 CFA Model Fit Statistics Thresholds

Goodness of Fit Indices		
Indices	Threshold	Interpretation
Chi-Square (χ^2)	Low chi-square with insignificant p-values expected. Sig. p-values expected when sample size is > 250	Chi-square statistic is inflated tremendously as sample size gets larger.
Chi-square/df (cmin/df)	< 3 good; < 5 sometimes permissible	Minimum discrepancy divided by its degrees of freedom.
Goodness of Fit index (GFI)	> .90	The possible range of GFI is 0 to 1, with values closer to 1 representing good fit. Values at .90 or above are typically desired good.
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	< .08	Estimates how well a model fits a population, not just the sample used for estimation. Values < .08 are acceptable, while lower values reflect better fit.
Standardized root mean residual (SRMR)	< .09	SRMR over .1 suggests a problem with fit. Useful for comparing fit across models
Incremental Fit Indices		
Tucker Lewis index (TLI) and Comparative fit index (CFI)	> .95 great; > .90 traditional > .80 sometimes permissible	TLI is a comparison of the normed chi-square values for the null and specified model. CFI is an incremental fit index that is an improved version of the normed fit index
Parsimony fit Indices		
Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI)	> .80	Attempts to take into account differing degrees of model complexity.
<i>p</i> of close fit (PCLOSE)	> .05	if <i>p</i> is greater than .05, then the model fit is close. Sample size is a critical factor.

Absolute fit indices are an exact measure of how well the model specified by the researcher reproduces the observed data. Incremental fit indices assess how well an estimated model fits relative to some alternative base model. Parsimony fit indices are designed specifically to provide which model among a set of competing models is best, considering its fit relative to its complexity (Dillente, 2016; Hair et al., 2010).

Convergent and discriminant validity, as well as reliability, must be established as well when conducting a CFA. Composite reliability is used to measure the latent variable's internal consistence. The threshold value from composite reliability is .70 as suggested by Hair et al. (2010). Convergent validity is tested using the factor loadings and t-values of each construct to see whether the measured variable toward the construct has completely standardized estimates above .50, and whether it is statistically significant (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). An adequate convergent validity should also contain, at minimum, less than 50% average variances extracted (AVE) (Hair et al., 2010). Discriminant validity is based on a comparison of squared pair-wise correlations between constructs and the individual AVE value for each construct (Hair et al., 2010). Each construct's AVE should be greater than the square of their correlations with the other constructs.

Structural Equation Modeling

Structural equation modeling (SEM) has been described as a combination of exploratory factor analysis and multiple regression (Ullman, 2001). Schreiber et al. (2006) state to think of SEM as CFA and multiple regression because SEM is more of a

confirmatory technique, but can also be used for exploratory purposes. SEM extends the possibility of relationships among latent variables and has two components: a measurement model (CFA) and a structural model. SEM is a statistical methodology that takes a confirmatory approach to the analysis of a structural theory bearing on some phenomenon (Byrne, 2010). This theory typically represents causal processes that generate observations on multiple variables (Bentler, 1988).

There are two other terms associated with SEM which are exogenous, similar to independent variables, and endogenous, similar to dependent variables. In the context of SEM, exogenous variables represent those constructs that exert an influence on other constructs under study and are not influenced by other factors in the quantitative model. Those constructs identified as endogenous are affected by exogenous and other endogenous variables in the model (Schreiber et al., 2006). The structural model displays the interrelations among latent constructs and observable variables in the proposed model as a succession of structural equations – akin to running several regression equations (Schreiber et al., 2006). There are two aspects to SEM: (a) that the causal processes under the study are represented by a series of structural (regression) equations and (b) that these structural relations can be modeled pictorially to enable a clearer conceptualization of the theory under study. The hypothesized model can then be tested statistically in a simultaneous analysis of the entire system of variables to determine the extent to which it is consistent with the data (Byrne, 2010).

There are a number of aspects that set SEM apart from older multivariate procedures. It takes a confirmatory approach to the data analysis. By demanding that the pattern of intervariable relations be specified beforehand, SEM lends itself well to the

analysis of data for inferential purposes. Most other multivariate procedures are mainly descriptive in nature (EFA), so hypothesis testing is difficult if not impossible. While traditional multivariate procedures are incapable of either assessing or correcting for measurement error, SEM provides specific estimates of these error variance parameters. Data analysis using former multivariate methods are based on observed measurements only, those using SEM procedures can incorporate both unobserved and observed variables. There are also no widely and easily applied alternative methods for modeling multivariate relations, or for estimating point and/or interval indirect effect except for SEM (Byrne, 2010).

A researcher creates a statistical model based on theory or empirical research. Once that statistical model is specified, the researcher then tests its plausibility based on sample data that comprise all the variables in the model. The primary task in this model-testing procedure is to determine goodness-of-fit between the hypothesized model and the sample data. The researcher imposes the structure of the hypothesized model on that sample data, and tests how well the observed data fit the model. Since it is highly unlikely that a perfect fit exists between the sample data and the hypothesized model, there will be a difference between the two. This difference is called the residual.

Summed up in an equation; $\text{Data} = \text{Model} + \text{Residual}$ (Byrne, 2010).

Summary

In closing, this chapter has provided an in-depth overview of the research methodology used for this research study. The study sample, survey design, pilot study,

data collection for the study, as well as the data analysis methods were included in this chapter. The next chapter will go through the data analysis and results of this study.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter outlines the data analysis and findings of the study. First, the demographics of the respondents for the combined MLB teams sample are identified. This is followed by an exploratory factor analysis for the factor structure of the individual measurement scales in the survey design. After the factors are set by the EFA, and confirmatory factor analysis will be run based off of the EFA, and then structural equation modeling is utilized to test the first 10 hypotheses. This process will then be repeated to test hypothesis 11, with demographics, an EFA, CFA and SEM analysis is conducted with the 2 individual MLB team samples to determine any differences.

Demographics for MLB Teams Combined Sample

The sample consisted of 657 participants, approximately two thirds of them were women ($n = 423$), while the rest were men ($n = 233$) or transgender ($n = 1$). Table 4.1 shows the frequencies and percentages for ethnic status. Approximately 72% of the participants were Caucasians, and the remaining participants were mainly Asian (11.4%), African American (7.2%), and Hispanic or Latino (7.0%). Table 4.1 reports the frequencies and percentages for marital status. Approximately half of the respondents were married, while the next most common category was single, never married (38.4%).

Table 4.1 reports the frequencies and percentages of household income of the respondents. The most frequently occurring household income category was \$50,000 - \$74,999 (21.0%), while the least common household income category was \$150,000 - \$174,999 (4.0%). Table 4.1 reports the frequencies and percentages associated with occupation. The most frequently occurring job category is professional, and the least common job category was Travel Industry.

Table 4.1: Combined MLB Teams Sample Demographics

Category	n	%	Category	n	%
Age			Marital Status		
18-30	184	28.00%	Single, Never Married	252	38.40%
31-40	201	30.60%	Married	332	50.50%
41-50	98	14.90%	Separated	9	1.40%
51-60	83	12.60%	Divorced	48	7.30%
61+	91	13.90%	Widowed	16	2.50%
Gender			Occupation		
Male	233	35.50%	Executive/Manager	92	14.00%
Female	423	64.40%	Professional	138	21.00%
Other	1	0.20%	Government/Military	11	1.70%
Education			Teacher/Professor	29	4.40%
Did not complete high school	3	0.50%	Salesman/Buyer	25	3.80%
High school/GED	70	10.70%	Secretary/Clerk	34	5.20%
Some college	215	32.70%	First-line Supervisor	15	2.30%
Bachelors' degree	220	33.50%	Self-Employed	37	5.60%
Masters degree	117	17.80%	Travel Industry	6	0.90%
Advanced graduate work or PhD	32	4.90%	Housewife	54	8.20%
Ethnicity			Student	55	8.40%
American Indian or Alaskan Native	6	0.90%	Retired	68	10.40%
Asian	75	11.40%	Other	93	14.20%
African American	47	7.20%	Household Income		
Caucasian	475	72.30%	0-\$24,999	51	7.80%
Hispanic or Latino	46	7.00%	\$25,000-\$49,999	131	19.90%
Middle Eastern	5	0.80%	\$50,000-\$74,999	138	21.00%
Pacific Islander	3	0.50%	\$75,000-\$99,999	117	17.80%
			\$100,000-\$124,999	92	14.00%
			\$125,000-\$149,999	47	7.20%
			\$150,000-\$174,999	26	4.00%
			\$175,000-\$199,999	25	3.80%
			\$200,000 and up	30	4.60%

Baseball Descriptives for MLB Teams Combined Sample

The sample consisted of 657 participants, approximately half them attended a home game of the Midwest MLB team ($n = 341$), while the rest attended a home game of the west coast MLB team ($n = 341$). Table 4.2 shows the frequencies and percentages for season ticketholder status. Approximately 86% of the participants did not have season tickets, and the remaining participants did have season tickets (13.1%). Table 4.2 reports the frequencies and percentages for number of home games attended. Approximately over half of the respondents attended between 2 and 5 games during the 2016 season, while the next most common category was attended 1 game (17.2%). Table 4.2 reports the frequencies and percentages associated with years the respondents have been following the home team. The most frequently occurring category is 5-6 years, and the least common category is 3-4 years. Table 4.2 reports the frequencies and percentages for number of other MLB teams the respondents follow other than the home team. Approximately half of the respondents do not follow any other MLB teams ($n = 321$), while the next two most popular categories are one other team ($n = 213$) and two other teams ($n = 88$).

Table 4.2: Combined MLB Teams Sample Baseball Descriptives

Category	n	%	Category	n	%
Home Team			Years Following the Home Team		
West Coast	316	48.1%	Less than 1 year	27	4.1%
Midwest	341	51.9%	1-2 years	39	5.9%
			3-4 years	52	7.9%
			5-6 years	57	8.7%
			7-8 years	47	7.2%
			8+ years	435	66.2%
Season Ticket Holder			Other MLB teams followed		
Yes	86	13.1%	0	321	48.9%
No	571	86.9%	1	213	32.4%
Home Games Attended			2	88	13.4%
1 game	113	17.2%	3	25	3.8%
2-5 games	359	54.6%	4	6	0.9%
6-10 games	109	16.6%	5 or more	4	0.6%
11-15 games	40	6.1%			
16-20 games	18	2.7%			
21-25 games	6	0.9%			
25+ games	12	1.8%			

Survey and Factor Legend

As the researcher goes through the results of the normality assumptions, as well as the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, please to refer to this legend to look at the coding on the individual items to the corresponding survey statement.

Survey Legend

Abbreviation	Variable Name
GDSQ	Game Day Service Quality
TI	Team Identification
PFS	Perception of Team's Financial Status
ATS	Attitude Toward Sponsor
V	Valence
BA	Brand Awareness
PES	Previous Experience with Sponsor
PF	Perceived Fit
BIm	Brand Image
FBI	Future Behavioral Intentions
BId	Brand Identity

Survey Legend Continued

Individual Items	Survey Statement
GDSQ1	The quality of beverages inside the stadium
GDSQ2	The number of restrooms available inside the stadium
GDSQ3	The amount of time it takes to get around once inside the stadium
GDSQ4	The service you received from food and beverage vendors
GDSQ5	The service you received from all other stadium personnel
GDSQ6	The overall safety and security of the stadium
GDSQ7	The friendliness of the security staff at the stadium
TI1	I often display the TEAM name or insignia at my workplace, home, or on my clothing.
TI2	When someone praises the TEAM, it feels like a personal compliment.
TI3	I feel a sense of "ownership" for the TEAM rather than just being a fan.
TI4	When someone criticizes the TEAM, it feels like a personal insult.
TI5	When the TEAM lose a game, it feels like my personal failure.
PFS1	Without the facility naming rights sponsorship, I believe the TEAM do not have enough funds to renovate the stadium.
PFS2	I think that the TEAM need the income from the facility naming rights sponsorship to run the team.
PFS3	Due to the enormous growth in the cost of facilities, marketing, and player salaries, major league baseball owners have struggled to find needed resources to fund their teams.
PFS4	The TEAM are financially challenged to run a competitive team.
ATS1	I think favorably of a TEAM fan who purchases products and/or services from SPONSOR.
ATS2	I think that it is a wonderful idea to buy products and/or services produced by SPONSOR.
ATS3	I think favorably of SPONSOR.
ATS4	Because SPONSOR is the naming rights sponsor, I have a positive attitude toward SPONSOR.
V1RC	Extremely bad - Extremely Good
V2	Extremely sad - Extremely Happy
V3RC	Extremely dissatisfied - Extremely satisfied
V4	Extremely angry - Thrilled
V5	Extremely depressed - Extremely elated
BA1	I can recognize SPONSOR among other competing brands.
BA2	I am aware of SPONSOR.
BA3	Some characteristics of SPONSOR come to mind quickly.

Survey Legend Continued

Individual Items	Survey Statement
PES	How many products or services have you ever purchased from SPONSOR?
PES1RC	I am satisfied with my decision to purchase a product(s) and/or service(s) from SPONSOR.
PES2RC	My choice to buy a product(s) and/or service(s) from SPONSOR was a wise one.
PES3RC	I think that I did the right thing when I bought a product(s) and/or service(s) from SPONSOR.
PES4neg	I am not happy that I bought a product(s) and/or service(s) from SPONSOR.
PES5	I truly enjoyed my purchase of a product(s) and/or service(s) from SPONSOR.
PES5RC	I truly enjoyed my purchase of a product(s) and/or service(s) from SPONSOR.
PF1RC	There is a close fit between SPONSOR and the TEAM.
PF2RC	SPONSOR and the TEAM have many similarities.
PF3RC	It makes sense that SPONSOR is the facility naming rights sponsor for the MLB TEAM.
PF4RC	My image of the TEAM is consistent with my image of SPONSOR.
BIm1	The user of SPONSOR products and/or services is unique.
BIm2	The user of SPONSOR products and/or services is energetic.
BIm3	The user of SPONSOR products and/or services is smart.
BIm4	The company of SPONSOR is socially responsible.
BIm5	The company of SPONSOR is trustworthy.
BIm6	The service quality of SPONSOR is inconsistent.
BIm6RC	The service quality of SPONSOR is inconsistent.
BIm7	The service of SPONSOR is worthy.
FBI1	I am likely to attend future TEAM games.
FBI2	I am likely to purchase products/services from SPONSOR.
FBI3	I am likely to buy TEAM clothing.
FBI4	I am likely to support the TEAM.
BId1	I feel a strong sense of belonging to SPONSOR.
BId2	I identify strongly with SPONSOR.
BId3	SPONSOR embodies what I believe in.

Survey Legend Continued

Individual Items	Survey Statement
BId4	SPONSOR is like a part of me.
BId5	SPONSOR has a great deal of personal meaning to me.

Multivariate and Structural Equation Modeling Assumptions

As shown in chapter 3, the first main assumption for multivariate analysis that the data were normally distributed. If this assumption is violated, then using the data will result in an inflated chi-square statistic which will then affect the model fit. The researcher tested for normality in the dataset, by testing the skewness and kurtosis of all the individual survey items. The full results are in Tables 4.3a and 4.3b below. If a variable has a skewness statistic between -3 and 3 and a kurtosis statistic between -10 and 10, then the variable does not fail this assumption (Kline, 2015). As Tables 5a and 5b clearly shows, all the variables pass this assumption and are kept in the data analysis process.

In order to test an assumption of multicollinearity, an intercorrelation matrix was generated using Pearson's r statistic to determine the level of correlation between indicators. A Pearson's r greater than .80 is indicative of multicollinearity (Kline, 2015). All of the variables were significantly correlated at the .01 level. There was no observable problem as there were no variables that had correlations greater than .6, other than variables that were part of the same construct such as GDSQ, V, and BId.

TABLE 4.3a: Results of Skewness and Kurtosis

Individual Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
GDSQ1	4	.949	-1.018	.095	.856	.190
GDSQ2	3.97	1.023	-.976	.095	.342	.190
GDSQ3	3.66	1.011	-.545	.095	-.338	.190
GDSQ4	3.98	.922	-.876	.095	.604	.190
GDSQ5	4.11	.885	-.915	.095	.674	.190
GDSQ6	4.11	.919	-1.114	.095	1.168	.190
GDSQ7	4.15	.896	-1.098	.095	1.217	.190
TI1	3.72	1.260	-.865	.095	-.308	.190
TI2	3.56	1.168	-.608	.095	-.338	.190
TI3	3.43	1.208	-.478	.095	-.643	.190
TI4	3.332	1.264	-.414	.095	-.847	.190
TI5	2.65	1.312	.205	.095	-1.113	.190
PFS1	2.97	1.098	-.053	.095	-.545	.190
PFS2	3.19	1.066	-.294	.095	-.449	.190
PFS3	3.2	1.052	-.301	.095	-.493	.190
PFS4	2.65	1.178	.306	.095	-.730	.190
ATS1	3.79	.939	-.473	.095	.105	.190
ATS2	3.39	.996	-.282	.095	.027	.190
ATS3	3.91	.999	-.931	.095	.638	.190
ATS4	3.61	1.067	-.528	.095	-.115	.190
V1RC	4.1994	.89959	-1.096	.095	.579	.190
V2	3.97	1.016	-.860	.095	-.008	.190
V3RC	4.1263	.92436	-.997	.095	.445	.190
V4	3.89	.894	-.246	.095	-.787	.190
V5	3.84	.882	-.201	.095	-.663	.190
BA1	4.45	.739	-1.590	.095	3.442	.190
BA2	4.71	.596	-1.982	.095	8.546	.190
BA3	4.28	.826	-1.124	.095	1.130	.190
BA4	4.54	.742	-1.801	.095	3.282	.190
BA5RC	4.33	1.014	-1.664	.095	2.251	.190
PES1	3.88	1.204	-.970	.095	-.032	.190
PES2	3.83	1.166	-.825	.095	-.150	.190
PES3	3.86	1.138	-.846	.095	-.023	.190
PES4neg	3.75	1.339	-.808	.095	-.601	.190
PES5	3.85	1.154	-.817	.095	-.208	.190

TABLE 4.3b: Results of Skewness and Kurtosis continued

Individual Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
PF1RC	3.97	1.112	-0.901	0.095	-0.006	0.19
PF2RC	3.47	1.161	-0.376	0.095	-0.643	0.19
PF3RC	3.88	1.131	-0.741	0.095	-0.343	0.19
PF4RC	3.61	1.282	-0.579	0.095	-0.741	0.19
BIm1	3.21	1.159	-0.098	0.095	-0.749	0.19
BIm2	3.44	1.024	-0.264	0.095	-0.12	0.19
BIm3	3.54	0.996	-0.26	0.095	-0.188	0.19
BIm4	3.63	1.004	-0.338	0.095	-0.377	0.19
BIm5	3.71	1.049	-0.575	0.095	-0.207	0.19
BIm6RC	3.43	1.337	-0.409	0.095	-1.04	0.19
BIm7	3.77	0.995	-0.577	0.095	-0.111	0.19
FBI1	4.53	0.74	-1.729	0.095	3.167	0.19
FBI2	3.88	1.116	-0.927	0.095	0.246	0.19
FBI3	4.12	1.085	-1.242	0.095	0.884	0.19
FBI4	4.48	0.87	-2.118	0.095	4.888	0.19
BId1	3.23	1.25	-0.273	0.095	-0.864	0.19
BId2	3.2	1.268	-0.233	0.095	-0.927	0.19
BId3	3.14	1.184	-0.186	0.095	-0.603	0.19
BId4	2.91	1.297	0.005	0.095	-0.979	0.19
BId5	3.02	1.318	-0.094	0.095	-1.041	0.19

Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

A maximum likelihood exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted on the 50 items representing game day service quality, valence, team identification, perception of team's financial status, previous experience with sponsor, brand awareness, brand image, brand identity, future behavioral intentions, and perceived fit to determine how the items loaded onto factors. In order to determine if the data were appropriate for factoring, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's (KMO) measure of sampling Adequacy

and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was performed. The KMO cutoff score is .80, while the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity should have a significant chi-square (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999). With a KMO of .937 and chi-square significant at the $p < 0.000$ level (chi-square = 21162.671, $df = 990$), the factor analysis proceeded. Team Identification was dropped from the final model because items TI3, TI2, TI4, TI1, and TI5 loaded on the same factor as future behavioral intentions. Consequently, these items did not clearly delineate as an individual factor. BIM6RC was dropped from the final model as it did not load onto any factors. FBI2 was dropped from the final model as it loaded by itself with the brand image and brand identity factors on factor one and did not make any theoretical or empirical sense to group that one statement with those two variables. Brand image and brand identity loaded onto the same factor so they were combined into one factor for the final model and named brand image/identity. PF2RC and PF4RC did cross load on factors 1 and 7, but the loadings were higher on factor 7 and there was enough of a difference between the cross loadings that the researcher kept them in the final model.

Cronbach's alpha was run on the 8 factors to ensure that the reliability scores were still acceptable. The reliability scores ranged from .768 to .955, and were all deemed acceptable. The results of the maximum likelihood exploratory factor analysis with the reliability scores are below in Tables 4.4a and 4.4b. After varimax rotation, the 8 factor solution accounted for 70.4% of the variance. All 8 factors had eigenvalues above 1.

Table 4.4a: Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Cronbach's alpha
Brand Image/Identity			0.955
	BId4	0.869	
	BId2	0.867	
	BId3	0.863	
	BId1	0.836	
	BId5	0.821	
	BIm2	0.69	
	BIm5	0.683	
	BIm1	0.67	
	BIm4	0.664	
	BIm3	0.658	
	BIm7	0.614	
Game Day Service Quality			0.879
	GDSQ5	0.796	
	GDSQ7	0.759	
	GDSQ4	0.74	
	GDSQ6	0.707	
	GDSQ2	0.647	
	GDSQ1	0.609	
	GDSQ3	0.583	
Previous Experience with Sponsor			0.913
	PES2RC	0.872	
	PES3RC	0.864	
	PES1RC	0.818	
	PES5RC	0.761	
	PES4neg	0.52	
Valence			0.901
	V2	0.804	
	V5	0.801	
	V4	0.78	
	V1RC	0.762	
	V3RC	0.672	

Table 4.4b: Exploratory Factor Analysis Results continued

Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Cronbach's alpha
Brand Awareness			0.768
	BA2	0.714	
	BA1	0.708	
	BA4	0.659	
	BA3	0.544	
	BA5RC	0.531	
Perception of the Team's Financial Status			0.801
	PFS2	0.759	
	PFS3	0.695	
	PFS1	0.687	
	PFS4	0.659	
Perceived Fit			0.904
	PF3RC	0.688	
	PF1RC	0.672	
	PF2RC	0.644	
	PF4RC	0.624	
Future Behavioral Intention			0.82
	FBI4	0.866	
	FBI3	0.69	
	FBI1	0.641	

The items related to attitude toward sponsor were not included in the EFA. In order to confirm the underlying structure of attitude toward sponsor, and that the 4 items were related in each other, the intercorrelations were computed. As shown below in table 4.5, all 4 items related to attitude toward sponsor were statistically significantly correlated and were all greater than or equal to .43. These results confirmed the underlying factor structure of attitude toward sponsor and were included in the CFA and SEM model.

Table 4.5: Attitude Toward Sponsor Correlations

		Correlations			
		ATS1	ATS2	ATS3	ATS4
ATS1	Pearson Correlation	1	.481**	.579**	.634**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
	N	657	657	657	657
ATS2	Pearson Correlation	.481**	1	.432**	.473**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
	N	657	657	657	657
ATS3	Pearson Correlation	.579**	.432**	1	.712**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
	N	657	657	657	657
ATS4	Pearson Correlation	.634**	.473**	.712**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	657	657	657	657

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

A confirmatory factor analysis measurement model was created in AMOS with the 8 factor solution derived from the EFA. 5 items were dropped from the final model (GDSQ3, ATS2, PFS4, BA5RC, BA7) as the standardized regression weights, or factor loadings, were between .608 and .514, which was deemed unacceptable as they were not as close to the threshold of .7 (Hair et al., 2010) that they needed to be in order to be kept in the final model. Goodness of fit test statistics for evaluating the final CFA and SEM models were assessed. Thresholds for these statistics were adopted from Hair et al.

(2010) and Hu and Bentler (1999) as shown in Table 3.2. The chi-square statistic was significant, which is expected with any sample over 250. The CFA measurement showed good overall fit. The CMIN/DF was 2.169 which less than the recommended threshold of <3 . The goodness of fit (GFI) statistic was .888, which was just under the recommended threshold of $>.9$. The adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI) statistic (.869) showed good fit as well, above the recommended threshold of $>.8$. The root mean square error of approximation was .042 which was well below the recommended threshold of $<.08$, as was the standardized root mean residual (.0482) which indicated good model fit. Additional evidence of good model fit was provided with the Tucker Lewis index (TLI) (TLI = .949) and comparative fit index (CFI = .954) just around the recommended threshold of .95 for a great fit, and .90 for a traditional fit. The PCLOSE was significant at 1.000 which indicates close model fit.

Prior to running the final SEM model, additional tests for reliability and validity were conducted, as shown below in Table 4.6. Composite reliability scores (CR) were all above .7, which is the recommended threshold by Hair et al. (2010). Convergent validity was acceptable, as determined by calculating the AVE (average variance extracted), which was determined by the cutoff score of .5. Each construct passed discriminant validity, which is based on a comparison of squared pair-wise correlations between constructs and the individual AVE value for each construct (Hair et al., 2010), or by the MSV (maximum squared variance) being greater than the AVE. Each construct's AVE should be greater than the square of their correlations with other constructs, which shows that discriminate validity is achieved since each construct is significant different from one another.

Table 4.6: Validity and Reliability Scores

	CR	AVE	MSV	FBI	BIm/Id	GDSQ	PES	V	BA	PFS	PF	ATS
FBI	0.838	0.635	0.165	0.797								
BIm/Id	0.949	0.655	0.642	0.298	0.810							
GDSQ	0.876	0.543	0.114	0.312	0.286	0.737						
PES	0.923	0.712	0.358	0.209	0.525	0.289	0.844					
V	0.898	0.640	0.158	0.381	0.377	0.310	0.274	0.800				
BA	0.763	0.519	0.165	0.406	0.270	0.304	0.253	0.167	0.720			
PFS	0.780	0.545	0.073	0.098	0.239	0.011	0.094	0.113	0.009	0.739		
PF	0.904	0.703	0.503	0.285	0.697	0.323	0.598	0.333	0.339	0.077	0.838	
ATS	0.845	0.647	0.642	0.350	0.801	0.337	0.544	0.398	0.339	0.270	0.709	0.804

Structural Equation Model

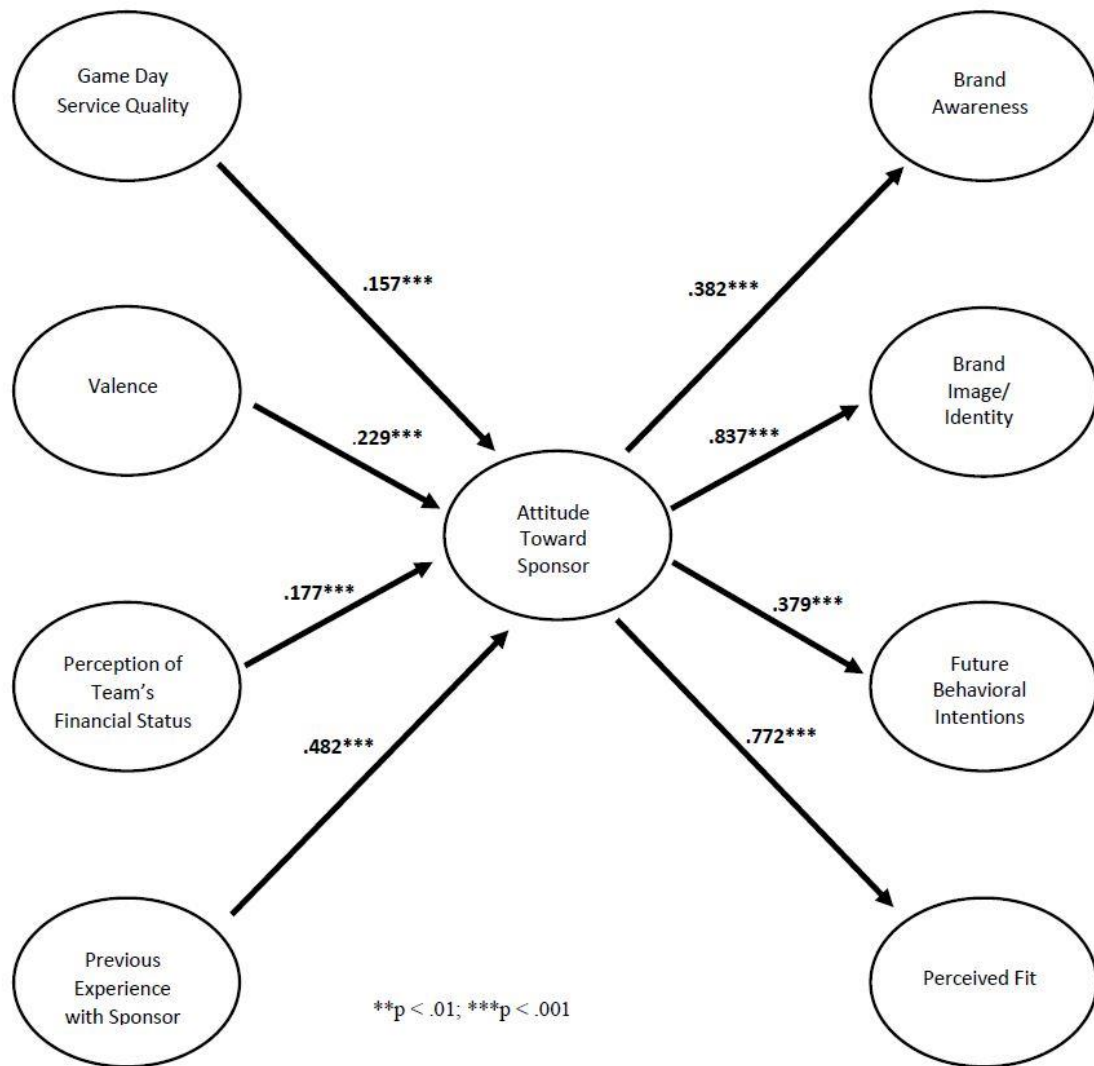
Structural equation modeling was used to test the hypothesized model (Figure 2.1) in AMOS v. 22. However, because team identification was removed during the EFA process, it was also removed from the structural model, therefore hypotheses H₀₃ and H_{A3} could not be tested. Because brand image and brand identity was combined during the EFA process, it was tested as one factor instead of two individual factors as hypothesized. A structural model with 9 constructs was estimated. CFI, AGFI, and RMSEA were .945, .856, and .046. Therefore, the model fit the data well. As shown in table 4.7 and figure 4.1, the remaining paths were found to be significant, which support hypotheses H_{A1}, H_{A2}, H_{A4}, H_{A5}, H_{A6}, H_{A7} and H_{A8} (as one factor), H_{A9}, and H_{A10}. This demonstrates that there are established relationships between game day service quality, valence, perception of the teams’ financial status, and previous experience with attitude toward sponsor. There are also established relationships between attitude toward sponsor and brand awareness, brand image/identity, future behavioral intentions, and perceived fit.

Table 4.7: Structural Paths for Combined Samples

Hypothesis	Path	Standardized Estimate	C.R.	Results
1	Game Day Service Quality --> Attitude Toward Sponsor	.157	4.18***	Supported
2	Valence --> Attitude Toward Sponsor	.229	6.04***	Supported
4	Perception of Team's Financial Status --> Attitude Toward Sponsor	.177	4.88***	Supported
5	Previous Experience with Sponsor --> Attitude Toward Sponsor	.482	10.44** *	Supported
6	Attitude Toward Sponsor --> Brand Awareness	.382	7.88***	Supported
7/8	Attitude Toward Sponsor --> Brand Image/Identity	.837	22.10** *	Partially Supported
9	Attitude Toward Sponsor --> Future Behavioral Intentions	.379	8.74***	Supported
9	Attitude Toward Sponsor --> Perceived Fit	.772	18.70** *	Supported

p < .01; *p < .001

Figure 4.1: Final combined MLB teams sample model with results



Individual MLB Teams Samples

Once the final combined MLB teams' model was tested and hypotheses one through ten were included in that model, there was still the testing of hypothesis 11 that needed to be completed. Hypothesis 11 was looking at the whether the type of facility naming rights sponsor's products would have a significant effect on the structural model of consumers' attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor. The structural modeling equation process was repeated for the two individual samples/An EFA, CFA, and SEM model was run on both west coast MLB team and the Midwest MLB team sample to determine any differences. The west coast MLB team's facility naming rights sponsor's products were mainly services, while the Midwest MLB team's facility naming rights sponsor's products were goods.

Demographics for West Coast MLB Team with a Services Sponsor

The sample consisted of 316 participants, approximately sixty percent were women ($n = 189$), while the rest were men ($n = 126$) or transgender ($n = 1$). Table 4.8 shows the frequencies and percentages for ethnic status. Approximately 56% of the participants were Caucasians, and the remaining participants were mainly Asian (22.8%), Hispanic or Latino (11.7%), and African American (5.4%). Table 4.8 reports the frequencies and percentages for marital status. Approximately just under half of the respondents were married, while the next most common category was single, never married (43.7%). Table 4.8 reports the frequencies and percentages of household income of the respondents. The most frequently occurring household income category was both \$75,000 - \$99,999 and \$100,000 - \$124,999 (17.7%), while the least common

household income category was \$200,000 and up (6.0%). Table 10 reports the frequencies and percentages associated with occupation. The most frequently occurring job category is professional, and the least common job category was Travel Industry

Table 4.8: West Coast MLB Team with a Services Sponsor Demographics

Category	n	%	Category	n	%
Age			Marital Status		
18-30	75	23.70%	Single, Never Married	138	43.70%
31-40	98	31.00%	Married	146	46.20%
41-50	53	16.80%	Separated	4	1.30%
51-60	51	16.10%	Divorced	19	6.00%
61+	39	12.30%	Widowed	9	2.80%
Gender			Occupation		
Male	126	39.90%	Executive/Manager	56	17.70%
Female	189	59.80%	Professional	68	21.50%
Other	1	0.30%	Government/Military	6	1.90%
Education			Teacher/Professor	14	4.40%
Did not complete high school	1	0.30%	Salesman/Buyer	9	2.80%
High school/GED	24	7.60%	Secretary/Clerk	16	5.10%
Some college	90	28.50%	First-line Supervisor	8	2.50%
Bachelors' degree	122	38.60%	Self-Employed	20	6.30%
Master's degree	63	19.90%	Travel Industry	3	0.90%
Advanced graduate work or PhD	16	5.10%	Housewife	15	4.70%
Ethnicity			Student	39	12.30%
American Indian or Alaskan Native	5	1.60%	Retired	25	7.90%
Asian	72	22.80%	Other	37	11.70%
African American	17	5.40%	Household Income		
Caucasian	178	56.30%	0-\$24,999	22	7.00%
Hispanic or Latino	37	11.70%	\$25,000-\$49,999	47	14.90%
Middle Eastern	4	1.30%	\$50,000-\$74,999	48	15.20%
Pacific Islander	3	0.90%	\$75,000-\$99,999	56	17.70%
			\$100,000-\$124,999	56	17.70%
			\$125,000-\$149,999	26	8.20%
			\$150,000-\$174,999	21	6.60%
			\$175,000-\$199,999	21	6.60%
			\$200,000 and up	19	6.00%

Baseball Descriptives for West Coast MLB Team with a Services Sponsor

The sample consisted of 316 participants, of which approximately 82% of the participants did not have season tickets, and the remaining participants did not have season tickets (18%). Table 4.9 reports the frequencies and percentages for number of home games attended. Approximately over half of the respondents attended between 2 and 5 games during the 2016 season, while the next most common category was attended 1 game (19%). Table 4.9 reports the frequencies and percentages associated with years the respondents have been following the home team. The most frequently occurring category is 8+ years, and the least common category is less than 1 year. Table 4.9 reports the frequencies and percentages for number of other MLB teams the respondents follow other than the home team. Approximately over two thirds of the respondents follow one other MLB teams ($n = 118$), while the next two most popular categories are no other team ($n = 116$) and two other teams ($n = 61$).

Table 4.9: West Coast MLB Team with a Services Sponsor Baseball Descriptives

Category	n	%	Category	n	%
Season Ticket Holder			Years Following the Home Team		
		18.0			
Yes	57	%	Less than 1 year	16	5.1%
	25	82.0			
No	9	%	1-2 years	30	9.5%
					12.3
			3-4 years	39	%
					13.0
Home Games Attended			5-6 years	41	%
		19.0			
1 game	60	%	7-8 years	29	9.2%
	17	54.4		16	50.9
2-5 games	2	%	8+ years	1	%
		13.9			
6-10 games	44	%	Other MLB teams followed		
11-15 games	21	6.6%		11	36.7
				0	6
16-20 games	10	3.2%		11	37.3
				1	8
21-25 games	4	1.3%			19.3
				2	61
25+ games	5	1.6%		3	16
				4	3
					0.9%
			5 or more	2	0.6%

Demographics for Midwest MLB Team with a Goods Sponsor

The sample consisted of 341 participants, approximately seventy percent were women ($n = 234$), while the rest were men ($n = 107$). Table 4.10 shows the frequencies and percentages for ethnic status. Approximately 87% of the participants were Caucasians, and the remaining participants were mainly African American (22.8%) and Hispanic or Latino (8.8%). Table 4.10 reports the frequencies and percentages for marital status. Approximately over half of the respondents were married, while the next most common category was single, never married (33.4%). Table 4.10 reports the

frequencies and percentages of household income of the respondents. The most frequently occurring household income category was both \$50,000 - \$74,999 (26.4%), while the least common household income category was \$175,000 - \$199,999 (1.2%). Table 4.10 reports the frequencies and percentages associated with occupation. The most frequently occurring job category is professional, and the least common job category was Travel Industry.

Table 4.10: Midwest MLB Team with a Goods Sponsor Demographics

Category	n	%	Category	n	%
Age			Marital Status		
18-30	83	24.30%	Single, Never Married	114	33.40%
31-40	104	30.50%	Married	186	54.50%
41-50	58	17.00%	Separated	5	1.50%
51-60	56	16.40%	Divorced	29	8.50%
61+	40	11.70%	Widowed	7	2.10%
Gender			Occupation		
Male	107	31.40%	Executive/Manager	36	10.60%
Female	234	68.60%	Professional	70	20.50%
Education			Government/Military	5	1.50%
Did not complete high school	2	0.60%	Teacher/Professor	15	4.40%
High school/GED	46	13.50%	Salesman/Buyer	16	4.70%
Some college	125	36.70%	Secretary/Clerk	18	5.30%
Bachelors' degree	98	28.70%	First-line Supervisor	7	2.10%
Master's degree	54	15.80%	Self-Employed	17	5.00%
Advanced graduate work or PhD	16	4.70%	Travel Industry	3	0.90%
Ethnicity			Housewife	39	11.40%
American Indian or Alaskan Native	1	0.30%	Student	16	4.70%
Asian	3	0.90%	Retired	43	12.60%
African American	30	8.80%	Other	56	16.40%
Caucasian	297	87.10%	Household Income		
Hispanic or Latino	9	2.60%	0-\$24,999	29	8.50%
Middle Eastern	1	0.30%	\$25,000-\$49,999	24.6	24.60%
			\$50,000-\$74,999	26.4	26.40%
			\$75,000-\$99,999	17.9	17.90%
			\$100,000-\$124,999	10.6	10.60%
			\$125,000-\$149,999	6.2	6.20%
			\$150,000-\$174,999	1.5	1.50%
			\$175,000-\$199,999	1.2	1.20%
			\$200,000 and up	3.2	3.20%

Baseball Descriptives for Midwest MLB Team with a Goods Sponsor

The sample consisted of 341 participants, of which approximately 91% of the participants did not have season tickets, and the remaining participants did not have season tickets (8.5%). Table 4.11 reports the frequencies and percentages for number of home games attended. Approximately over half of the respondents attended between 2 and 5 games during the 2016 season, while the next most common category was attended 6-10 games (19.1%). Table 4.11 reports the frequencies and percentages associated with years the respondents have been following the home team. The most frequently occurring category is 8+ years, and the least common category is 1-2 years. Table 4.11 reports the frequencies and percentages for number of other MLB teams the respondents follow other than the home team. Approximately sixty percent of the respondents do not follow any other MLB teams ($n = 205$), while the next two most popular categories are one other team ($n = 95$) and two other teams ($n = 27$).

Table 4.11: Midwest MLB Team with Goods Sponsor Baseball Descriptives

Category	n	%	Category	n	%
Season Ticket Holder			Years Following the Home Team		
Yes	29	8.5%	Less than 1 year	11	3.2%
	31	91.5%	1-2 years	9	2.6%
No	2	%	3-4 years	13	3.8%
Home Games Attended			5-6 years	18	5.3%
		15.5%	7-8 years	17	5.0%
1 game	53	%		27	80.1%
	18	54.8%	8+ years	3	%
2-5 games	7	%	Other MLB teams followed		
		19.1%		20	60.1%
6-10 games	65	%	0	5	%
11-15 games	19	5.6%			27.9%
			1	95	%
16-20 games	8	2.3%	2	27	7.9%
			3	9	2.6%
21-25 games	2	0.6%	4	3	0.9%
25+ games	7	2.1%	5 or more	2	0.6%

Multivariate and Structural Equation Modeling Assumptions

As shown in chapter 3, the first main assumption for multivariate analysis is that the data are normally distributed. If this assumption is violated, then using the data will result in an inflated chi-square statistic which will then affect the model fit. The researcher tested for normality in the both sample datasets, by testing the skewness and kurtosis of all the individual survey items. The full results are in Tables 14a and 14b below. If a variable has a skewness statistic between -3 and 3 and a kurtosis statistic between -10 and 10, then the variable does not fail this assumption (Kline, 2015). As Tables 4.12a and 4.12b for the West Coast MLB Team with a services sponsor and

Tables 4.13a and 4.13b for the Midwest MLB Team with a goods sponsor clearly show, all the variables pass this assumption are kept in the data analysis process.

In order to test an assumption of multicollinearity, an intercorrelation matrix was generated using Pearson's r statistic to determine the level of correlation between indicators. A Pearson's r greater than .80 is indicative of multicollinearity (Douglas, 2008). All of the variables for both datasets were significantly correlated at the .01 level. There was no observable problem as there were no variables that had correlations greater than .6, other than variables that were part of the same construct such as GDSQ, V, and BId.

Table 4.12a: West Coast MLB Team with Services Sponsor Skewness and Kurtosis

Individual Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
GDSQ1	3.89	.926	-0.749	.137	.270	.273
GDSQ2	3.68	1.102	-.615	.137	-.496	.273
GDSQ3	3.49	1.079	-.334	.137	-.701	.273
GDSQ4	3.85	.951	-.651	.137	.069	.273
GDSQ5	3.97	.915	-.750	.137	.315	.273
GDSQ6	4.04	.914	-.965	.137	.867	.273
GDSQ7	4.01	.929	-.957	.137	.861	.273
TI1	3.49	1.327	-.642	.137	-.755	.273
TI2	3.47	1.161	-.534	.137	-.412	.273
TI3	3.31	1.241	-.299	.137	-.899	.273
TI4	3.21	1.282	-.326	.137	-.944	.273
TI5	2.72	1.366	.121	.137	-1.249	.273
PFS1	3.13	1.046	-.218	.137	-.412	.273
PFS2	3.36	1.035	-.376	.137	-.331	.273
PFS3	3.36	1.058	-.342	.137	-.471	.273
PFS4	2.92	1.169	.040	.137	-.775	.273
ATS1	3.66	.978	-.337	.137	-.097	.273
ATS2	3.58	.984	-.515	.137	.287	.273
ATS3	3.73	1.073	-.775	.137	.178	.273
ATS4	3.42	1.111	-.392	.137	-.310	.273
V1RC	4.0380	.93188	-.905	.137	.191	.273
V2	3.79	1.034	-.676	.137	-.274	.273
V3RC	3.9652	.95055	-.756	.137	-.165	.273
V4	3.77	.901	-.164	.137	-.722	.273
V5	3.74	.878	-.177	.137	-.448	.273
BA1	4.28	.799	-1.213	.137	1.999	.273
BA2	4.64	.614	-1.909	.137	4.740	.273
BA3	4.11	.854	-.835	.137	.484	.273
BA4	4.40	.788	-1.180	.137	.728	.273
BA5RC	4.06	1.100	-1.151	.137	.696	.273
PES1	3.59	1.190	-.688	.137	-.470	.273
PES2	3.59	1.147	-.602	.137	-.403	.273
PES3	3.63	1.146	-.640	.137	-.327	.273
PES4neg	3.41	1.336	-.417	.137	-1.067	.273
PES5	3.50	1.162	-.491	.137	-.598	.273
PF1RC	3.47	1.070	-.348	.137	-.390	.273

Table 4.12b: West Coast MLB Team with Services Sponsor Skewness and Kurtosis

continued

Individual Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
PF2RC	3.06	1.186	-0.008	0.137	-0.784	0.273
BIm1	3.07	1.189	-0.015	0.137	-0.847	0.273
BIm2	3.26	1.081	-0.191	0.137	-0.283	0.273
BIm3	3.42	1	-0.338	0.137	-0.026	0.273
BIm4	3.46	1.002	-0.249	0.137	-0.267	0.273
BIm5	3.56	1.075	-0.544	0.137	-0.205	0.273
BIm6RC	3.08	1.289	-0.077	0.137	-1.149	0.273
BIm7	3.53	1.046	-0.461	0.137	-0.36	0.273
FBI1	4.52	0.749	-1.728	0.137	3.063	0.273
FBI2	3.73	1.157	-0.829	0.137	0.013	0.273
FBI3	3.99	1.153	-1.106	0.137	0.466	0.273
FBI4	4.43	0.918	-2.098	0.137	4.646	0.273
BId1	3.03	1.282	-0.178	0.137	-1.028	0.273
BId2	3	1.303	-0.098	0.137	-1.057	0.273
BId3	2.94	1.22	-0.09	0.137	-0.799	0.273
BId4	2.72	1.333	0.163	0.137	-1.078	0.273
BId5	2.78	1.362	0.09	0.137	-1.175	0.273

Table 4.13a: Midwest MLB Team with Goods Sponsor Skewness and Kurtosis

Individual Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
GDSQ1	4.11	.959	-1.304	.132	.856	.263
GDSQ2	4.25	.860	-1.363	.132	2.101	.263
GDSQ3	3.82	.919	-.717	.132	.205	.263
GDSQ4	4.11	.878	-1.125	.132	1.489	.263
GDSQ5	4.23	.838	-1.092	.132	1.251	.263
GDSQ6	4.18	.920	-1.273	.132	1.591	.263
GDSQ7	4.27	.847	-1.255	.132	1.771	.263
TI1	3.94	1.155	-1.088	.132	.330	.263
TI2	3.66	1.169	-.693	.132	-.212	.263
TI3	3.54	1.167	-.654	.132	-.264	.263
TI4	3.43	1.239	-.497	.132	-.725	.263
TI5	2.59	1.258	.280	.132	-.954	.263
PFS1	2.83	1.126	.121	.132	-.528	.263
PFS2	3.03	1.071	-.218	.132	-.505	.263
PFS3	3.06	1.026	-.309	.132	-.516	.263
PFS4	2.39	1.128	.580	.132	-.347	.263
ATS1	3.91	.886	-.581	.132	.413	.263
ATS2	3.22	.978	-.098	.132	.104	.263
ATS3	4.09	.893	-1.020	.132	1.090	.263
ATS4	3.79	.992	-.620	.132	.131	.263
V1RC	4.35	.843	-1.326	.132	1.223	.263
V2	4.13	.972	-1.080	.132	.485	.263
V3RC	4.28	.875	-1.283	.132	1.483	.263
V4	4.00	.874	-.319	.132	-.836	.263
V5	3.94	.876	-.229	.132	-.868	.263
BA1	4.61	.640	-2.132	.132	6.769	.263
BA2	4.78	.572	-2.997	.132	9.892	.263
BA3	4.44	.767	-1.497	.132	2.495	.263
BA4	4.68	.669	-2.727	.132	8.831	.263
BA5RC	4.59	.852	-2.524	.132	6.448	.263
PES1	4.14	1.158	-1.380	.132	1.020	.263
PES2	4.05	1.142	-1.130	.132	.493	.263
PES3	4.07	1.090	-1.112	.132	.613	.263
PES4neg	4.07	1.262	-1.314	.132	.612	.263
PES5	4.17	1.050	-1.271	.132	.968	.263
PF1RC	4.42	.944	-1.946	.132	3.494	.263

Table 4.13b: Midwest MLB Team with Goods Sponsor Skewness and Kurtosis

continued

Individual Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
PF2RC	3.84	1.001	-0.657	0.132	-0.008	0.263
PF3RC	4.34	0.927	-1.61	0.132	2.486	0.263
PF4RC	4.05	1.09	-1.113	0.132	0.567	0.263
Blm1	3.34	1.115	-0.145	0.132	-0.633	0.263
Blm2	3.62	0.937	-0.208	0.132	-0.072	0.263
Blm3	3.65	0.981	-0.183	0.132	-0.429	0.263
Blm4	3.78	0.982	-0.434	0.132	-0.408	0.263
Blm5	3.85	1.007	-0.589	0.132	-0.276	0.263
Blm6RC	3.75	1.301	-0.802	0.132	-0.47	0.263
Blm7	4	0.886	-0.567	0.132	-0.092	0.263
FBI1	4.54	0.733	-1.737	0.132	3.33	0.263
FBI2	4.02	1.06	-1.019	0.132	0.509	0.263
FBI3	4.25	1.003	-1.362	0.132	1.312	0.263
FBI4	4.53	0.821	-2.113	0.132	5	0.263
Bld1	3.4	1.193	-0.332	0.132	-0.701	0.263
Bld2	3.39	1.207	-0.331	0.132	-0.76	0.263
Bld3	3.32	1.12	-0.225	0.132	-0.38	0.263
Bld4	3.08	1.239	-0.11	0.132	-0.786	0.263
Bld5	3.24	1.239	-0.217	0.132	-0.81	0.263

Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

A maximum likelihood exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted on the 50 items representing game day service quality, valence, team identification, perception of team's financial status, previous experience with sponsor, brand awareness, brand image, brand identity, future behavioral intentions, and perceived fit to determine how the items loaded onto factors. In order to determine if the data were appropriate for factoring, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's (KMO) measure of sampling Adequacy

and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was performed. An EFA was performed on both sample datasets

West Coast MLB team with a Services Sponsor

With a KMO of .904 and chi-square significant at the $p < 0.000$ level (chi-square = 9048.731, $df = 741$), the factor analysis proceeded. Perceived fit was dropped from the final model because items PF1RC, PF2RC, PF3RC, and PF4RC cross loaded on multiple factor without a great enough difference in the cross loadings to justify keeping them in the model. Consequently, these items did not clearly delineate as an individual factor. Team Identification was dropped from the final model because items TI3, TI2, TI4, TI1, and TI5 loaded on the same factor as future behavioral intentions. Consequently, these items did not clearly delineate as an individual factor. BIM6RC and BA3 were dropped from the final model as it did not load onto any factors. FBI2 was dropped from the final model as it loaded by itself with the brand image and brand identity factors on factor one and did not make any theoretical or empirical sense to group that one statement with those two variable. Brand image and brand identity loaded onto the same factor so they were combined into one factor for the final model and named brand image/identity. BIm5 and BIm4 did cross load on factors 1 and 8, but the loadings were higher on factor 1 and there was enough of a difference between the cross loadings that the researcher kept them in the final model. Factor 8 was then discarded, which left the researcher with 7 factors and 39 variables.

Cronbach's alpha was run on the 7 factors to ensure that the reliability scores were still acceptable. The reliability scores ranged from .707 to .956, and were all

deemed acceptable. The results of the maximum likelihood exploratory factor analysis with the reliability scores are below in Tables 4.14a and 4.14b. After varimax rotation, the 7 factor solution accounted for 69.57% of the variance. All 7 factors had eigenvalues above 1.

Table 4.14a: West Coast MLB Team with a Services Sponsor Exploratory Factor

Analysis

Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Cronbach's alpha
Brand Image/Identity			0.956
	BId3	.888	
	BId2	.884	
	BId4	.881	
	BId5	.856	
	BId1	.843	
	BIm1	.701	
	BIm2	.687	
	BIm5	.658	
	BIm4	.645	
	BIm3	.626	
	BIm7	.597	
Game Day Service Quality			0.877
	GDSQ5	.805	
	GDSQ7	.768	
	GDSQ4	.762	
	GDSQ6	.709	
	GDSQ2	.664	
	GDSQ1	.593	
	GDSQ3	.589	
Previous Experience with Sponsor			0.919
	PES3RC	.895	
	PES2RC	.877	
	PES1RC	.865	
	PES5RC	.800	
	PES4neg	.528	
Valence			0.892
	V2	.799	
	V1RC	.798	
	V5	.768	
	V4	.732	
	V3RC	.696	

Table 4.14b: West Coast MLB Team with a Services Sponsor Exploratory Factor

Analysis continued

Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Cronbach's alpha
Perception of the Team's Financial Status			0.817
	PFS2	0.789	
	PFS3	0.73	
	PFS1	0.686	
	PFS4	0.667	
Brand Awareness			0.707
	BA2	0.696	
	BA1	0.681	
	BA4	0.61	
	BA5RC	0.522	
Future Behavioral Intention			0.809
	FBI4	0.848	
	FBI3	0.704	
	FBI1	0.621	

The items related to attitude toward sponsor were not included in the EFA. In order to confirm the underlying structure of attitude toward sponsor, and that the 4 items were related in each other, the intercorrelations were computed. As shown below in Table 4.15, all 4 items related to attitude toward sponsor were statistically significantly correlated and were all greater than or equal to .559. These results confirmed the underlying factor structure of attitude toward sponsor and were included in the CFA and SEM model.

Table 4.15: West Coast MLB Team with a Services Sponsor Attitude Toward Sponsor Correlations

Correlations				
	ATS1	ATS2	ATS3	ATS4
ATS1 Pearson Correlation	1	.690**	.559**	.637**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
N	316	316	316	316
ATS2 Pearson Correlation	.690**	1	.684**	.688**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
N	316	316	316	316
ATS3 Pearson Correlation	.559**	.684**	1	.708**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
N	316	316	316	316
ATS4 Pearson Correlation	.637**	.688**	.708**	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
N	316	316	316	316

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

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With a KMO of .901 and chi-square significant at the $p < 0.000$ level (chi-square = 10911.566, $df = 1128$), the factor analysis proceeded. BIM6RC and BA3 was dropped from the final model as they cross loaded similarly on 2 factors. FBI2 was dropped from the final model as it loaded by itself with the brand image and brand identity factors on factor one and did not make any theoretical or empirical sense to group that one statement with those two variable. Brand image and brand identity loaded onto the same factor so they were combined into one factor for the final model and named brand image/identity.

Cronbach's alpha was run on the 9 factors to ensure that the reliability scores were still acceptable. The reliability scores ranged from .767 to .947, and were all

deemed acceptable. The results of the maximum likelihood exploratory factor analysis with the reliability scores are below in Tables 4.16a and 4.16b. After varimax rotation, the 9 factor solution accounted for 67.922% of the variance. All 9 factors had eigenvalues above 1.

Table 4.16a: Midwest MLB Team with a Goods Sponsor Exploratory Factor

Analysis

Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Cronbach's alpha
Brand Image/Identity			0.947
	BId2	.844	
	BId4	.827	
	BId3	.817	
	BId1	.814	
	BId5	.765	
	BIm2	.756	
	BIm3	.726	
	BIm1	.665	
	BIm4	.640	
	BIm7	.606	
Game Day Service Quality			0.873
	GDSQ5	.790	
	GDSQ4	.774	
	GDSQ7	.738	
	GDSQ2	.634	
	GDSQ6	.633	
	GDSQ1	.631	
	GDSQ3	.567	
Previous Experience with Sponsor			0.893
	PES3RC	.874	
	PES2RC	.844	
	PES1RC	.780	
	PES5RC	.751	
	PES4neg	.484	
Valence			0.903
	V5	.844	
	V4	.838	
	V2	.794	
	V1RC	.709	
	V3RC	.652	

Table 4.16b: Midwest MLB Team with a Goods Sponsor Exploratory Factor

Analysis continued

Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Cronbach's alpha
Team Identification			0.867
	TI4	0.756	
	TI3	0.714	
	TI2	0.697	
	TI3	0.625	
	TI1	0.593	
Brand Awareness			0.792
	BA1	0.737	
	BA2	0.733	
	BA4	0.694	
	BA3	0.631	
	BA5RC	0.531	
Perceived Fit			0.849
	PF3RC	0.7	
	PF1RC	0.679	
	PF4RC	0.604	
	PF2RC	0.597	
Perception of Team's Financial Status			0.767
	PFS2	0.768	
	PFS1	0.734	
	PFS3	0.615	
	PFS4	0.537	
Future Behavioral Intention			0.834
	FBI4	0.677	
	FBI1	0.664	
	FBI3	0.604	

The items related to attitude toward sponsor were not included in the EFA. In order to confirm the underlying structure of attitude toward sponsor, and that the 4 items were related in each other, the intercorrelations were computed. As shown below in table

4.17, all 4 items related to attitude toward sponsor were statistically significantly correlated and were all greater than or equal to .254. These results confirmed the underlying factor structure of attitude toward sponsor and were included in the CFA and SEM model.

Table 4.17: Midwest MLB Team with a Goods Sponsor Attitude Toward Sponsor Correlations

Correlations				
	ATS1	ATS2	ATS3	ATS4
ATS1 Pearson Correlation	1	.340**	.583**	.613**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000
N	341	341	341	341
ATS2 Pearson Correlation	.340**	1	.254**	.346**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000
N	341	341	341	341
ATS3 Pearson Correlation	.583**	.254**	1	.698**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000
N	341	341	341	341
ATS4 Pearson Correlation	.613**	.346**	.698**	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
N	341	341	341	341

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

West Coast MLB Team with a Services Sponsor

A confirmatory factor analysis measurement model was created in AMOS with the 8 factor solution derived from the EFA. 1 items were dropped from the final model (BA3, ATS2, PFS4, BA5RC, BA7) as the standardized regression weight, or factor loadings, was .477 which was deemed unacceptable as it was not close to the threshold of

.7 that was needed to be in order to be kept in the final model. Goodness of fit test statistics for evaluating the final CFA and SEM models were assessed. Thresholds for these statistics were adopted from Hair et al. (2010) and Hu and Bentler (1999) as shown in Table 2. The chi-square statistic was significant, which is expected with any sample over 250. The CFA measurement showed acceptable overall fit. The CMIN/DF was 2.060 which less than the recommended threshold of <3 . The goodness of fit (GFI) statistic was .804, which was just under the recommended threshold of $>.9$, but acceptable $>.8$. The adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI) statistic (.773) showed acceptable fit as well, but below the recommended threshold of $>.8$. The root mean square error of approximation was .058 which was below the recommended threshold of $<.08$, as was the standardized root mean residual (.0656) which indicated good model fit. Additional evidence of good model fit was provided with the Tucker Lewis index (TLI) (TLI = .906) and comparative fit index (CFI = .915) just around the recommended threshold of .95 for a great fit, and .90 for a traditional fit.

Prior to running the final SEM model, additional tests for reliability and validity were conducted, as shown below in Table 4.18. Composite reliability scores (CR) were all above .7, which is the recommended threshold by Hair et al. (2010). Convergent validity was acceptable, as determined by calculating the AVE (average variance extracted), which was determined by the cutoff score of .5. Each construct passed discriminant validity, which is based on a comparison of squared pair-wise correlations between constructs and the individual AVE value for each construct (Hair et al., 2010), or by the MSV (maximum squared variance) being greater than the AVE. Each construct's AVE should be greater than the square of their correlations with other constructs, which

shows that discriminate validity is achieved since each construct is significant different from one another.

Table 4.18: West Coast MLB Team with a Services Sponsor Sample Validity and Reliability Scores

	CR	AVE	MSV	PFS	Blm/Bld	PES	GDSQ	TI	V	BA	ATS
PFS	0.820	0.535	0.166	0.731							
Blm/Bld	0.953	0.652	0.610	0.318	0.808						
PES	0.930	0.731	0.285	0.118	0.526	0.855					
GDSQ	0.880	0.515	0.076	-0.003	0.247	0.240	0.718				
TI	0.898	0.641	0.287	0.313	0.536	0.079	0.267	0.800			
V	0.894	0.628	0.154	0.173	0.388	0.210	0.235	0.297	0.792		
BA	0.735	0.597	0.121	0.110	0.275	0.226	0.250	0.218	0.122	0.773	
ATS	0.886	0.661	0.610	0.407	0.781	0.534	0.276	0.515	0.392	0.348	0.813

Midwest MLB Team with a Goods Sponsor

A confirmatory factor analysis measurement model was created in AMOS with the 10 factor solution derived from the EFA. 2 items were dropped from the final model (GDSQ2 and ATS 2) as the standardized regression weight, or factor loadings, were .613 and .413, respectively, which were deemed unacceptable as they were not as close to the threshold of .7 that was needed to be in order to be kept in the final model. Goodness of fit test statistics for evaluating the final CFA and SEM models were assessed. Thresholds for these statistics were adopted from Hair et al. (2010) and Hu and Bentler (1999) as shown in Table 2. The chi-square statistic was significant, which is expected with any sample over 250. The CFA measurement showed acceptable overall fit. The CMIN/DF was 1.574 which less than the recommended threshold of <3. The goodness of fit (GFI) statistic was .837, which was just under the recommended threshold of >.9, but

acceptable $>.8$. The adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI) statistic (.813) showed good fit, and was above the recommended threshold of $>.8$. The root mean square error of approximation was .041 which was below the recommended threshold of $<.08$, as was the standardized root mean residual (.0505) which indicated good model fit. Additional evidence of good model fit was provided with the Tucker Lewis index (TLI) (TLI = .939) and comparative fit index (CFI = .945) just around the recommended threshold of .95 for a great fit, and .90 for a traditional fit.

Prior to running the final SEM model, additional tests for reliability and validity were conducted, as shown below in Table 4.19. Composite reliability scores (CR) were all above .7, which is the recommended threshold by Hair et al. (2010). Convergent validity was acceptable, as determined by calculating the AVE (average variance extracted), which was determined by the cutoff score of .5. Each construct passed discriminant validity, which is based on a comparison of squared pair-wise correlations between constructs and the individual AVE value for each construct (Hair et al., 2010), or by the MSV (maximum squared variance) being greater than the AVE. Each construct's AVE should be greater than the square of their correlations with other constructs, which shows that discriminant validity is achieved since each construct is significantly different from one another.

Table 4.19: Midwest MLB Team with a Goods Sponsor Validity and Reliability

Scores

	CR	AVE	MSV	ATS	Blm/Bld	GDSQ	TI	V	BA	PF	PES	FBI	PFS
ATS	0.839	0.636	0.591	0.797									
Blm/Bld	0.942	0.624	0.591	0.769	0.790								
GDSQ	0.856	0.500	0.129	0.343	0.315	0.707							
TI	0.863	0.562	0.531	0.453	0.501	0.349	0.750						
V	0.903	0.653	0.162	0.356	0.336	0.359	0.335	0.808					
BA	0.811	0.519	0.121	0.313	0.266	0.179	0.261	0.118	0.720				
PF	0.849	0.585	0.373	0.611	0.599	0.347	0.328	0.216	0.341	0.765			
PES	0.906	0.667	0.339	0.484	0.494	0.267	0.170	0.280	0.210	0.582	0.817		
FBI	0.843	0.642	0.531	0.429	0.357	0.325	0.729	0.402	0.348	0.391	0.279	0.802	
PFS	0.758	0.515	0.067	0.258	0.245	0.131	0.230	0.105	0.082	0.103	0.161	0.119	0.717

Structural Equation Model

Structural equation modeling was used to test the hypothesized model (Figure 2.1) in AMOS v. 22 for each of the West Coast MLB team sample and the Midwest MLB team sample.

West Coast MLB Team with Services Sponsor Sample

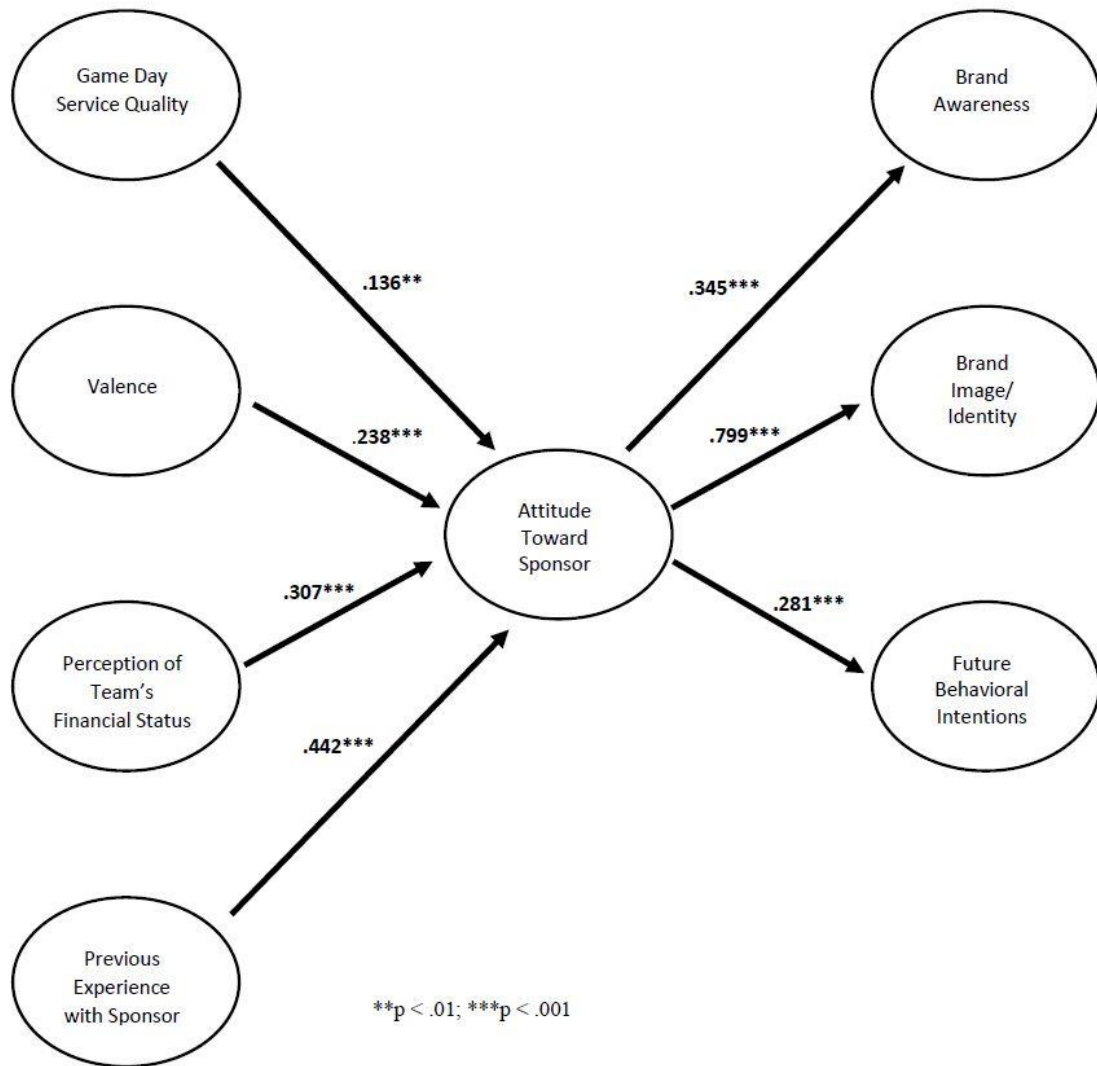
A structural model with 8 constructs was estimated, based off of the results of the EFA and CFA. CFI, AGFI, and RMSEA were .907, .766, and .0606. Therefore, the model was deemed an acceptable fit. As shown in table 4.20 and figure 4.2, all the paths in the model were found to be significant. This demonstrates that there are established relationships between game day service quality, valence, perception of the teams' financial status, and previous experience with attitude toward sponsor. There are also established relationships between attitude toward sponsor and brand awareness, brand image/identity and future behavioral intentions.

**Table 4.20: West Coast MLB
Team with a Services Sponsor
Structural Paths**

Path	Standardized Estimate	C.R.	Results
Game Day Service Quality --> Attitude Toward Sponsor	.136	4.18**	Significant
Valence --> Attitude Toward Sponsor	.239	6.04***	Significant
Perception of Team's Financial Status --> Attitude Toward Sponsor	.307	4.88***	Significant
Previous Experience with Sponsor --> Attitude Toward Sponsor	.442	10.44***	Significant
Attitude Toward Sponsor --> Brand Awareness	.345	7.88***	Significant
Attitude Toward Sponsor --> Brand Image/Identity	.799	22.10***	Significant
Attitude Toward Sponsor --> Future Behavioral Intentions	.281	8.74***	Significant

p < .01; *p < .001

Figure 4.2: West Coast MLB Team with a Services Sponsor Model with Results



Midwest MLB Team with Goods Sponsor

A structural model with 10 constructs was estimated, based off of the results of the EFA and CFA. CFI, AGFI, and RMSEA were .926, .796, and .047. Therefore, the model was deemed an acceptable fit. As shown in table 4.21 and figure 4.3, six of the nine paths in the model were found to be significant. This demonstrates that there are established relationships between team identification and previous experience with the

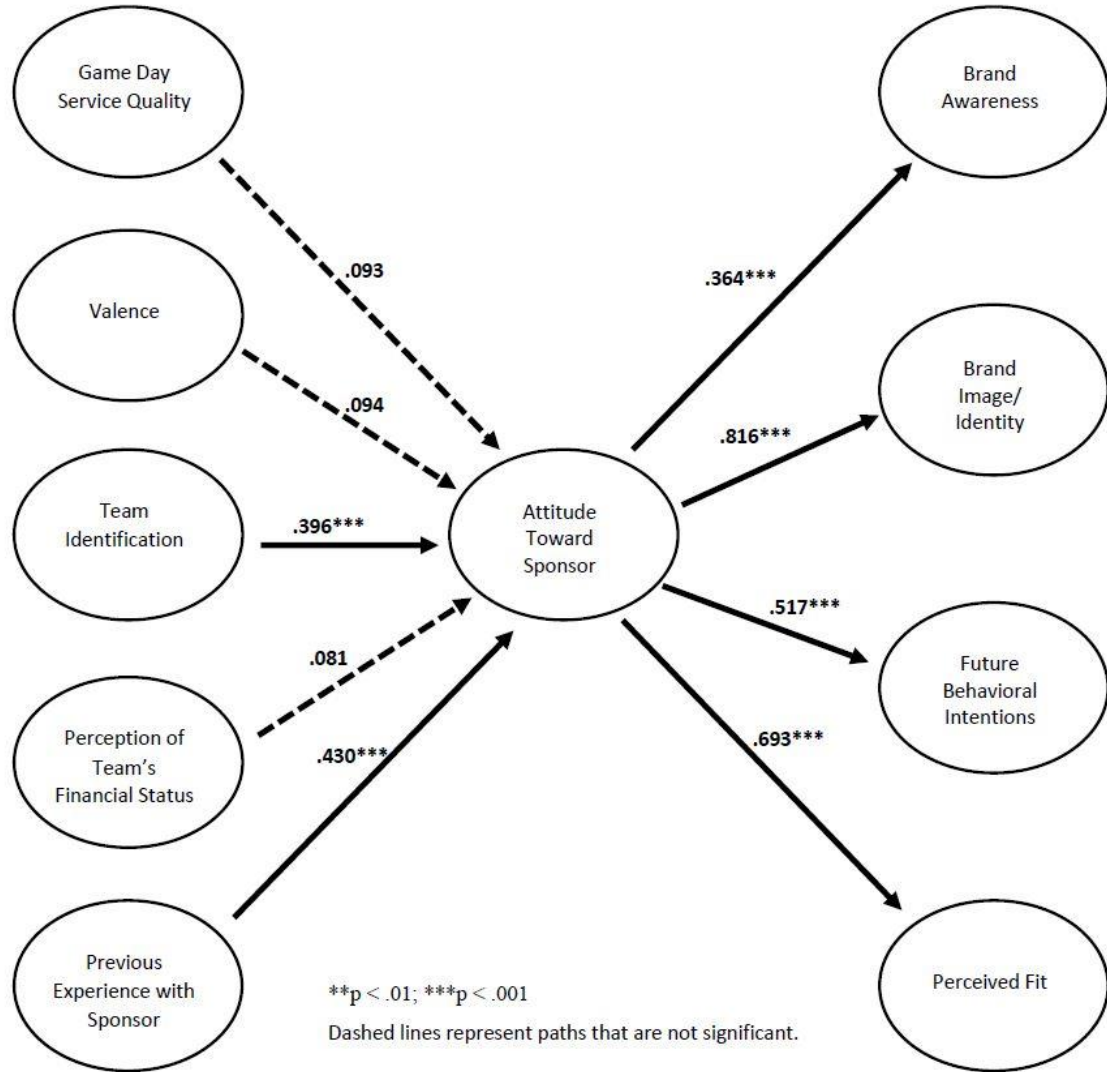
sponsor with attitude toward sponsor. There are also established relationships between attitude toward sponsor and brand awareness, brand image/identity, future behavioral intentions, and perceived fit.

Table 4.21: Midwest MLB Team with a Goods Sponsor Structural Paths

Path	Standardized Estimate	C.R.	Results
Game Day Service Quality --> Attitude Toward Sponsor	.093	1.724	Not Significant
Valence --> Attitude Toward Sponsor	.094	1.819	Not Significant
Team Identification --> Attitude Toward Sponsor	.396	6.529***	Significant
Perception of Team's Financial Status --> Attitude Toward Sponsor	.081	1.585	Not Significant
Previous Experience with Sponsor --> Attitude Toward Sponsor	.430	7.785***	Significant
Attitude Toward Sponsor --> Brand Awareness	.364	5.532***	Significant
Attitude Toward Sponsor --> Brand Image/Identity	.816	12.714***	Significant
Attitude Toward Sponsor --> Future Behavioral Intentions	.517	7.938***	Significant
Attitude Toward Sponsor --> Perceived Fit	.7693	9.704***	Significant

p < .01; *p < .001

Figure 4.3: Midwest MLB Team with a Goods Sponsor Model with Results



Comparison of the two structural models for the Individual Samples

Hypothesis 11 hypothesized that the type of facility naming rights sponsor's product will have a significant effect on the structural model of consumers' attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor. As illustrated in Figures 3 and 4, hypothesis 11 is supported. There are a number of differences in the two structural models. The West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor had 8 constructs after the EFA was analyzed, which meant that team identification and perceived fit did not factor as separate

factors. The Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor had all 10 constructs factor as was predicted by the literature and measurement scales, which meant that the Midwest MLB team with model had 2 more constructs in the model than the West Coast MLB team with services sponsor. Looking at the paths of both models, it is interesting to note that the models had 3 differences in relationships with variables and attitude toward sponsor. While the West Coast MLB team with services sponsor had all 4 variables (game day service quality, valence, perception of team's financial status, and previous experience with sponsor) have a statistically significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor, the Midwest MLB team with goods sponsor had 3 of those variables (game day service quality, valence, and perception of team's financial status) that did not have a statistically significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor.

Conclusion

These findings will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 5. The researcher will go through conclusion made based on these findings, including an emphasis on practical and theoretical discussions. Future research ideas from this topic will be included.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Overview

The purpose of this study was to examine a consumer's reaction to a stadium that has sold its naming rights to a corporate sponsor and how this may impact their future behavior intentions and perceptions of the brand. In order to accomplish this, a holistic integrative model was developed and tested that explored the effectiveness of facility naming rights on both the team and sponsor side of the agreement. A survey utilizing previously reliable and validated measurement scales was administered to a total sample of 657 fans of two MLB teams (a West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor and a Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor), via an online panel company. The results from this survey were analyzed through an exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, and structural equation models, utilizing SPSS 23.0 and AMOS v 22.0, to ascertain the significance of the relationships proposed in the hypothesized model.

This chapter discusses the findings reported in Chapter 4 in relation to the literature on (1) facility naming rights, (2) game day service quality, (3) valence, (4) team identification, (5) perception of the team's financial status, (6) previous experience with sponsor, (7) attitude toward sponsor, (8) brand awareness, (9) brand image, (10) brand identity, (11) future behavioral intentions, and (12) perceived fit. The discussion of the

the results will focus on the relationships evident among the latent variables based upon three models: the combined MLB teams sample SEM model, which utilizes the full data set; the revised SEM model which has been adjusted based on the subset of the data that includes only the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor; and finally, a third SEM model based on the sub-set of the data that includes the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor. Each hypothesis was individually analyzed, and discussed based on the findings evident in each of the three models. This chapter highlights the importance of the study based on both an academic and practical perspective. Lastly, this chapter addresses the limitations of this study and recommendations for future research.

Discussion of the Results

Hypothesis 1

By way of review, the null and corresponding alternative hypothesis for hypothesis 1 is presented again:

H₀1: Game day service quality is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A1: Game day service quality is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

Game day service quality was found to have a significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor in the combined MLB teams model so H_A1 was supported, but out of the four variables kept in the final SEM model (game day service quality, valence,

perception of team's financial status, and previous experience with sponsor), it had the least amount of impact on attitude toward sponsor ($\beta = .157$).

The same result was found in the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor model, as game day service quality was found to have a significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor, but again had the least amount of impact of the four variables hypothesized to have a significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor ($\beta = .136$).

A contradicting result was found in the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor model, in which game day service quality was not found to have a significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor ($p = .085$).

As shown in the combined MLB teams model as well as the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor, game day service quality was the least contributing factor toward predicting consumers' attitude toward sponsor, while that relationship was not significant in the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor model. While research has shown that a consumer's perception of service quality has an impact on a spectator's satisfaction (Wakefield and Sloan, 1995), the findings suggest that this satisfaction has minimal impact or transfer to the consumer's attitude toward the sponsor. This finding would seem to indicate that there is a lack of spillover effect between a team/stadium and sponsor, so that a negative experience at a game will have little spillover effect onto the sponsor itself.

Hypothesis 2

By way of review, the null and corresponding alternative hypothesis for hypothesis 2 is presented again:

H₀2: Valence is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A2: Valence is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

Valence was found to have a significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor in the combined MLB teams model so H_A2 was supported ($\beta = .229$).

The same result was found in the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor model, as valence was found to have a significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor ($\beta = .239$).

A contradicting result was found in the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor model, in which valence was not found to have a significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor ($p = .069$).

This is a similar result to hypothesis H_A1. While there is a significant relationship between valence and attitude toward sponsor for both the combined MLB teams model and the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor, but a minimal impact. Valence has been described as a prerequisite for good service (Gronroos, 1998), so it seem

reasonable that valence and game day service quality would have similar results. These results also agree with hypothesis H_{A1} in which there appears to be a minimal if any spillover effect from the performance of the team and the attitude toward sponsor.

Hypothesis 3

By way of review, the null and corresponding alternative hypothesis for hypothesis 3 is presented again:

H₀₃: Team identification is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_{A3}: Team identification is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

Team identification was dropped from the final model in both the combined MLB teams model as well as the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor model. The relationship between team identification and attitude toward sponsor was not tested in the final SEM model. The researcher failed to reject H₀₃.

Team identification was found to have a significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor in the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor ($\beta = .396$). While not hypothesized for the individual teams sample, this would have been the only model to retain H_{A3}.

Researchers consistently agree that team identification plays a significant role when measuring sponsorship effectiveness, and is also one of the most well documented forms of psychological attachments in sponsorship studies (Chen, 2009; Cornwell, Weeks & Roy, 2005; Dees, Bennett & Villegas, 2008; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Madrigal, 2001; Zhang et al., 2005). Chen (2009) found that, when combined with attitude toward sponsor, team identification accounted for 52% of the variance in purchase intentions. From this result, he surmised that a well-identified program may bring the sponsor some advantages in this regard. This finding is partially supported by the results in the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor model as the findings show that team identification has almost as much of an impact on attitude toward sponsor as previous experience with sponsor. This finding is supported by the study conducted by Biscaia, Correia, and Roasdo (2013) which also found a significant relationship between attitudinal loyalty (team identification) and attitude toward sponsor. This is an interesting result because it is the only other significant relationship in any of the models with an impact on attitude toward sponsor close to previous experience and its relationship. Although team identification factored into one factor on the Midwest team with a goods sponsor, it was surprising that team identification did not factor as expected during the EFA process. Therefore team identification was dropped from the combined MLB teams model and the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor model.

Hypothesis 4

By way of review, the null and corresponding alternative hypothesis for hypothesis 4 is presented again:

H₀4: Fan perception of the team's financial status is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A4: Fan perception of the team's financial status is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

Perception of team's financial status was found to have a significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor in the combined MLB teams model so H_A4 was supported ($\beta = .177$).

The same result was found in the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor model, as perception of team's financial status was found to have a significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor ($\beta = .307$).

A contradicting result was found in the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor model, in which valence was not found to have a significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor ($p = .113$).

Prior to this research, there had been only one other study that examined fan perception of a team's financial status in relation to sponsorship, specifically naming rights. Chen and Zhang (2012) conducted a study in an intercollegiate setting; they concluded perception of team's financial status was constructive in forming a positive attitude toward the naming rights sponsor in an intercollegiate setting. This finding supports Chen and Zhang (2012) by showing a significant relationship between perception of the team's financial status and attitude toward sponsor, albeit minimal

impact in the combined model. This research indicates that since fan expectations are one of the main reason for putting pressure on a team to win, realizing that the money coming in from a facility naming rights sponsorship could increase the chances of winning, which could lower the fan resistance of a team entering into a facility naming rights agreement.

Hypothesis 5

By way of review, the null and corresponding alternative hypothesis for hypothesis 5 is presented again:

H₀5: Previous experience with the sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A5: Previous experience with the sponsor is a significant predictor of consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor.

Previous experience was found to have a significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor in the combined MLB teams model so H_A5 was supported ($\beta = .428$); and previous experience explained the biggest impact on attitude toward sponsor.

The same result was found in both the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor model ($\beta = .442$) and the Midwest MLB team ($\beta = .430$) with a goods sponsor model, as previous experience was found to have a significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor. Both models showed that previous experience with sponsor was the variable that had the greatest amount of impact on attitude toward sponsor.

As shown in all three models, previous experience with the sponsor was the highest contributing factor toward predicting consumers' attitude toward sponsor. Speed and Thompson (2000) stated that previous experience with a brand can affect the response to a sponsor while Dean (2002) suggested that prior attitudes toward the sponsoring brand influenced changing attitude. This study found similar results as there was a significant relationship between previous experience with sponsor and attitude toward sponsor, but what was interesting was that previous experience had more than twice the impact on attitude toward sponsor than any of the other three team-related variables (game day service quality, valence, and perception of the team's financial status) in the combined MLB teams model. This is another finding that implies the seemingly lack of spillover effects between the team and the sponsor.

Hypothesis 6

By way of review, the null and corresponding alternative hypothesis for hypothesis 6 is presented again:

H₀6: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the sponsor brand awareness.

H_A6: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the sponsor brand awareness.

Consumers' attitude toward sponsor was found to be a significant predictor of sponsor brand awareness in the combined MLB teams model so H_A6 was supported ($\beta = .382$).

Consumers' attitude toward sponsor was also found to be a significant predictor of sponsor brand awareness in the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor model supported ($\beta = .345$).

Consumers' attitude toward sponsor was also found to be a significant predictor of sponsor brand awareness in the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor model supported ($\beta = .364$).

As hypothesized, all 3 models had attitude toward sponsor as a significant predictor of brand awareness which is good for organizations since Biscaia, Correria, and Rosada (2013) stated that if awareness is not the first thing to be achieved, sponsors cannot meet their subsequent objectives. Brand awareness is usually the first thing organizations think about when deciding to enter into a facility naming rights sponsorship. The interesting results come when comparing the impacts of attitude toward sponsor of brand awareness to brand image/identity.

Hypotheses 7 and 8

By way of review, the null and corresponding alternative hypothesis for hypotheses 7 and 8 are presented again:

H₀7: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the sponsor brand image.

H_{A7}: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the sponsor brand image.

H₀₈: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the sponsor brand identity.

H_{A8}: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the sponsor brand identity.

Brand image and brand identity were combined into one factor during each of the 3 exploratory factor analyses for each of the individual models.

Consumers' attitude toward sponsor was found to be a significant predictor of brand image/identity in the combined MLB teams model so H_{A7} and H_{A8} were partially supported ($\beta = .837$).

Consumers' attitude toward sponsor was found to be a significant predictor of brand image/identity in the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor model ($\beta = .799$).

Consumers' attitude toward sponsor was found to be a significant predictor of brand image/identity in the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor model ($\beta = .816$).

Brand image and brand identity consistently factored together in all 3 models so they were included as one variable in the models. Brand image and brand identity are related and essential ingredients of strong brands (Nandan, 2004); thus it was appropriate

to combine these variables. In order to build and maintain brand loyalty, both brand identity and brand image need to be in harmony. This is because value for both the firm and the customer can be created only when the consumer understands and appreciates the brand message. Congruence between image and identity implies that consumer has a great understanding of the brand message and, because of that, is likely to be loyal to the brand (Nandan, 2004). The clustering of brand image and brand identity together may be the reason that attitude toward sponsor consistently had more than twice the impact on brand image/identity than on brand awareness. This is important because organizations can use a facility naming right or sponsorship to “attach” themselves to a team or stadium and possibly increase their brand image or identity.

Hypothesis 9

By way of review, the null and corresponding alternative hypothesis for hypothesis 9 is presented again:

H₀9: Consumers’ attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the consumers’ future behavioral intentions.

H_A9: Consumers’ attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the consumers’ future behavioral intentions.

Consumer attitudes toward sponsor was found to be a significant predictor of future behavioral intentions in the combined MLB teams model so H_A9 was supported ($\beta = .379$).

Consumer attitudes toward sponsor was found to be a significant predictor of future behavioral intentions in the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor model ($\beta = .281$).

Consumer attitudes toward sponsor was found to be a significant predictor of future behavioral intentions in the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor model ($\beta = .517$).

Originally, future behavioral intentions were intended to measure not only purchase intentions of sponsor products, but willingness to attend games and intentions to purchase team merchandise. After an EFA was conducted on each sample, FBI2 was deleted from all the models. FBI2 was “I am likely to purchase products/services from SPONSOR.” Without that statement in the scale, the future behavioral intentions in this study became solely about purchase intentions of team merchandise, supporting the team, and willingness to attend future games. This is the one outcome variable that connects the team and shows that the team should also be involved in improving the attitude toward sponsor as it is a significant predictor of future behavioral intentions towards the team.

Hypothesis 10

By way of review, the null and corresponding alternative hypothesis for hypothesis 10 is presented again:

H₀10: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is not a statistically significant predictor of the perceived fit between the team/stadium and the facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A10: Consumers' attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor is a significant predictor of the perceived fit between the team/stadium and the facility naming rights sponsor.

Consumers' attitude toward sponsor was found to be a significant predictor of perceived fit in the combined MLB teams model so H_A10 was supported ($\beta = .772$).

Perceived fit was eliminated from the final model in the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor after an EFA was conducted, so the relationship between consumer's attitude toward sponsor and perceived fit was not tested.

Consumers' attitude toward sponsor was found to be a significant predictor of perceived fit in the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor model ($\beta = .693$).

Consumer's attitude toward sponsor was a significant predictor of perceived fit, in the two models that it was kept in (combined MLB teams and Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor). The findings suggest that not only is attitude a significant relationship,

but attitude has a strong impact on perceived fit between the sponsor and team/stadium. This finding is interesting because previous research shows that perceived congruence (fit) between property (or team) and sponsor is important for a positive brand evaluation (Crimmins & Horn, 1996; McDaniel, 1999; O'Reilly & Lafrance Horning, 2013). The greater the fit between the team and brand, the higher the likelihood of a transference from the team to the brand (McDaniel, 1999; Olson & Thjomoe). This findings implies that attitude toward sponsor has a significant impact toward perceived fit, which is important to reap all the possible benefits of a facility naming rights sponsorship.

Hypothesis 11

By way of review, the null and corresponding alternative hypothesis for hypothesis 11 is presented again:

H₀11: The type of the facility naming rights sponsor's products will not have a significant effect on the structural model of consumers' attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A11: The type of the facility naming rights sponsor's products will have a significant effect on the structural model of consumers' attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor.

H_A11 was supported as there were a number of significant difference in the structural model of consumer's attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor.

As previously indicated in the review of the hypotheses, there were significant differences in the structural models of consumers' attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsor. While the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor model had statistically significant relationships between game day service quality ($\beta = .136$), valence ($\beta = .238$), and perception of team's financial status ($\beta = .307$) with attitude toward sponsor, these three relationships were not significant in the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor model. Team identification was included in the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor model and had a statistically significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor ($\beta = .396$), while it was not included in the final model for the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor as it was eliminated during the EFA process. Perceived fit was included in the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor model and attitude toward sponsor was a statistically significant predictor of it ($\beta = .693$), while it was not included in the final model for the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor as it was eliminated during the EFA process.

The researcher conducted an independent samples t-test to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference in the overall mean team identification scores between the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor and the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor. There was a statistically significant difference in mean team identification score between the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor and the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor $t_{(635.271)} = -2.426, p = .016$. The mean team identification score for the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor (3.24) was .19 lower than the team identification score for the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor (3.43), which could be a reason that the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor was

the only model that team identification factored correctly. Interestingly, in the two models that team identification did not factor correctly, the individual items factored with the three future behavioral intentions that related to the team itself.

The researcher conducted an independent samples t-test to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference in the overall mean scores for perceived fit between the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor and the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor. There was a statistically significant difference in mean perceived fit scores between the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor and the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor $t_{(601.051)} = -12.270, p < .001$. The average mean perceived fit score for the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor (3.26) was .90 lower than the perceived fit score for the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor (4.16), which could be a reason that the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor was the only model in which perceived fit did not factor correctly. There could be a logical reason why the findings suggest that the fans of the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor had a higher overall perceived fit mean score. The stadium for the Midwest MLB team with a goods sponsor has had the same stadium name since 1954, over 3 stadiums. However, the stadium was named after the owner, not the actual sponsor, until 2004 when the sponsor entered into a facility naming rights agreement with the team (USA TODAY, 2004). On the other hand, the West Coast MLB team with a services sponsor purchased the facility naming rights in 1996; the facility did not change names until 2005 when the sponsoring company merged with the current naming rights company. This was the third name for the facility in six years (Raine, 2006).

Major Contributions

Academic Implications

The findings in this study help to confirm that the existing measurements and model for sponsorship effectiveness are applicable in professional facility naming right sponsorship settings. Madrigal's (2001) belief-attitude-behavior intentions hierarchy model adopted by Chen and Zhang (2011) functioned well as a theoretical foundation for this study. This study broadened the theoretical knowledge in a facility naming rights/sponsorship setting. This study contributes to the facility naming rights/sponsorship literature as the first holistic empirical models developed and tested in a theoretical model in a professional sports setting. This was the first study to connect game day experience (game day service quality and valence) to a facility naming rights agreement or sponsorship using the spillover effects theory. This study presents models that provide an avenue into understanding variables that affect consumer attitudes during and after a sporting event. Implications from this study may be useful for researchers interested in assessing the effectiveness of facility naming rights. This study lays the groundwork for future research in facility naming rights.

Managerial Implications

Both parties involved in establishing a facility naming rights agreement, the corporate sponsor and the team/stadium, have had little empirical evidence to utilize when determining the effectiveness or valuation of a stadium sponsorship. Most companies make assumptions about the costs and benefits that a facility naming rights agreement delivers to an organization. The most common assumption is that brand

awareness will increase, which is where most of the previous research on sponsorships has focused. Facility naming rights agreements normally have a big monetary cost and they are in place for years, if not decades. There are upsides and downsides to entering a facility naming rights agreement. A number of practical implications have come from these findings, which will aid companies in understanding the potential impact of a stadium sponsorship on the sponsoring brand and team/stadium in successfully marketing the naming rights sponsorship.

Ideally, managers and organizations would like to say that there is little downside risk to entering into a facility naming rights agreement, considering the time and money that it costs to enter into one and the long-term nature of such agreements. These findings imply that this may actually be the case. Fans do seem to separate the team from the sponsor. While game day service quality and valence significantly impacted attitude toward sponsor, their impact was much less than the relationship between previous experience and attitude toward sponsor. This means that the sponsor is much more in control of the consumer's attitude toward the sponsor than the team, based upon the consumer's actual experience with the sponsor's product or service, than the team's actual performance or the game day experience in the stadium. Fans do not seem to put much weight or association on the sponsor for a poor performance by the stadium, stadium vendors, or by the team. If a customer has a good experience with a sponsoring company, it has much more of an impact than the team's specific performance or the game day experience. This implies that the performance of the brand in terms of providing a quality product/service or a good value proposition has a much more greater impact on consumers' perception of the brand than anything that the sponsored team or

stadium may do. This means that the sponsor maintains control of their brand – poor performance or poor service within the stadium seems not to tarnish the sponsoring brand. Obviously, this is beneficial to the sponsor since it lowers the risks associated with purchasing a sponsorship while also benefitting the team when selling the sponsorship since the downside risk of purchasing a sponsorship is minimal – the best of both worlds.

While attitude toward sponsor was a significant predictor of brand awareness, it had a much more significant impact on brand image/identity. While this is important to all organizations, a services sponsor may take special note in this as a goal with marketing services compared to goods is the desire to attach an intangible service to a tangible item, such as a stadium or team. Previous research has shown the importance of perceived fit between the sponsor and the team or stadium in order to maximize the effectiveness of a sponsorship; however, these findings imply that attitude toward sponsor can have a substantial positive impact on whether the fan perceives the sponsor as a good fit for the team. Attitude toward sponsor has some level of impact on fan perception of the brand (awareness, image/identity, and perceived fit) as well as future behavioral intentions that relate to the team. Therefore it appears that there is a definite value or potential benefit associated with a sponsorship of a team, although the nature of the fan attitudes toward the sponsor due to what happens in the stadium, in terms of game day service quality and team performance (valence), have much less impact.

The findings of this research imply previous experience with a sponsor is the number one driver of consumer's attitude toward the sponsor, which, in turn, drives brand image/identity. This tells a manager or organization that their sponsorship or affiliation

with a team will not overshadow the experiences that the firm delivers to its customer. This is good news for marketers and for the teams since the findings may imply potential upside without much risk of downside.

Limitations

Findings of this current study must be understood in light of several limitations. The first limitation was the sample. While demographics of MLB fans are not readily available, one source provided demographics of fans who watched MLB games during the 2013 season. Those demographics concluded that fans were 70% male, 50% age 55 and up, and 32% had a household income between \$40,000 and \$75,000 (Thompson, 2014). While these demographics are four years old at this point and were for fans watching MLB on TV, the sample for this study skewed much more female (64.4%) with 58.6% of the respondents were between the ages of 18-40 as shown in Table 3. This could be an outcome of using an online survey with an online consumer panel company. This discrepancy could affect the representativeness of the study for all of Major League Baseball.

Another limitation was the timing of the survey. The collecting of survey data were taken during May and June of 2017. The respondents who qualified to take the survey must have attended a game during the 2016 or the beginning of the 2017 MLB season. While this may not have affected variables such as perception of team's financial status or team identification, it could have affected responses to game day service quality and valence. Hypothetically, a respondent could have attended a MLB game during April 2016 and filled out this survey over a year later. Unless something really great or

awful happened dealing with game day service quality or valence that day, the respondent may not have had a good recollection of either of those variables a year or months later.

Until future studies are conducted, the present research is limited in its applicability to many other settings. Regardless of any discrepancies with the demographics of the sample and actual MLB demographics, each sport has different demographics so the study may not be able to be generalized to other sports teams and their facility naming rights sponsor,

Future Research

This study could be replicated with different teams, different types of sponsors, and in different sports. The findings from this study suggest that the type of sponsor does affect the overall effectiveness of a facility naming rights sponsor. This study tested the models with two different types of sponsors with just two teams in a single sport (MLB). It would interesting to test a model with different sponsors and facility naming rights, not necessarily just consumer oriented services versus goods or products. There are numerous other types of sponsors with which the study may be replicated including financial services (e.g. banking, insurance, etc.), education, computer technology, or enterprise software, and a more business-oriented versus consumer oriented brand, just to name a few. The findings in this study imply that there is a difference in the models for consumer attitudes toward the sponsor based on the type of sponsor. Consequently, a replication of this study may help to identify the category of sponsor that may influence the malleability of consumers' attributes toward corporate sponsors, as well as the factors that have the greatest influence on consumers' attitudes within that category.

While not included in this study, stadium identification was touched on briefly in Chapter 2 of this report. Stadium identification is an almost unexplored topic. Stadium identification is closely related to team identification; thus, it was omitted from this study. A sudden sponsor/name change may or may not affect the consumer's attitudes toward the sponsor, whether or not the stadium has had the same name, sponsor or no sponsor, for a long time. Nostalgia plays a big part in stadium identification and how attitudes are formed around an actual stadium based on memories. It would be interesting to see if those memories and nostalgia may transfer from the actual stadium to the facility naming rights sponsor and factors that may facilitate this transfer.

Although it failed to factor correctly in two of the models, team identification had a significant relationship with attitude toward sponsor. The researcher proposes to explore team identification more thoroughly, because there is a wealth of previous literature that shows how much of an impact team identification has on a number of variables in the sports with branding and team identification. Team identification may be kept as a predictor of attitude toward sponsor in replication studies, or team identification could be used as a moderating effect.

Another future research topic in this research stream would be to measure the effectiveness of live branding during sporting events. Specifically, the contribution made by sponsorship to consumer-perceived brand equity and to explore the differential factors affecting sponsorship's brand-building equity in a live sponsorship setting. While facility naming rights get their popularity from the longevity of the agreement and the attempt to attach a company name to something physical, live branding is almost the complete opposite. Live branding, for example, is a main sponsor of a professional or

intercollegiate sports team that has a couple of commercials on the scoreboard throughout the game, or commercials come up continually on the video ribbon in an arena. The effectiveness of this type of advertising and factors associated with effectiveness is a viable area of research.

Conclusion

This chapter has provided a detailed analysis of the results of this study, from an academic and practical perspective. This chapter highlighted the contributions of this study, limitations, as well as future research ideas that can extend from this study. This study presented empirical evidence of facility naming rights effectiveness and consumer attributes that can maximize how effective they are. Not only did this study reveal the factors that contribute to a consumer's attitude toward a sponsor but that the majority of the responsibility for that relationship is on the sponsor. This study also showed that there is a difference in the factors based on the type of sponsor. Incrementally, this study expanded the understanding of facility naming right effectiveness and provided another source for future research.

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APPENDIX A

IRB APPROVED ONLINE INFORMATION LETTER



The Auburn University Institutional Review Board has approved this Document for use from 04/28/2017 to 06/21/2019 Protocol # 16-202 EX 1606

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DEPARTMENT OF NUTRITION, DIETETICS,
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(NOTE: DO NOT AGREE TO PARTICIPATE UNLESS IRB APPROVAL INFORMATION WITH CURRENT DATES HAS BEEN ADDED TO THIS DOCUMENT)

INFORMATION LETTER
for a Research Study entitled

“Developing and Testing a Consumer Attributes Model to Measure the Effectiveness of Facility Naming Rights Sponsorships in a Professional Baseball Setting”

You are invited to participate in a research study to better understand what attributes influence a consumer’s attitude toward a facility naming rights sponsor and how this attitude influences their future behavior intentions toward the team and the sponsor itself. This study is being conducted by John Stephan, doctoral student, under the direction of Dr. David Martin, professor in the Auburn University Department of Hotel and Restaurant Management. You are invited to participate because you are attending a MLB game during the 2016 season and are age 18 or older.

What will be involved if you participate? If you decide to participate in this research study, you will be asked to complete an online survey based on your experiences. Your total time commitment will be approximately fifteen minutes.

Are there any risks or discomforts? There are no foreseeable risks associated with participating in this study.

Are there any benefits to yourself or others? There are no identified benefits for you as a respondent. However, successful data collection could provide valuable insight for measuring and quantifying the effectiveness of facility naming rights sponsorships.

Will you receive compensation for participating? No, compensation will not be given for this research study.

Are there any costs? No, participation is totally free. Thank you for your time.

If you change your mind about participating, you can withdraw at any time by closing your browser window. If you choose to withdraw, your data can be withdrawn as long as it is identifiable. Once you’ve submitted anonymous data, it cannot be withdrawn since it will be unidentifiable. Your decision about whether or not to participate or stop participating will not

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jeopardize your future relations with Auburn University or the Department of Hotel and Restaurant Management.

Your responses will be completely anonymous. No identifying information will be collected. All of the survey responses received will be input immediately to the data processing software. The software then stores the responses in a database accessible only by the researcher. All of the data will be deleted from the database at the conclusion of the study. Information collected through your participation may be used to fulfill an educational requirement and could be submitted for publication in an academic journal.

If you have questions about this study, please contact John Stephan at jts0037@auburn.edu or Dr. David S. Martin at Martida@auburn.edu.

If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Auburn University Office of Research Compliance or the Institutional Review Board by phone (334) 844-5966 or email at IRBadmin@auburn.edu or IRBChair@auburn.edu.

HAVING READ THE INFORMATION PROVIDED, YOU MUST DECIDE IF YOU WANT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH PROJECT. IF YOU DECIDE TO PARTICIPATE, PLEASE CLICK ON THE LINK BELOW. YOU MAY PRINT A COPY OF THIS LETTER TO KEEP.

Add this approval information in sentence form to your electronic information letter!

Investigator _____ Date _____

Co-Investigator _____ Date _____

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APPENDIX B
SURVEY INSTRUMENT

MLB Facility Naming Rights - Final Version

Measuring Facility Naming Rights Sponsorship Effectiveness The purpose of this study is to determine and examine the consumer attributes that affect the consumer's attitude toward the facility naming rights sponsorship in Major League Baseball, as well as how effective these facility naming rights sponsorships are. Thanks for choosing to participate in this survey. We value your opinion and honest feedback. The survey will take approximately fifteen minutes and will be completely anonymous. The results collected in this study may be published and/or presented at a professional meeting. If you want more information on the study, please see the attached letter below. Please click the ">>" button below to continue.

Have you attended a Major League Baseball (MLB) game during the 2016 or 2017 season?

- Yes
- No

Condition: No Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Who was the home team for the last MLB game that you attended during the 2016 season?

- San Francisco Giants
- St. Louis Cardinals
- Other

Condition: San Francisco Giants Is Selected. Skip To: Are you a season ticket holder for th....Condition: St. Louis Cardinals Is Selected. Skip To: Are you a season ticket holder for th....Condition: Other Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Are you a season ticket holder for the San Francisco Giants?

- Yes
- No

Condition: No Is Selected. Skip To: What was the opponent at last San Fra....

How long have you been a season ticket holder for the San Francisco Giants?

- First year
- 2 years
- 3 years
- 4 years
- 5+ years

Display This Question:

If How long have you been a season ticket holder for the San Francisco Giants? 5+ years Is Selected

If you have been a season ticket holder for the San Francisco Giants for more than 5 years, please enter how many years.

Do you personally have season tickets or are you affiliated with a company that has season tickets?

- Personal Season Tickets
- Company Season Tickets

What was the opponent at last San Francisco Giants home game you attended?

- Arizona Diamondbacks
- Atlanta Braves
- Baltimore Orioles
- Boston Red Sox
- Chicago Cubs
- Chicago White Sox
- Cincinnati Reds
- Cleveland Indians
- Colorado Rockies
- Detroit Tigers
- Houston Astros
- Kansas City Royals
- Los Angeles Angels
- Los Angeles Dodgers
- Miami Marlins
- Milwaukee Brewers
- Minnesota Twins
- New York Mets
- New York Yankees
- Oakland Athletics
- Philadelphia Phillies
- Pittsburgh Pirates
- San Diego Padres
- Seattle Mariners
- St. Louis Cardinals
- Tampa Bay Rays
- Texas Rangers
- Toronto Blue Jays
- Washington Nationals

How many San Francisco Giants home games do you attend per year?

- 1
- 2-5
- 6-10
- 11-15
- 16-20
- 21-25
- 25+

Overall, I would consider myself a lifelong fan of the San Francisco Giants.

- Strongly agree
- Somewhat agree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Somewhat disagree
- Strongly disagree

How many years have you been following the San Francisco Giants?

- Less than 1 year
- 1 - 2 years
- 3 - 4 years
- 5 - 6 years
- 7 - 8 years
- 8+ years

How many other Major League Baseball teams do you root for?

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5 or more

Which of the following additional Major League Baseball stadiums have you attended a game at? (Check all that apply)

- Angel Stadium of Anaheim (Los Angeles Angels of Anaheim)
- Busch Stadium (St. Louis Cardinals)
- Chase Field (Arizona Diamondbacks)
- Citi Field (New York Mets)
- Citizens Bank Park (Philadelphia Phillies)
- Comerica Park (Detroit Tigers)
- Coors Field (Colorado Rockies)
- Dodger Stadium (Los Angeles Dodgers)
- Fenway Park (Boston Red Sox)
- Globe Life Park in Arlington (Texas Rangers)
- Great American Ball Park (Cincinnati Reds)
- Kauffman Stadium (Kansas City Royals)
- Marlins Park (Miami Marlins)
- Miller Park (Milwaukee Brewers)
- Minute Maid Park (Houston Astros)
- Nationals Park (Washington Nationals)
- Oakland Coliseum (Oakland Athletics)
- Oriole Park at Camden Yards (Baltimore Orioles)
- Petco Park (San Diego Padres)
- PNC Park (Pittsburgh Pirates)
- Progressive Field (Cleveland Indians)
- Rogers Centre (Toronto Blue Jays)
- Safeco Field (Seattle Mariners)
- SunTrust Park (Atlanta Braves)
- Target Field (Minnesota Twins)
- Tropicana Field (Tampa Bay Rays)
- Turner Field (Atlanta Braves)
- Guaranteed Rate Field (Chicago White Sox)
- Wrigley Field (Chicago Cubs)
- Yankee Stadium (New York Yankees)
- None of the Above

Please rate your level of satisfaction with your game-day experience with respect to the points below.

	Extremely dissatisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Extremely satisfied
The quality of beverages inside the stadium	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The number of restrooms available inside the stadium	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The amount of time it takes to get around once inside the stadium	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The service you received from food and beverage vendors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The service you received from all other stadium personnel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The overall safety and security of the stadium	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The friendliness of the security staff at the stadium	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I often display the San Francisco Giants name or insignia at my workplace, home, or on my clothing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When someone praises the San Francisco Giants, it feels like a personal compliment.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel a sense of "ownership" for the San Francisco Giants rather than just being a fan.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When someone criticizes the San Francisco Giants, it feels like a personal insult.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When the San Francisco Giants lose a game, it feels like my personal failure.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
There is no better place than AT&T Park in major league baseball.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have a lot of memories of AT&T Park.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
AT&T Park cannot be replaced by any name in my mind.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
AT&T Park represents the home of the San Francisco Giants.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
Without the facility naming rights sponsorship, I believe the San Francisco Giants do not have enough funds to renovate the stadium.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Please answer somewhat disagree.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think that the San Francisco Giants need the income from the facility naming rights sponsorship to run the team.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Due to the enormous growth in the cost of facilities, marketing, and player salaries, major league baseball owners have struggled to find needed resources to fund their teams.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The San Francisco Giants are financially challenged to run a competitive team.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I think favorably of a San Francisco Giants fan who purchases products and/or services from AT&T.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think that it is a wonderful idea to buy products and/or services produced by AT&T.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think favorably of AT&T.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Because AT&T is the naming rights sponsor, I have a positive attitude toward AT&T.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Evaluate your feelings based on the outcome of the last San Francisco Giants game you attended. Please make one selection for EACH of the 5 sets of adjectives or emotions.

- Extremely good
- Somewhat good
- Neither good nor bad
- Somewhat bad
- Extremely bad

- Extremely sad
- Somewhat sad
- Neither sad nor happy
- Somewhat happy
- Extremely happy

- Extremely satisfied
- Somewhat satisfied
- Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
- Somewhat dissatisfied
- Extremely dissatisfied

- Extremely angry
- Somewhat angry
- Neither angry nor thrilled
- Somewhat thrilled
- Thrilled

- Extremely depressed
- Somewhat depressed
- Neither depressed nor elated
- Somewhat elated
- Extremely elated

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I can recognize AT&T among other competing brands.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am aware of AT&T.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Some characteristics of AT&T come to mind quickly.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can quickly recall the symbol or logo of AT&T.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Please answer somewhat agree.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have difficulty imagining AT&T in my mind.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

AT&T products include: cell phones and tablets, DirectTV, and u-verse TV AT&T services include: cellular plans, u-verse Internet, and home phone plans

	0	1	2-3	4-5	6+
How many products or services have you ever purchased from AT&T?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Condition: How many products or servic... Is Selected. Skip To: Indicate the extent to which you agre....

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
I am satisfied with my decision to purchase a product(s) and/or service(s) from AT&T.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My choice to buy a product(s) and/or service(s) from AT&T was a wise one.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think that I did the right thing when I bought a product(s) and/or service(s) from AT&T.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am not happy that I bought a product(s) and/or service(s) from AT&T.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I truly enjoyed my purchase of a product(s) and/or service(s) from AT&T.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
There is a close fit between AT&T and the San Francisco Giants.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
AT&T and the San Francisco Giants have many similarities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It makes sense that AT&T is the facility naming rights sponsor for the San Francisco Giants.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My image of the San Francisco Giants is consistent with my image of AT&T.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
The user of AT&T products and/or services is unique.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The user of AT&T products and/or services is energetic.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The user of AT&T products and/or services is smart.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company of AT&T is socially responsible.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company of AT&T is trustworthy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The service quality of AT&T is inconsistent.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The service of AT&T is worthy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I am likely to attend future San Francisco Giants games.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am likely to purchase products/services from AT&T.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am likely to buy San Francisco Giants clothing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am likely to support the San Francisco Giants.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I feel a strong sense of belonging to AT&T.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I identify strongly with AT&T.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
AT&T embodies what I believe in.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
AT&T is like a part of me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
AT&T has a great deal of personal meaning to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Condition: Strongly disagree Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block. Condition: Somewhat disagree Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block. Condition: Neither agree nor disagree Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block. Condition: Somewhat agree Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block. Condition: Strongly agree Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Are you a season ticket holder for the St. Louis Cardinals?

- Yes
- No

Condition: No Is Selected. Skip To: What was the opponent at last St. Lou....

How long have you been a season ticket holder for the St. Louis Cardinals?

- First year
- 2 years
- 3 years
- 4 years
- 5+ years

Display This Question:

If How long have you been a season ticket holder for the St. Louis Cardinals? 5+ years Is Selected

If you have been a season ticket holder for the St. Louis Cardinals for more than 5 years, please enter how many years.

Do you personally have season tickets or are you affiliated with a company that has season tickets?

- Personal Season Tickets
- Company Season Tickets

What was the opponent at last St. Louis Cardinals home game you attended?

- Arizona Diamondbacks
- Atlanta Braves
- Baltimore Orioles
- Boston Red Sox
- Chicago Cubs
- Chicago White Sox
- Cincinnati Reds
- Cleveland Indians
- Colorado Rockies
- Detroit Tigers
- Houston Astros
- Kansas City Royals
- Los Angeles Angels
- Los Angeles Dodgers
- Miami Marlins
- Milwaukee Brewers
- Minnesota Twins
- New York Mets
- New York Yankees
- Oakland Athletics
- Philadelphia Phillies
- Pittsburgh Pirates
- San Diego Padres
- San Francisco Giants
- Seattle Mariners
- Tampa Bay Rays
- Texas Rangers
- Toronto Blue Jays
- Washington Nationals

How many St. Louis Cardinals home games do you attend per year?

- 1
- 2-5
- 6-10
- 11-15
- 16-20
- 21-25
- 25+

Overall, I would consider myself a lifelong fan of the St. Louis Cardinals.

- Strongly agree
- Somewhat agree
- Neither agree nor disagree
- Somewhat disagree
- Strongly disagree

How many years have you been following the St. Louis Cardinals?

- Less than 1 year
- 1 - 2 years
- 3 - 4 years
- 5 - 6 years
- 7 - 8 years
- 8+ years

How many other Major League Baseball teams do you root for?

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5 or more

Which of the following additional Major League Baseball stadiums have you attended a game at? (Check all that apply)

- Angel Stadium of Anaheim (Los Angeles Angels of Anaheim)
- AT&T Park (San Francisco Giants)
- Chase Field (Arizona Diamondbacks)
- Citi Field (New York Mets)
- Citizens Bank Park (Philadelphia Phillies)
- Comerica Park (Detroit Tigers)
- Coors Field (Colorado Rockies)
- Dodger Stadium (Los Angeles Dodgers)
- Fenway Park (Boston Red Sox)
- Globe Life Park in Arlington (Texas Rangers)
- Great American Ball Park (Cincinnati Reds)
- Kauffman Stadium (Kansas City Royals)
- Marlins Park (Miami Marlins)
- Miller Park (Milwaukee Brewers)
- Minute Maid Park (Houston Astros)
- Nationals Park (Washington Nationals)
- Oakland Coliseum (Oakland Athletics)
- Oriole Park at Camden Yards (Baltimore Orioles)
- Petco Park (San Diego Padres)
- PNC Park (Pittsburgh Pirates)
- Progressive Field (Cleveland Indians)
- Rogers Centre (Toronto Blue Jays)
- Safeco Field (Seattle Mariners)
- SunTrust Park (Atlanta Braves)
- Target Field (Minnesota Twins)
- Tropicana Field (Tampa Bay Rays)
- Turner Field (Atlanta Braves)
- Guaranteed Rate Field (Chicago White Sox)
- Wrigley Field (Chicago Cubs)
- Yankee Stadium (New York Yankees)
- None of the Above

Please rate your level of satisfaction with your game-day experience during the last St. Louis Cardinals home game you attended with respect to the points below.

	Extremely dissatisfied	Somewhat dissatisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Extremely satisfied
The quality of beverages inside the stadium	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The number of restrooms available inside the stadium	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The amount of time it takes to get around once inside the stadium	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The service you received from food and beverage vendors	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The service you received from all other stadium personnel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The overall safety and security of the stadium	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The friendliness of the security staff at the stadium	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I often display the St. Louis Cardinals name or insignia at my workplace, home, or on my clothing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When someone praises the St. Louis Cardinals, it feels like a personal compliment.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel a sense of "ownership" for the St. Louis Cardinals rather than just being a fan.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When someone criticizes the St. Louis Cardinals, it feels like a personal insult.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
When the St. Louis Cardinals lose a game, it feels like my personal failure.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
There is no better place than Busch Stadium in major league baseball.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have a lot of memories of Busch Stadium.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Busch Stadium cannot be replaced by any name in my mind.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Busch Stadium represents the home of the St. Louis Cardinals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
Without the facility naming rights sponsorship, I believe the St. Louis Cardinals do not have enough funds to renovate the stadium.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Please answer somewhat disagree.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think that the St. Louis Cardinals need the income from the facility naming rights sponsorship to run the team.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Due to the enormous growth in the cost of facilities, marketing, and player salaries, major league baseball owners have struggled to find needed resources to fund their teams.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The St. Louis Cardinals are financially challenged to run a competitive team.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I think favorably of a St. Louis Cardinals fan who purchases products from Anheuser-Busch.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think that it is a wonderful idea to buy products produced by AT&T.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think favorably of Anheuser-Busch.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Because Anheuser-Busch is the naming rights sponsor, I have a positive attitude toward Anheuser-Busch.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Evaluate your feelings based on the outcome of the last St. Louis Cardinals game you attended. Please make one selection for EACH of the 5 sets of adjectives or emotions.

- Extremely good
- Somewhat good
- Neither good nor bad
- Somewhat bad
- Extremely bad

- Extremely sad
- Somewhat sad
- Neither sad nor happy
- Somewhat happy
- Extremely happy

- Extremely satisfied
- Somewhat satisfied
- Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
- Somewhat dissatisfied
- Extremely dissatisfied

- Extremely angry
- Somewhat angry
- Neither angry nor thrilled
- Somewhat thrilled
- Thrilled

- Extremely depressed
- Somewhat depressed
- Neither depressed nor elated
- Somewhat elated
- Extremely elated

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I can recognize Anheuser-Busch among other competing brands.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am aware of Anheuser-Busch.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Some characteristics of Anheuser-Busch come to mind quickly.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can quickly recall the symbol or logo of Anheuser-Busch.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Please answer somewhat agree.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have difficulty imagining Anheuser-Busch in my mind.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Anheuser-Busch products include: Budweiser, Michelob, Rolling Rock, Busch, Shock Top, and Johnny Appleseed

	0	1	2-3	4-5	6+
How many products or services have you ever purchased from Anheuser-Busch?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Condition: How many products or servic... Is Selected. Skip To: Indicate the extent to which you agre....

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
I am satisfied with my decision to purchase a product(s) and/or service(s) from Anheuser-Busch.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My choice to buy a product(s) and/or service(s) from Anheuser-Busch was a wise one.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think that I did the right thing when I bought a product(s) and/or service(s) from Anheuser-Busch.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am not happy that I bought a product(s) and/or service(s) from Anheuser-Busch.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I truly enjoyed my purchase of a product(s) and/or service(s) from Anheuser-Busch.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
There is a close fit between Anheuser-Busch and the St. Louis Cardinals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Anheuser-Busch and the St. Louis Cardinals have many similarities.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
It makes sense that Anheuser-Busch is the facility naming rights sponsor for the St. Louis Cardinals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My image of the St. Louis Cardinals is consistent with my image of Anheuser-Busch.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
The user of Anheuser-Busch products is unique.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The user of Anheuser-Busch products is energetic.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The user of Anheuser-Busch products is smart.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company of Anheuser-Busch is socially responsible.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The company of Anheuser-Busch is trustworthy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The service quality of Anheuser-Busch is inconsistent.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The service of Anheuser-Busch is worthy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I am more likely to attend future St. Louis Cardinals games.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am more likely to purchase products from Anheuser-Busch.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am more likely to buy St. Louis Cardinals clothing.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am more likely to support the St. Louis Cardinals.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements using the scale indicated below.

	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Strongly agree
I feel a strong sense of belonging to Anheuser-Busch.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I identify strongly with Anheuser-Busch.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Anheuser-Busch embodies what I believe in.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Anheuser-Busch is like a part of me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Anheuser-Busch has a great deal of personal meaning to me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

What is your gender?

- Male
- Female
- Other _____

Please enter the year you were born.

What is the level of school you have completed?

- Did Not Complete High School
- High School/GED
- Some College
- Bachelor's Degree
- Masters Degree
- Advance Graduate work or PhD.

What is your race/ethnicity?

- American Indian or Alaskan Native
- Asian
- African American
- Caucasian
- Hispanic or Latino
- Middle Eastern
- Pacific Islander

What is your current marital status?

- Single, Never Married
- Married
- Separated
- Divorced
- Widowed

What is your approximate average household income?

- \$0 - \$24,999
- \$25,000 - \$49,999
- \$50,000 - \$74,999
- \$75,000 - \$99,999
- \$100,000 - \$124,999
- \$125,000 - \$149,999
- \$150,000 - \$174,999
- \$175,000 - \$199,99
- \$200,000 and up

What best describes your current occupation?

- Executive/Manager
- Professional
- Government/Military
- Teacher/Professor
- Salesman/Buyer
- Secretary/Clerk
- First-line Supervisor
- Self-Employed
- Travel Industry
- Housewife
- Student
- Retired
- Other, please specify _____

Input your home ZIP code.