Consumers’ Attitudes and Behaviours toward the Sponsors of a Football Club

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Abstract

This thesis aims to investigate whether people’s attitudes and behaviours toward certain types of commercial brands change when these, become a sponsoring partner of a well-known international football club. Specifically, this thesis uses the context of the football industry to examine whether sponsoring a football team has any effect on individuals’ attitudes toward the sponsors and purchase intentions of commercial brands. A full-factorial design experiment is the approach chosen for this research. The research will employ an experiment 4x2 between subjects, full factorial design to test what effect different sponsors’ brands such as functional, innovative, high and low involvement with and/or without an associated to a football club have on individuals’ attitudes, behaviours and purchase intentions toward the commercial brands. Further, in the experiment participants were exposed to one of the eight possible conditions, which were presented as modified print advertisements. A total of 240 responses were collected through online convenience sampling on social platforms including Facebook, Pollpool and SurveyCircle. Factorial ANCOVA and linear regression analyses were conducted to test the hypothesised effects. The results indicated that the type of sponsor does not affect attitude toward the sponsor and purchase intentions. It is also showed that attachment to a club has a significant effect on attitude toward the sponsor. Moreover, being associated with a football club affects the consumers’ purchase intentions. Both theoretically and practical implications of these findings, alongside directions for future research, are discussed.
1. Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Football is the most popular sport in the world with an average of 3.5 billion fans across the world (Dawson, 2016) and with an average of 265 million people practising it worldwide (Pledge Sports, 2017). This makes the football industry one of the biggest sports industries in the world, especially in countries around Europe, Latin America and Asia (Ozanian, 2016). For instance, according to Deloitte’s annual review of football finance (2017) the ‘big five’ European leagues (England, Italy, Germany, Spain and France) generated a collective revenue of €1.4 billion in 2015/16 (Barnard, Ross, Savage, & Winn, 2017). Moreover, in the same year, the whole European football market made a revenue of €24.6 billion alone. All professional football clubs have some key elements, which directly contribute to the overall success of the sports entity. The literature identified two main components, which are sponsors and fans, these are essential to the success of a football club. The relationship between all these parties is commonly known as relationship marketing. Grönroos (1994) described the concept as “the process to establish, maintain, and enhance relationships with customers and other partners, at a profit, for the objectives of the parties involved to be met” (p.9). Therefore, it is safe to assume that having a strong relationship between these parties is fundamental to the overall success of any football institution.

Moreover, sponsorship contracts are one of the most important contributors to the revenue of the football industry along with media rights which are also fundamental (Barnard, et al, 2017). According to Parker and Fink (2010) sports organisations received 69% of all sponsorship investments. In order for sponsorship contracts to be successful five key factors have been identified, these are trust, mutual understanding, long-term perspective, communication and cooperation (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2005; Bühler & Nufer, 2010). Furthermore, sponsorship agreements play an essential role in all professional football clubs as they account for a significant percentage of the club’s overall revenue (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). For instance, in the English Premier League sponsors account for 30% of the total commercial revenue generated (Barnard, Ross, Savage, & Winn, 2017). Some of the highest paid sponsorship contracts of football clubs are Manchester United and Chevrolet that pays USD$80 million yearly, Barcelona and Qatar Airways with USD$45 million yearly and Bayern Munich and Deutsche Telecom with USD$ 40 million (Amorim & Almeida, 2015).
Fans also contribute to the overall revenue of a football club in various ways. For instance, fans are the ones that purchase most of the club’s merchandise, determine match attendance, determine television viewership and even some of them are part owners of the clubs by the acquisition of club shares (Banerjee, 2017). According to Barnard, et al, (2017) in the ‘big five’ European leagues fans’ actions account for a significant percentage of the overall revenues. For example, in the English Premier League fans account for 17% of the overall club’s revenue. In the German Bundesliga fans account for 19%, in Spain fans account for 20% and fans account for 11% in both the Italian and French leagues (Barnard, Ross, Savage, & Winn, 2017). With the impressive size of the market and the many resources available it is a surprise that the football industry as an academic topic has not been explored enough yet in the marketing field (Ozanian, 2016). More specifically, the relationship between fans, sponsors and clubs in a football context (Ozanian, 2016).

1.2 Research Background

The purpose of this project is to investigate whether people’s attitudes and behaviours toward certain types of commercial brands change when they, become a sponsoring partner of a well-known international football club. The project aims to build on the relationship between fans, sponsors and football clubs. More specifically, whether sponsoring a football team has any effect on a brand. However, in order to do so, this study takes a secondary role which attempts to bridge the gap between the three key topic areas. Thus, a thorough review of the existing literature in each area is crucial to determine what is comprehended of the interactions between these topics.

First, it is important to understand the context of this study, the relationship between football clubs, fans and sponsors. Relationship marketing is a term that has been long explored in various academic fields (Domingues, 2015). The key idea behind this term is the development of a close, long-term and personal relationship between two or more parties (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). Furthermore, relationship marketing has been explored in various contexts, sports being an important one. For instance, Bühler and Nufer (2010) described relationship marketing in sports as “the formation and maintenance of positive, enduring and mutually beneficial relations between professional sports organisations and their stakeholders” (p. 25). In the football context, fans involvement with the club is a vital piece for the subsistence of any professional club as they are the ones that constantly contribute to the club’s income as
well as they contribute to the social side of the club by using positive forms of communication such as word-of-mouth that benefit the organisation (Bee & Kahle, 2006). Therefore, developing a strong relationship with them is essential to achieve a certain level of success (Bee & Kahle, 2006).

A close-related construct that is relevant to relationship marketing is the idea of attachment. In the literature, it has been identified that an individual who is attached to an object or person is naturally motivated to seek closeness to the specific figure to promote the level of affection (Pedeliento, et al, 2016). Park et al, (2006) stated that the attachment individuals can develop towards a brand or sports team can be represented as a psychological state of mind in which a strong affective and cognitive bond connects the individual with a brand to the point the brand is considered as an extension of the self. Thus, team attachment can be defined as “a form of psychological connection toward a sports club, introducing the connectedness of an individual’s self-concept and the anticipation of the sports club’s success and failures as one’s own” (Koronios, Psiloutsikou, Kriemadis, Zervoulakos, & Leivaditi, 2016, p. 241). Team attachment can influence individual’s aspirations to engage in certain behaviours and attitudes that can positively affect the club and in some cases, the sponsors (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Koronios, et al, 2016). Furthermore, it stated that involvement is closely related to attachment and commitment (Park et al, 2006).

Involvement in a consumer behaviour context can be defined as the degree to which consumers are engaged in different aspects of the consumption process as it relates to products, advertisements and purchasing (Kinley, Josiam, & Lockett, 2010). Therefore, the higher the level of involvement, the higher chance of consumers to seek outside information to evaluate potential alternatives (Kinley, et al, 2010). The opposite happens with low involvement objects as these have little significance and the cognitive attitude is much less complex to consumers.

The relationship between clubs and sponsors is also a relationship that could hugely positively or negatively impact the overall revenue of a football club. Sports sponsorship is commonly known as a business-to-business (B2B) relationship between a sponsor or sponsors and a sporting entity (Biscaia, et al. 2013). According to Bühler and Nufer (2010), the top sponsored sports are football, golf, tennis and basketball. For instance, one of the most important football leagues in the world is the English premier league known as Barclay’s Premier League, which is named after one of the biggest banks in the U.K. (Bühler & Nufer,
Sponsorship could be directed to a specific league, club or player. As further discussed in the literature review chapter, sponsorship in the football context has become much more than a simple sponsorship deal. Böhlet, Heffernan and Hewson (2007) stated that sponsorship is a key element for the football industry, a powerful marketing tool for companies, and an essential income contributor for professional clubs and non-profit football organisations. Sponsorship is presented in various different methods, the most popular is through the football uniforms, sports facilities such as stadium and training centres, and through football accessories, for example, football boots and training gear (Groot & Ferwerda, 2015). Given the size and importance of sponsorship to football clubs, the effects of the relationship between clubs and sponsors could be affected by a third party, the fans. It is known that sponsors want football fans to have the same positive attitude towards the sponsors as they do towards their team (Madrigal, 2000; Parker & Fink, 2010).

Fans are the primary and most important customers of sports bodies. Therefore, it is essential for sports entities to establish and maintain a strong relationship with their supporters (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). The term fan can be defined as “an enthusiastic devotee of some particular sports consumptive object” (Decrop & Derbaix, 2010, p. 588). This could relate directly to the sport itself or to a specific league, club. Fandom and loyalty in most cases can be related to each other, one cannot endure without the other one as being a fan means one has loyalty to someone or something (Tapp, 2004).

1.3 Research Objectives

From the discussion presented, this research intended to achieve the following research objectives.

- To determine how consumers’ attachment to a football club affects attitudes and behaviours towards a certain type of sponsors and its brands.
- To determine whether a certain type of sponsor plays a significant role in terms of overall sponsoring success.

1.4 Research Methodology

This project is concerned with consumer responses to variables within an advertising context, which can be best measured by the manipulation of variables in an experimental
design. Therefore, this research adopts a 4x2 between-subject full factorial design to test the consumers’ attitudes and behaviours towards certain types of sponsors such as functional, innovative, high and low purchase involvement sponsors by conceptualising attachment levels to a particular football club.

1.5 Research Implications

1.5.1 Theoretical Implications

The intention is to provide insight into an area with little prior research that could be used as a platform for research in the future. After the reviewing of literature and to the knowledge of the researcher, a lack of current literature regarding the exploration on the effect of sponsoring a big club could have to different types of sponsors was found. Further, how having a business relationship with a football club can affect consumers’ attitudes and behaviours toward different types of sponsoring brands of a football club is also largely unknown. Which basically looks at the relationship between football clubs, sponsors and fans. Current studies only focus on the relationship between fans and sports clubs, some others between sports clubs and sponsors and on the relationship between fans and sponsors. However, no studies were found that looked at how consumers evaluate different types of sponsors in relation to a particular club. Therefore, it is safe to assume that a gap exists regarding the relationship of these three streams, and the perception of individuals on sponsors in the context of a football club. This thesis will contribute to an effort to address the currently existing gap in the literature. Additionally, this thesis will try to provide a basis for future research in relation to attachment to a football club, involvement and consumers’ perceptions.

1.5.2 Practical Implications

The research findings of this thesis could have an impact on the practitioners specifically sponsors and football clubs. Moreover, the results could aid sponsors and clubs to fully understand the fanatical and non-fanatical attitudes and behaviours towards them as well as how attachment and involvement play an essential role in the perception of different types of sponsors of a football club. In practice, this project could potentially be taken into consideration by sports organisations who wish to gain a better understanding of their target audience. This thesis could also be potentially resourceful for companies looking to sponsor sports clubs as fully understanding consumers’ behaviours and attitudes towards the sponsors, this will allow these businesses to target those consumers more effectively.
1.6 Thesis Outline

This thesis consists of six chapters. The current chapter has presented the proposed research and research questions as well as it has provided justification for the chosen subject area, described the research gap, introduced the concepts to be investigated and outlined the research’ aims. The content of the following chapters is as follows.

Chapter Two, Literature Review, provides a more in-depth discussion of the three main concepts (football, sports sponsorship and fans). The chapter also discusses the existing research gap and gives greater understanding to the context surrounding the exploratory study at hand. Further, uses the existing literature discussed to formulate three hypotheses.

Chapter Three, Methodology, outlines the methods adopted for the research. A detailed plan of the developing process of the final study is presented, which includes online experiment and stimuli, sampling procedures and questionnaire are discussed. The final questionnaire is also presented.

Chapter Four, Results, presents the research findings including a sample overview, descriptive statistics and the hypotheses testing.

Finally, Chapter Five, Discussion and Conclusions, presents a discussion of key research findings, research limitations, implications and contributions. Lastly, suggestions for future research are provided.
2. Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The following chapter aims to give an overall assessment of the three key streams underpinning the thesis topic: football, fan attachment, and sponsoring brands. The chapter’s main goal is to gain a better understanding of the available literature regarding the interrelations between fans, sponsors and football clubs. Each area is examined in terms of definitions, interpretations and relevant research findings. Initially, the football section examines football as an academic topic. The subsequent section explores relationship marketing in sports literature, which is followed by a section focused on football fans literature and the relationship marketing of fans. This section also includes an analysis of fan loyalty, fan attachment and involvement. Following, this chapter reviews the sports sponsorship literature highlighting four main areas; the relationship marketing for sponsors, professional football sponsorships, which includes the possible outcomes of sponsorship, and an overall look at team sponsors. Finally, the three hypotheses formulated for this research are presented and discussed. It is hoped that the literature review presented in this chapter provides a comprehensive approach to these concepts, shows the associations of the main streams and gives greater understanding to the context surrounding the exploratory study at hand.

2.2 Football

Football is arguably one of the most influential sports in the world (Dawson, 2016). The fans play a crucial role in professional football clubs as they assist in the creation of value and the generation of revenue. The football industry generates extraordinary amounts of revenue for the biggest clubs from sponsorship contracts and fan loyalty (Ozanian, 2016). In recent decades, football has gradually become a subject of academic research. Many studies have been focused on the social-cultural aspects of the sport, the fans’ behaviours and attitudes, and also the economic side of the sport (Bühler, 2006). Football as an academic topic has gained certain popularity that different researchers of different academic fields have researched the topic, these include physics, law, finance, management and marketing (Bühler, 2006). One of the key elements that have helped football grow and become the most popular sport in the world is sponsorship contracts (Bühler, 2006). Some football clubs have generated billions from different contracts such as television rights, sponsors, football kits and more. For instance, in 2016, Real Madrid became the most valuable team for the fourth time in a row with an overall value of $3.65 billion (Ozanian, 2016). This shows how sponsors can contribute greatly
to the success of a football club. Therefore, it is clear that sponsorship contracts have been essential for football clubs to expand and grow and to achieve the level of success they currently have (Bühler, 2006). Football clubs rely on the relationships they have with their sponsors and fans, the main goal is to achieve a strong and durable relationship with both parties to achieve a high level of success.

2.3 Relationship Marketing

Berry (1983) was the first to contribute to the concept of ‘relationship marketing’ as a title for service marketing. He explained this notion as “the action of attracting, maintaining, and in multi-service organizations enhancing customer relationships” (p. 25). From an industrial marketing perspective, Jackson (1985) defined it as a “Marketing concentrated towards strong, lasting relationships with individual accounts” (p. 120). Moreover, Grönroos (1994) describes relationship marketing from a network perspective as “the process to establish, maintain, and enhance relationships with customers and other partners, at a profit, for the objectives of the parties involved to be met. This is achieved by mutual exchange and fulfilment of promises” (p.9). Since then, the term has been played out in various ways but has been consistent with its main emphasis that is the creation and endurance of relationships between two entities (Ballantyne, Christopher, & Payne, 2003). Relationship marketing is a term that has been extensively studied and used (Domingues, 2015). However, the literature suggests that relationship marketing is easily confused by a similar concept known as transaction marketing. Relationship marketing sets emphasis on close, long-term and personal customer relations as well as focusing on the retention of existing customers rather than seeking new acquisitions (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). On the other hand, transaction marketing contemplates the idea of the satisfaction of customers’ needs as an exchange of goods and services for money in a short-term transaction that requires minimal communication between both parties (Bühler & Nufer, 2010).

Furthermore, Barnes (1994) took the concept and effectively classified it into four groups in which relationship marketing has been theorised. The first group considers the locking in of customers which work as a unilateral approach to create high barriers to exit (Barnes, 1994). The second group considers customer retention that can be interpreted as repeat buying behaviour (Barnes, 1994). The third group identified contemplates database marketing which requires building detailed customer intelligence files that allow ongoing customised
communications (Barnes, 1994). The fourth and final group considers the term ‘partnering’ as the ongoing partnership between buyers and sellers that provide both parties with rewards (Barnes, 1994; Morris, et al. 1998). The process has been described as an ongoing cooperative behaviour between businesses and consumers (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 1995). However, authors such as Kotler and Dubois (1992) argued that businesses have moved forward and changed from this traditional mindset that relies on a short-term transaction orientated goal to a more long-term building relationship orientated goal. This process is known as the ‘paradigm shift’, this shift has come from the realisation that a transaction between business and customer is worth more if a relationship can be created (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). Additionally, Figure 1 shows the development of relationship marketing over the last hundred years with an emphasis on how the interactions between businesses and customers have changed and shifted towards a more relationship focus orientated-goal. It is clear that businesses have been progressing toward a different type of relationship marketing where the emphasis lies in developing strong and long-lasting relationships.

![Figure 2.1: Paradigm Shift.](image)

Authors such as Morgan and Hunt (1994) stated that relationship marketing involves all marketing activities that contribute to developing, establishing and maintaining effective relationship interactions. Additionally, Grönroos (2004) presented relationship marketing as
an integrative process that requires three key elements: value, interaction and communication. These three key elements allow the relationship between both parties to be a two-way street of communication as well as it assists in the creation of a strong relationship. The relationship marketing literature has shown that there are two approaches to relationship marketing; transactional and relational exchanges. Both methods are valid for businesses, but the key difference is that the first one is short-term orientated and the second is more long-term orientated (Bee & Kahle, 2006). Moreover, using a relational exchange method may prove to be more effective as a deeper relationship interaction will be created which ultimately could be reflected in repeat purchasing behaviour (Bee & Kahle, 2006). Ultimately, relationship marketing is based on the concept of exchange. The exchange must be mutually beneficial for both parties and only then a long-term relationship can be created (Morris et al. 1998). Creating value for both parties is essential for the exchange to be successful. For instance, the creation of value for the organisation can be translated into an increase in profits due to the assumption that argues a growth in trust in the organisation will lead to an increase in the frequency and amount of customers’ purchase (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). Additionally, the creation of value for consumers translates into the fulfilment of satisfaction. Bühler and Nufer defined satisfaction as a “psychological process of evaluation in which an individual’s perceived benefit exceeds the expectations” (2011, p. 28).

2.3.1 Relationship Marketing in Sports

Relationship marketing has become an essential topic in the sports industry. Sports organisations have started to adopt the concept as an effort to strengthen the association with their fans and sponsors (Bühler & Nufer, 2011). Relationship marketing in sports refers “to the formation and maintenance of positive, enduring and mutually beneficial relations between professional sports organisations and their stakeholders” (Bühler & Nufer, 2010, p. 25). The different types of stakeholders of professional sports organisations include sponsors, fans, media, internal and external stakeholders and employees (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). Researchers and academics such as Harris and Ogbonna (2008) have focused on the importance and potential benefits of relationship marketing for sports organisations. Bee and Kahle (2006) introduced a practical approach to understanding why and how sports fans engage in relationship marketing. They stated that relationships that are adopted and founded on shared values have the deepest level of influence and are most durable (Bee & Kahle, 2006).
As mentioned before, most sports organisations depend on their fans for their subsistence, therefore developing a strong relationship with them is essential to achieve a certain level of success (Bee & Kahle, 2006). Moreover, Williams and Chinn (2010) suggested that the sports performance element was similar to the services element. Therefore, aiming to create a relationship will be more beneficial for all parties. One of the benefits of creating strong relationships with the fans is the possible development of fan loyalty (Kim, Trail, Woo, & Zhang, 2011). Loyal fans are fundamental for any sports organisation as they are the ones that constantly purchase tickets and attend matches, purchase licensed official products, engage directly with the team, use word-of-mouth as a positive form of communication that can benefit the organisation and support the team endlessly (Bee & Kahle, 2006). This behaviour reflects the fans’ desire to engage and demonstrate involvement with the club as well as to maintain the relationship with the sports organisation (Bee & Kahle, 2006). It is imperative for sports organisations to develop a stronger relationship with the customers which are the fans, who should be perceived as lifetime customers. Additionally, sports organisations must achieve a comprehensive understanding of the fans’ desires, values and needs (Bee & Kahle, 2006).

Furthermore, Tsiotsou (2013) explained that in the football industry great amounts of money are normally at stake, therefore, marketing managers must deal with various challenges to better understand the fundamental relationship between clubs and fans. One of the most important issues facing sports marketing managers is how to create and maintain long-lasting relations with their fans regardless of the team performance. Furthermore, the author also stated that it is essential for any marketing relationship between sports organisations and sports consumers to include the concept of loyalty as this element is vital for any longitudinal relationship (Tsiotsou, 2013). Developing team loyalty is key for any sports organisation due to the lack of control a club has regarding match outcomes and team performances. Therefore, even if the team is going through a rough patch of defeats or poor performances fans will stay loyal. Moreover, relationship marketing for sports organisations is key to overcome the main challenges they already face or may face in the future. For instance, the repair of a damaged relationship with fans caused by poor team performances or even poor management of the club, as well as the struggle of maintaining a strong connection with fans from other countries (Kim et al. 2011; Domingues, 2015). Ultimately, the literature suggests that sports organisations should implement relationship marketing strategies to gain a competitive advantage to maintain and enhance long-term relations with their fans (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). Relationship marketing works as a tool that contributes and explains the exploration of the long-lasting
relationships between football clubs, fans and sponsors. Despite all the research conducted and all the studies available from various scholars there still exists a gap regarding relationship marketing in sports (Abeza, O'Reilly, & Reid, 2013).

2.4 Football Fans

Football is a rapidly developing industry that involves a huge amount of investment and huge numbers of followers (Naidenova, Parshakov, & Chmykhov, 2016). Top teams attract millions of individuals around the world. Football fans are not like any other types of customers as they are loyal followers, the level of loyalty they possess surpasses any other type of loyalty elsewhere (Shreyansrai, 2012). According to Bühler and Nufer (2010), fans are the primary and most important customers of sports bodies. Therefore, it is essential for sports entities to establish and maintain a strong relationship with their supporters. From the existing literature, a fan can be defined in various ways. Decrop and Derbaix (2010) define a sports fan as “an enthusiastic devotee of some particular sports consumptive object.” (p. 588). This could relate directly to the sport itself or to a specific league, club or even an individual player. However, the level of immersion with a club might vary from fan to fan. Lenhar (as cited in Bühler & Nufer, 2010, p.65) however, defined a fan as “a person who identifies with a particular sports club on a cognitive, affective and behaviour-specific level.” It is known that the term ‘fan’ tends to be misrepresented with another familiar term that is ‘supporter’ (Fillis & Mackay, 2014). Research in this field has also shown that any individual who is enthusiastic, loyal and ardent of an interest can be reasonably considered a fan (Reysen & Branscombe, 2010). According to Funk and James (2001), one of the main characteristics that make a fan unique is the loyalty towards a specific team, and this loyalty can be represented as a form of psychological connection to a team creating positive behaviours and attitudes toward it (Funk & James, 2001). Past literature about the refining of measures of sports involvement of fans has found two key aspects a cognitive and an affective dimension (Shank & Beasley, 1998). Both dimensions assist in differentiating the level of involvement from fans and supporters as the cognitive dimension relates closely to being driven by thought rather than pure emotion as the affective dimension does (Shank & Beasley, 1998).

In recent times, there has been a shift in the traditional football fandom as they have evolved into a more diverse community in terms of gender and social classes (Tapp & Clowes, 2002). Out of all a club’s stakeholders, the fans play one of the most important leading roles in
generating value for the club as well as the community (Zagnoli & Radicchi, 2010). According to Fillis and Mackay (2014) as the fandom has evolved the sport has progressed as well to the point where fans are considered and treated like consumers. However, it is important to note that football fans differ in various ways from typical consumers of ordinary businesses. For instance, consumers can also develop a strong sense of passion toward a brand like a fan would toward a football club. However, it is known that football fans are usually more passionate about their favourite team than consumers are their favourite brand. Also, football fans show a high level of loyalty towards their team, which is not commonly found in typical consumers as their willingness to switch brands can be in fact, affected by various reasons such as, price and quality (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). From a commercial perspective, fans, as consumers are an essential part of the overall consumption of football products. Therefore, having a clear understanding of the consumers (fans), leads to enhancement of loyalty and club profitability (Fillis & Mackay, 2014). As most consumers of any industry can be segmented to have a better understanding of their needs, football fans are no different. The segmentation of markets has been a tool used by marketers to achieve a better understanding of customer needs and characteristics and to permit more precise marketing approaches (Tapp & Clowes, 2002). Segmentation can be defined as “the subdividing of a market into distinct subsets of customers, where any subset may be selected as a target market to be reached with a distinct marketing mix” (Dibb & Simkin, 1997; Kotler, 1980, p. 52).

Some authors such as Tapp and Clowes (2002) have agreed that football fans can be considered as a market with the ability to be segmented. Moreover, the authors also suggest that fans will be more receptive to a segmentation approach due to the different types of fans that exist. At first, football fan segmentation was mainly focused on the common demographic variables that any other market possesses. According to Bühler and Nufer (2010), the clear majority of football fans in the early days were men, meaning football clubs had a homogeneous fan base. However, due to the evolvement of football fans, researchers have suggested the inclusion of segment-specific variables which can reflect the nature of the football market such as gender, age and social class (Tapp & Clowes, 2002). Nevertheless, Adamson, Jones and Tapp (2006) stated that besides the common demographic variables mentioned before, there are other variables that can be used to effectively segment this market, which focuses on loyalty, value, and psychological needs. Therefore, fans could be divided by their level of loyalty, their differing value to the club, their psychological and physical needs from the club and by their geodemographic and behavioural traits (Adamson, Jones, & Tapp,
According to Bühler and Nufer (2010), football clubs can develop specific strategies for each group of fans based on segmentation. These actions, in the long run, could keep the different fan groups satisfied, which will make the relationship club-fan stronger (Bühler & Nufer, 2010).

Tribal mentality is a trait that many sports fans share. It is commonly found in sports fans of Football, Australian Rules football and American college football (Armstrong, 1998; Meir & Scott, 2007). Meir and Scott (2007) argued that markets with individuals that share many needs and traits tend to be constituted of tribes. According to Cova and Cova (2001), a tribe is “a linkage of heterogeneous people, in terms of income, sex, age etc., who are linked by a shared passion of emotion” (p. 69). Armstrong (1998) proposed that tribes are more about “display, style, experience of emotion and creating communities rather than just satisfaction” (p. 306). Tribes have become more noticeable due to the way people are behaving collectively and the social forces outside modern structures generated by individuals (Meir & Scott, 2007). Moreover, Costa (1995) suggested that tribes may also have patterns of consumption that if not followed might compromise individuals’ association with the tribe. He added that members of a tribe are based merely on common interests.

Maffesoli (1996) described and used the term of neo-tribalism as “the product of individuals promoting self-identity and self-definition” (Meir & Scott, 2007, p. 47). Moreover, the author suggested that neo-tribalism is based on sentiment rather than rationality. Cova and Cova (2001) agreed with this view and further suggested that the tribes’ common denominator was their community dimension. However, later they moved a step further and stated that “the common denominator of postmodern tribes is the community of passion or emotion” (Cova & Cova, 2002, p. 598; Meir & Scott, 2007). In the football context, and according to the neo-tribalism, supporting or being a fan of a specific club is often inherited and reflects a strong family (tribe) history (Meir & Scott, 2007). Tribalism in the sports context happens when individuals identify themselves with a group and can achieve a feeling of ‘oneness’ with a team (Meir & Scott, 2007). They display a commitment to a line of activity such as attending live games as a supporter of the team and/or group functions. They could also show a particular way of expressing themselves in the way they dress and talk that differentiates them from other tribal groups. For example, wearing the team’s jersey or wearing the team’s merchandise (Meir & Scott, 2007). Moreover, tribal members possess a sense of attachment to a team, which may generate psychological satisfaction. This attachment may benefit the relationship strength
between teams and fans (Meir & Scott, 2007). Once a relationship is created, maintained and enhanced, it is possible to move one step upwards and create customer loyalty to the business.

2.4.1 Relationships Marketing and Fans

Bühler and Nufer (2010) suggested that the relationship between professional sports entities and fans can be considered a two-way association. Sports organisations need fans to survive and to prosper in both financial terms and as an organisation. The relationship between these two parties is mainly based on emotional attachment (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2005; Bühler & Nufer, 2010). For instance, if the team gets promoted then, their fans will have a positive feeling towards the club but if the team gets relegated then, there is nothing than hate from the fans. Therefore, the relationship quality depends on the team’s performance on the pitch. If the team is doing well, then the relationship is expected to be strong. On the contrary, if the team is not doing well, then the relationship is expected to deteriorate (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). However, most fans seek a positive, long-lasting and strong relationship with their favourite team. Various authors such as Morrow (1999) and Bühler and Nufer (2010) suggest that the relationship between football clubs and fans is changing to the point that the new generation of fans will not be as passionate and loyal as the older supporters. Therefore, it is essential for clubs to innovate their strategies to develop a more effective approach (Bühler & Nufer, 2010).

According to the relationship marketing literature with a focus on sports fans, great relationships are not easy to achieve as they require hard work and a lot of investments from both parties involved. The journey towards a healthy, strong and long-lasting relationship consists of various steps that involve different important tasks. From the sports organisations point of view, the way to create a strong relationship involves an in-depth research of their possible customers. They are required to know who their main clients are, where they can find them and the most effective ways to reach them (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). Once the relevant data has been gathered sports entities are able to identify different groups of fans in which then they will be able to design and offer a more suitable product or service. The aim of offering these products and services is to satisfy the needs of their most important customers, which are the fans (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). After the relationship is established football clubs need to focus on maintaining and making the relationship stronger. Furthermore, Bühler and Nufer (2010) identified that the most common strategy to accomplish this task is the implementation
of a fan loyalty program. The programme’s main goal is to encourage loyal buying behaviour by using rewards. These rewards are normally big discounts on club’s merchandise, season tickets and/or special events. On the same note, offering membership opportunities to different segmentation fan groups is another marketing strategy that can have positive results for both parties. The membership strategy’s main goal is to give fans the opportunity to interact closely with the club as an effort to strengthen the already existing bond (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). Bühler and Nufer (2010) suggested that the relationship between football clubs and fans is much more than potential income for the sports entities. Fans are essential as they create atmosphere and are part of the main attraction of live games. Therefore, football clubs need to put most of their efforts in establishing and maintaining a strong, healthy and long-lasting relationship, which can benefit both sides equally.

The fans’ identification with a club can lead to subsequent actions such as attendance to the stadium and purchase of licensed team products (Fisher & Wakefield, 1998). As the level of involvement and attachment increases in sports fans the feeling of group belongingness and affiliation upsurges too making it an essential part of social self. Furthermore, individuals with a high level of involvement and attachment may experience their team’s successes and failures as they were their own (Siomkos, Chris, & Petros, 2006). A vast range of academic studies about fan behaviour and sports consumption debate that the attitudes and behaviours fans follow toward a specific club or clubs show clear relational characteristics (Biscaia, et al, 2013). For example, Pimentel and Reynolds (2004) and Gibson, Willming and Holdnak (2002) and Richardson (2004) identified that the behaviour and attitudes of ‘real’ sports fans are characterised mainly by the significant level of commitment or loyalty. Consequently, the authors concluded that the clear majority of serious sports fans are very loyal to their team (Biscaia, et al., 2013). Additionally, it is claimed that the best position to understand the dynamics of sports consumption is from a relationship marketing perspective (Burca, Brannick, & Meenaghan, 1995).

2.4.2 Fan Loyalty

Fandom and loyalty in most cases can be related to each other; one cannot endure without the other one as being a fan means one has loyalty to something (Tapp, 2004). Loyalty has received much attention from academics and researchers and it can be defined as a “deeply held commitment to rebuy or re-patronize a preferred product consistently in the future, thereby
cause repetitive same brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts have the potential to cause switching behaviour” (Oliver, 1999, p. 459; Tsiotsou, 2013). Additionally, Funk and James (2006, p.159) argued and demonstrated that loyalty in the sports consumer context is “the outcome of a process by which individuals develop stronger emotional responses to, more functional knowledge about, and greater symbolic value for attributes and benefits associated with a sports team” (Tsiotsou, 2013). Furthermore, authors such a Funk and Pastore (2000) and Harris and Ogbonna (2008) have agreed that loyalty has been used as criteria for the segmentation of football fans. Moreover, Funk and Pastore (2000) introduced a loyalty scale that consisted of five attitudinal and five behavioural dimensions to successfully segment sports fans. They showed that personal experience was the most powerful predictor of loyalty. Additionally, Tapp (2004) reports that low levels of loyalty are driven mainly by low satisfaction with team performance or relocations, while high levels of loyalty are influenced by self-identity and family history.

Dempsey and Reilly (1998) argued that this type of loyalty comes from the supporters’ needs to escape from the ordinary workaday world, or the feeling of belongingness they get from becoming a part of the community, which can be easily found in sports (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). However, high levels of loyalty and passion lead to irrationality. Football fans tend to have an irrational consumer behaviour, which drives them to consume products related to their favourite team regardless of price (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). Furthermore, normally when it comes to purchasing decisions football fans lack the ability to make real choices. While some normal consumers have a choice between various brands, football fans are not likely to switch teams. Academics often agree with the view that the creation of loyalty between businesses and customers is key to organisational success (Oliver, 1999). Thus, research into sports marketing has shown that the links between fan loyalty and several performance measures are like other markets, especially in business to consumer contexts (Richardson, 2004). However, Parker and Stuart (1997) argued the high level of loyalty that football fans possess is far greater in comparison to customer loyalty in other markets.

In the sports fan context, the loyalty concept should contain both behavioural and attitudinal dimensions. According to Bauer et al. (2008) and Bee and Kahle (2006), the behavioural dimension focuses on the fan behaviour related to the events. Behavioural loyalty includes consistent repeat purchase, repetitive behaviour and frequency of encounters. Moreover, it takes into consideration various factors, for example, attending games at the
stadium, watching the matches on TV, wearing the logo of the team and/or purchasing club merchandise (Bauer, Stokburger-Sauer, & Exler, 2005). Additionally, two terms that could also directly influence the loyalty factor are self-image and community belonging (Kolbe & James, 2000). Current literature has shown that various authors such as Tapp (2004) and Adamson, Jones and Tapp (2006) have proposed that some football fans tend to be more loyal than the rest, therefore, it is assumed different levels of loyalty may exist (Bee & Kahle, 2006). Moreover, the authors have claimed that different sports fans demonstrate different levels of loyalty, consequently, it is safe to assume that there may be a different type of fans.

2.4.3 Fan Attachment

A close-related construct that is relevant to relationship marketing is the idea of attachment. Attachment was originally developed and introduced with the purpose of understanding the deep and enduring emotional bonds that connect one individual to another or even an individual to an object across time and space (Bowlby, 1969; Pedeliento, Andreini, Bergamaschi, & Salo, 2016). The construct is represented as “a multidimensional property of material object possession which represents the degree of linkage perceived by an individual between him and a particular object” (Chavanat, Martinent, & Ferrand, 2009, p. 647). Attachment theorists state that an individual who is attached to an object or person is naturally motivated to seek closeness to the specific figure to promote the level of affection (Pedeliento, et al, 2016). Further, the high level of affection and the willingness an individual show to maintain proximity is often applied in marketing studies to explain the concept of loyalty. Many sports marketing scholars have taken into consideration each of the components of the framework that Harris and Goode (2004) introduced which is commonly known as the ‘Framework of Service.’ The framework’s four drivers of customer loyalty are satisfaction, service quality, trust and perceived value (Harris & Ogbonna, 2008). These drivers contribute to the creation and development of loyalty and attachment to a specific product or brand. Therefore, brand attachment is a concept that directly relates to sports fan loyalty.

Authors such as Fournier (1994) and Tsiotsou (2013) have suggested brand attachment as a relevant dimension in a consumer-brand relationship. Hence, brand attachment can be defined as “the strength of the cognitive and affective bond connecting the brand with the self” (Park, MacInnis, & Priester, 2006, p. 4; Tsiotsou, 2013, p.461). The attachment individuals can develop towards a brand or sports team can be represented as a psychological state of mind in
which a strong affective and cognitive bond connects the individual with a brand to the point the brand is considered as an extension of one-self (Park et al, 2006). Moreover, emotional attachments have strong motivational and behavioural implications. These implications suggest that an individual who is strongly attached to a brand or in this case a sports team is likely to be very loyal as well as be willing to invest in, protect and try to maintain interactions with the particular brand (Park et al, 2006). The emotional and behavioural implications work as a predictor of brand loyalty, willingness to pay a premium price and unconditional support. However, positive attitudes do not always indicate strong behavioural and motivational displays (Park et al, 2006).

The literature shows that brand attachment has been frequently related to brand involvement and commitment. However, both terms differ from the real meaning of brand attachment. Authors such as Park et al. (2006) and Pimentel and Reynolds (2004) argued that commitment can be considered as an outcome of brand attachment relationships. Therefore, brand commitment can be defined as “a decision to maintain a long-term relationship with a brand in for a long time” (Park et al, 2006, p. 8). As mentioned before, brand attachment shows the psychological state of mind of consumers whereas commitment shows the intention of individuals to participate in behaviours as an effort to maintain a brand relationship (Park et al, 2006; Pimentel and Reynolds, 2004). However, the commitment of individuals to stay in a relationship may be unrelated to attachment. According to Park et al. (2006) brand attachment is more than just an attitudinal concept and can describe the consumer behaviours associated with commitment to any relationship. Therefore, brand attachment is a characteristic of the relationship between a consumer and a brand and is a direct factor that can influence brand loyalty (Tsiotsou, 2013).

Attachment also plays an important role in the sports industry, and as mentioned before, relationship marketing is an essential tool that needs to be followed by sports organisations to connect and attract fans. The implementation of relationship marketing strategies aims to create an attachment from the fans to the club and even, in the long run, create loyalty. Team attachment can be defined as “a form of psychological connection toward a sports club, introducing the connectedness of an individual’s self-concept and the anticipation of the sports club’s success and failures as one’s own” (Koronios, Psiloutsikou, Kriemadis, Zervoulakos, & Leivaditi, 2016, p. 241). Team attachment can influence individual’s aspirations to engage in certain behaviours and attitudes that can positively affect the club and in some cases, the
sponsors (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Koronios, et al, 2016). It was also found that individuals with a high level of team attachment are more capable to distinguish or label the sponsors of their preferred team (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Koronios, et al, 2016). Research has demonstrated that individuals become emotionally involved when attending sporting events, and sponsors seek to benefit from the emotional impact of sport to connect with the customers (Koronios, et al, 2016).

2.4.4 Involvement

Involvement is a concept that has been explored by many authors and in many research fields. As mentioned before, it is stated that involvement is closely related to attachment and commitment (Park et al, 2006). Involvement in a consumer behaviour context can be defined as “the degree to which consumers engaged in different aspects of the consumption process as it relates to products, advertisements and purchasing” (Kinley, Josiam, & Lockett, 2010, p. 564). Involvement leads the consumer to generate many thoughts and considerations based on the information collected (Ferreira & Coelho, 2015). The concept is frequently implemented as an explanatory behavioural method that is divided into high or low involvement categories (Roe & Bruwer, 2017). The higher the degree of object significance, the higher level of involvement a consumer will have with that object (Josiam, Kinley, & Kim, 2005; Kinley, et al, 2010). High involvement conditions make consumers generally engage in an extended problem-solving process. Therefore, the higher the level of involvement, the higher chance of consumers to seek outside information to evaluate potential alternatives (Kinley, et al, 2010). The opposite happens with low involvement objects as these have little significance and the cognitive attitude is much less complex to consumers (Kinley, et al, 2010).

Moreover, it was believed that the repeated purchase behaviour for high involvement products indicated brand loyalty and the frequent purchase behaviour for low involvement products was merely a habitual purchase behaviour (LeClerc & Little, 1997; Quester & Lim, 2003). The literature argues that different type of products develops different levels of involvement. For instance, products that are hedonic normally evoke enduring involvement whereas products that are categorised as functional or utilitarian can be important without being permanently involving (Bloch, 1981). However, further to this view, Mittal (1989) argued that essential products can provoke less purchase decision involvement than nonessential luxury products (Foxall & Pallister, 1998; Mittal, 1989). Therefore, purchase decision involvement
differs from product involvement. Purchase decision involvement can be defined as “the extent of interest and concern that a consumer brings to bear on a purchase decision task” (Foxall & Pallister, 1998, p. 181; Mittal, 1989). In other words, purchase decision involvement is the level of importance given by an individual when making a purchase decision (Foxall & Pallister, 1998; Mittal, 1989). Moreover, previous research has also suggested that individuals constantly face a dilemma when choosing between utilitarian and luxury goods, also known as innovative goods, which can be considered high and low involvement, respectively (Lu, Liu, & Fang, 2016). Utilitarian goods are normally the type of products or services that are characterised by the functional benefits that they can provide to the consumer (Lu, Liu, & Fang, 2016). Therefore, utilitarian goods can be described as effective, helpful, purposeful, necessary and practical. According to Lu, Liu and Fang (2016), consumers benefit as much from utilitarian goods than they do from luxury goods. However, most consumers perceive hedonic purchases to be unnecessary, whereas utilitarian purchases are considered to be essential and are linked to necessity (Kivetz & Simonson, 2002). Thus, engaging in utilitarian consumption does not require a meticulous decision-making process because most competitors offer the same product functionality. On the other hand, engaging in hedonic consumption triggers a more exhaustive decision-making process (Lu, Liu, & Fang, 2016; Kivetz & Simonson, 2002).

Involvement in the sports context can be defined as “the perceived interests in and personal importance of sports to an individual” (Shank & Beasley, 1998; Ko, Kim, Claussen, & Kim, 2008, p. 8). An individual’s level of sports involvement is closely related to the amount of time one spends viewing sports on television, reading about sports, following sports on social media and attending certain sports events (Walraven, Bijmolt, & Koning, 2014). This type of involvement makes an individual more likely to be exposed to sponsor’s brand and messages. Likewise, exposure to sponsors is clearly linked to the level of involvement one has to a particular team or sport. For instance, the number of games attended or watched would increase the likelihood of exposure. Therefore, the more one is involved with a team or sport, the more likely one is exposed to sponsors’ messages, and thus, the higher the probability of sponsor awareness (Walraven, Bijmolt, & Koning, 2014). A recent study by Tsiotsou (2013) stated that a popular categorisation of involvement in the sports context is the classification of enduring involvement and situational involvement (Tsiotsou, 2013). Enduring involvement is the individual’s ongoing interest in a specific sport based on values and past experiences with the sport (Bachleda, Fakhar, & Elouazzani, 2016). The concept is based on the relationship of the product or service to the individual’s beliefs and values (Sung, Koo, Dittmore, & Eddy,
In comparison, situational involvement refers to the amount of involvement generated by a specific sports game (Bachleda, et al, 2016), which is directed towards the usage of a product or service in a particular situation (Sung, et al, 2016). Further, situational involvement is a temporary state of stimulation related to specific team attributes (Sung, et al, 2016). Existing research supports the idea that the overall effectiveness of sports sponsorship can be affected by consumer sports involvement (Ko, et al, 2008). Individuals with high involvement are most likely to become aware of sponsors, and thus develop a positive image of them (Sung, et al, 2016).

2.5 Sports Sponsorship

Sponsorship as a marketing tool can be applied to many different projects. For example, businesses can sponsor cultural, environmental, social or educational professional plans (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). However, sports sponsorship is the most common and most important type of sponsorship. Therefore, corporate sponsorship activities in the sports context have become extremely popular. In some countries, corporate sponsorship is more popular than in others. Sports sponsorship works as an effective tool that can positively affect brand equity including brand personality, brand image for organisations and ultimately, purchase intentions (Javalgi, Traylor, Gross, & Lampman, 1994). The literature shows that various authors have produced numerous definitions for sports sponsorship, therefore, an appropriate definition as such does not exist. For instance, Biscaia, et al (2013) described sponsorship as a business-to-business relationship between a sponsor or sponsors and a sporting entity in which relationship marketing plays an essential role. This implies that both entities gain something out of this relationship. The sports entity earns support such as the monetary resources needed to improve team quality and/or the managerial side of the club, while the sponsors’ gains are related to the direct association with the sports entity and can be both tangible and intangible benefits (Biscaia, et al, 2013). However, Bühler and Nufer (2010) defined sports sponsorship differently, the authors described it as a “business partnership between a sponsor and a sponsee based on reciprocity” (p. 92).

The sponsor offers financial resources directly to the sponsee and receives in return a predefined service (Biscaia, et al, 2013). Although many ways of defining the term exist, it was found that most definitions consist of similar patterns. For instance, many definitions state that sports sponsorship aims at strengthening the relationship between clubs and sponsoring
organisations based on the principle of reciprocity (Bühler & Nufer, 2010; Biscaia et al, 2013; Amorim & Almeida, 2015). Sport sponsorship agreements are an approach used by many companies to pursue objectives and benefits. These include overcoming cultural barriers (Cousens, Babiak, & Bradish, 2006), establishing a relationship with the consumers of the sponsee sports organisation, increasing brand awareness, enhancing sales, generating protection from competitors and facilitating positive brand image (Biscaia, et al., 2013). Basically, the ultimate goal of sports sponsorship is to orientate the consumer’s preferences towards the sponsor’s products (Cornwell, 2008). The literature has examined the possibility that the supporter’s attitudes and behaviours toward the sponsors of a team may be affected by the competitive performance and level of achievement of that sports team (Koronios, et al, 2016). When a team is being successful it is known that fans tend to develop a positive association with the team, which enhances their self-image (Koronios, et al, 2016). Further, it is suggested that higher-performing clubs generate more positive feelings among their fans and as a result increases the possibility of fans’ accurate recognition of associated sponsors with the sports club (Wakefield & Bennett, 2010). Contrary to the prior statement, when a team is underperforming, fans tend to create distance between themselves and the sports club to avoid changes in self-esteem (Koronios, et al, 2016).

Sponsorship for sports entities has flourished in recent years, the usage of this technique has increased more and more every year. Parker and Fink (2010) have reported that sports organisations received 69% of all sponsorship investment, with a total of more than USD$10 billion dollars in 2007. Sports sponsorship total spending worldwide was USD$ 35 billion dollars approximately in 2011 (Amorim & Almeida, 2015). Furthermore, a recent study showed that sports sponsorships were estimated to be worth USD $57.5 billion in 2015 (Angell, Gorton, Bottomley, & White, 2016). With all the resources provided by the sponsors in the sports industry, the sponsors can create fan-brand connections, feelings of indebtedness and reciprocity (Madrigal, 2000). The sponsorship structure for professional sports teams has changed over the years as today sports teams have replaced the classic single benefactor for a whole pool of sponsors (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). Moreover, the sports sponsorship literature shows that many professional sports teams have structured all their sponsors in a form of a pyramid. Bühler and Nufer (2010) identified the four main levels of the sponsors’ pyramid. First, the main sponsor, who normally have their brand logo implemented in the team shirts. Second, the kit supplier, whose main job is to provide both training and game-day uniforms, football boots and another sports equipment. Commercial partners are normally the third level
of the sponsors’ pyramid; these sponsors usually invest less money than the other level of sponsors, and thus, they have fewer communication rights. These sponsors are normally named as an official partner of the club. Regional/local sponsors are the bottom level of the pyramid even though these sponsors pay less than the other levels they can contribute to the revenue creation as much as the other levels (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). All the levels of the sponsors’ pyramid are shown in Figure 2. However, this sponsorship structure can vary from sports club to sports club. For instance, some sports clubs consider their main sponsor and kit supplier on the same level.

![Figure 2.2: Sponsorship Structure.](source: Relationship marketing in sports (Buhler, 2010, p. 94). Copyright 2010 by Relationship marketing in sports. Reprinted with permission.)

2.5.1 Relationship Marketing and Sports Sponsorships

As discussed, professional sports organisations have multiple sponsorship deals. Therefore, sports entities are required to deal with different sponsors, thus, they must deal with different types of relationships (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). For instance, the relationship with the main sponsor can be stronger and more intense than the relationship with a local sponsor. All relationships with sponsors must be managed properly. The sports sponsorship literature has shown that the relationship between sponsors and sports entities are normally based on transactional contractual agreements (Cheng & Stotlar, 1999; Bühler & Nufer, 2010). Authors such as Bühler and Nufer (2010) and Chadwick and Thwaites (2005) agree that many sponsorship deals are short-term contractual transactions because some sponsors are looking for quick results. However, long-term sponsorship deals are chosen when a lot of investments are involved.
Furthermore, the authors noted that many sponsorship contracts in English football are short-term orientated and when these contractual obligations have been fulfilled both sponsors and sponsees move on to other sponsorship deals. Therefore, it is safe to assume that various sponsorship deals are used by both sponsees and sponsors to try to exploit each other’s attractiveness for a short period of time, therefore reducing the relationship to a simple transaction. However, Cheng and Stotlar (1999) proposed that sports sponsorship should be a durable relationship to reach mutual fulfilment for both parties involved. Supporting this view, Chadwick and Thwaites (2005) suggested that sponsorship deals should not be a short-term transaction as the greater benefits may be achievable from a closer, more strategic long-term relationship. Moreover, according to recent studies conducted by Chadwick and Thwaites (2005) and Bühler (2006), the long-term relationship between sponsors and sponsees in the football industry can be considered as a business to business (B2B) relationship.

2.5.2 Sports Sponsorship Possible Outcomes.

A considerable part of the sports sponsorship literature has focused on the investment of resources sponsorship deals require (Tsiotsou & Alexandris, 2009). However, various authors have indicated that there is a lack of evidence regarding how and when sponsorship works and becomes profitable (Hoek, 1999; Meenaghan & O’Sullivan, 2001; Tsiotsou & Alexandris, 2009). It was stated that sponsorship effectiveness is normally assessed based on indicators related to product sales and stock prices (Christensen, 2006; Tsiotsou & Alexandris, 2009). However, they further discussed that the attitudinal elements are also essential factors that contribute to the measurement of sponsorship effectiveness (Tsiotsou & Alexandris, 2009). The attitudinal and behavioural outcomes include media exposure, awareness, sponsor image, worth-of-mouth communication, purchase intentions, brand recognition and recall rates; all of these have been proposed as sponsorship outcomes (Christensen, 2006; Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Tsiotsou & Alexandris, 2009). From the point of view of the sponsors, these possible outcomes can be positively or negatively affected by various aspects such as fans’ attachment, team performance, and fans’ involvement amongst others (Tsiotsou & Alexandris, 2009; Ngan, Prendergast, & Tsang, 2011). Furthermore, according to Ngan, Prendergast, and Tsang (2011) fans’ intentions to purchase a sponsor’s product increase when the team is perceived as a winning team, which also can have a positive effect on other sponsorship outcomes such as sponsor image, awareness, worth-of-mouth and brand recognition (Ngan, Prendergast, & Tsang, 2011; Tsiotsou & Alexandris, 2009). However, the opposite response can happen with
a team that is perceived as a losing team. If a brand is associated with a losing team, it may convey implications of failure or inferiority, which could directly affect brand image, and thus, overall sales (Crompton, 2015).

According to Crompton (2015), most of the past academic literature about sports sponsorship mainly focused on the possible positive effects this type of agreement might have for companies. But little research has looked into the possible negative effects sports sponsorship could have for commercial brands (Crompton, 2015). The author suggests eight negative potential downsides of sponsoring a sports team. The first four downsides are easily controlled by the sponsoring company, the other four are out of the company’s control. First, liability exposure, this risk is concerned with the liability of being exposed from alleged negligence. The author stated that the risk level for this ‘downside’ is not likely to be substantial unless the sponsor owns, controls or operates the team or the event (Crompton, 2015). Second, insensitivity to user sentiment, this downside can happen in various ways. For instance, when a sponsor is involved in changing a sport’s rule or format, changing the name of a team or stadium or even changing the team’s historic and iconic uniform for their own benefit (Crompton, 2015). Third, sponsors also must take into consideration the need to be sensitive when making decisions to the prevalent social and political environments. Actions such as renegading culture norms and values, ignoring public opinions or endorsing political parties will most likely negatively affect the sponsoring brand as well as the sponsored team (Crompton, 2015). Fourth, stakeholder opposition, as in order to maximise benefits from a sponsorship contract companies look to become highly visible. This could be an issue because some workers and stockholders may begrudge corporate funds going to a sports team rather than to them (Crompton, 2015).

The following four possible downsides of sponsoring a sports team cannot be controlled by the company as they are affected by third party’s actions. Therefore, managing the risk becomes complicated and almost unmanageable. First, team performance, as stated before, poor team’s performance directly affects purchase intentions (Crompton, 2015; Ngan, Prendergast, & Tsang, 2011). This situation is out of the sponsor’s control because it is a risk inherent to any sport as there are always winners and losers, however, according to Ngan, Prendergast, and Tsang (2011) one of the possible solutions to overcome this situation could be to try to increase the level of team identification among fans, which if successfully implemented could generate favourable responses to the sponsor regardless of the current
team’s performance (Crompton, 2015). Second, association with disruptive behaviour, if the fans or any player or players engage in violence or disruptive behaviour the negative repercussions of those actions could significantly impact in a negative way the brand’s image, which could compromise sponsor image and purchase intentions (Crompton, 2015). Third, corruption in sports organisations, just as the preceding downside, any type of corruption can directly affect in a negative way the sponsor’s brand image and reputation (Crompton, 2015). Finally, being associated with high-risk sports in which severe injury or death is inherent. This situation could have reputational or financial consequences for the sponsors involved if something disastrous should happen (Crompton, 2015).

2.5.3 Professional Football Sponsorship

Sports sponsorship has been a research topic that has been extensively studied by various academic researchers. However, professional football sponsorship as the main research topic has not been as investigated as much (Naidenova, Parshakov, & Chmykhov, 2016). The current literature on football sponsorship is mainly based on the financial aspect of the sponsorship contract rather than an in-depth analysis of the relationship between professional football clubs and sponsors. For instance, Bühler (2006) identifies four reports which are Deloitte (2005), Keynote (2002), WGZ-Bank (2002) and Ernst and Young (2004) that mostly focus on the figures relating to the income streams of football clubs. In contrast, Chadwick and Thwaites (2005) studied the issues related to the use of sponsorship in a football context as a marketing tool in the English professional football. In addition, other authors such as Rosson and Wilcox have also assessed football sponsorship as a marketing tool (Bühler, 2006). Chadwick and Thwaites (2005) and Bühler (2006) concluded that it is surprising that professional football sponsorship as a marketing tool is not as a popular as a research topic given the popularity and importance of the sport around the world.

Present literature illustrates how professional football sponsorship differs from a common sponsorship agreement. For example, Böhlet, Heffernan and Hewson (2007) state that sponsorship in the football context has become much more than a simple sponsorship deal. The authors argued that sponsorship is a key element for the football industry, a powerful marketing tool for companies, and an essential income contributor for professional clubs and non-profit football organisations. Sponsors have become one of the most important revenue streams for football clubs. According to Bühler and Nufer (2011), the German Bundesliga clubs generated
roughly €540 million only from sponsorship deals in 2010. Sponsorship is mainly presented through the football uniforms, sports facilities such as stadium and training centres, and through football accessories, for example, football boots and training gear (Groot & Ferwerda, 2015). Professional sports would not be as successful as they are now, without the support and revenue of sponsors, and sports sponsorship profits account for more than a third of the total income of football clubs in Europe (Bühler & Nufer, 2010). Furthermore, according to Groot and Ferwerda (2015), sponsorship in football uniforms is the most popular method of advertising for companies; it is a multi-dollar market which also includes football boots and equipment. Research has shown that the three major competitors are Nike, Adidas and Puma who sponsor the most popular teams in the world (Groot & Ferwerda, 2015). As mentioned before, Amorim and Almeida (2015) and Smith (2016) identified that the highest paid sponsorship uniform deals in football are Manchester United and Chevrolet that pays USD$80 million yearly, Barcelona and Qatar Airways with USD$45 million yearly and Bayern Munich and Deutsche Telecom with USD$ 40 million. These are clear examples of the vast amount of money that flows between professional football clubs and sponsors (Böhler, et al., 2007).

2.5.4 Sports Teams’ Sponsors

Previous studies suggest that sponsors want football fans to have the same positive attitude towards the sponsors as they do towards their team (Madrigal, 2000; Parker & Fink, 2010). Firstly, consumer’s attitudes are created by cognitive factors like expectancy and values, which in time turn into motivation. Later, desires to act are evoked, which eventually, behavioural intention to take action is materialised (Wang, Jain, Cheng, & George Kyaw-Myo Aung, 2012). According to past literature, the length of this process varies from individual to individual but in general terms, the process happens over a short to medium period of time. Moreover, the authors defined attitude toward a sponsor as “the fans’ overall impression of a sponsor” (Wang, Jain, Cheng, and George Kyaw-Myo Aung, 2012, p.555). The study concluded by stating that having a positive attitude toward a sponsor will encourage individuals to positively seek information about these products and develop the intention to purchase and use them (Wang, Jain, Cheng, & George Kyaw-Myo Aung, 2012).

A study conducted by Parker and Fink (2010) agreed that being a fan of a team could affect positively the behaviour towards the sponsors. Several studies (Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Madrigal, 2000; Parker and Fink, 2010) have supported the positive relationship between team
identification and attitude towards a sponsor, as well as increased intention amongst vastly identified fans to purchase sponsors products. In the sports industry, especially in the football industry, fans are susceptible to achieve a desired ‘self-concept’ by purchasing the products and services that deliver symbolic meaning (Mikhailitchenko, Tootelian, & Mikhailitchenko, 2012). Moreover, Trail, Anderson, and Fink (2000) argued that the attitude towards a team is a powerful factor that affects fans’ purchase intentions. Purchase intentions can be defined as “sports fans willingness to support a sponsor by purchasing and using its products/brands” (Wang, Jain, Cheng, & George Kyaw-Myo Aung, 2012, p. 555). Authors like Dalakas and Levin (2005) conducted a study on NASCAR drivers and sponsors, in which they stated that sports fans present a strong likelihood to prefer products from sponsors of their favourite drivers. Therefore, endorsing a positive team identity is an essential marketing communication target of any professional football club. Further, a study conducted by Wang, Jain, Cheng, and George Kyaw-Myo Aung (2012) confirmed that high fan identification or attachment to a team leads to high intention to purchase sponsor’s products. The authors concluded that fan attachment plays an essential role for sponsors as it not only evokes the intention to purchase but also improves fans attitudes and perceptions of the sponsors (Wang, Jain, Cheng, & George Kyaw-Myo Aung, 2012).

However, a more recent study (Amorim & Almeida, 2015) stated that the opposite could happen with rival club’s sponsors. One of the possible consequences of the rivalry between two teams could be the negative impact of the fans’ purchase intentions of products of the rival sponsoring brand, or even full rejection of those. According to Dalakas and Levin (2005), sports fans are normally quite aware of the sponsors of the rival team. The high level of awareness may suggest that fans try to know the sponsors of their disliked team to avoid supporting those companies. On the same note, another study that has investigated the effects of a joint sponsorship of two rival football teams was conducted by Davies, Veloutsou, and Costa (2006). The study demonstrated that rivalry in football might complicate sponsorship outcomes by the existence of negative attitudes from the rival fans. Furthermore, it was revealed that joint sponsorship for two rivals was the least approved type of sponsorship by fans of both teams, therefore, the sponsorship deal did not result in the brand preference for the sponsor (Klidas, Assen, & Oldenhof, 2015).
2.6 Research Hypotheses

2.6.1 Hypothesis One: Effect of Sponsor Type and Team Presence on Attitude toward the Sponsor.

As mentioned before, according to the sports sponsorship literature many companies engage in sports sponsorship deals because it facilitates positive brand image amongst fans and consumers of the brand (Biscaia, et al., 2013). Several studies have stated that in most occasions sports fans present are more likely to prefer products from sponsors of their favourite club (Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Madrigal, 2000; Parker and Fink, 2010). However, consumers that are not fans of any sports club might differ from this statement, as they do not have any type of attachment to the sports club. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

\[ H_1: \text{Sponsor type in association with a football club will have a significant effect on consumers’ attitude toward the sponsor.} \]

2.6.2 Hypothesis Two: Effect of Sponsor Type and Team Presence on Purchase Intentions.

As stated before, sponsoring a sports club could be beneficial for organisations as they gain a direct communication channel with the sports club’s fans, which could help them to target the fans in a more effective manner (Madrigal, 2000; Parker & Fink, 2010). Research shows that fans’ purchase intentions toward a sponsor’s product are highly affected by attachment to a sports club (Wang, et al., 2012). Further, Trail, Anderson, and Fink (2000) stated that the attitude towards a team is also a powerful factor that affects fans’ purchase intentions. However, no evidence was found on how purchase intentions are affected when a non-fanatical consumer’s preferred brand is associated with a particular football club. Therefore, the following hypothesis was developed to test whether sponsoring a football club will have any effect on fanatical and non-fanatical consumers’ purchase intentions. Hence:

\[ H_2: \text{Sponsor type in association with a football club will have a significant effect on consumers’ purchase intentions.} \]

2.6.3 Hypothesis Three: Effect on Attachment to the Club on Attitude toward the Sponsors.

Research from Parker and Fink (2010) stated that being a fan of a team could affect positively the behaviour towards the sponsors. Further, Wang, et al. (2012), also stated that having a strong attachment to a team leads to developing a positive attitude toward the sponsor
that eventually will encourage individuals to positively seek information about these products and develop the intention to purchase and use them (Wang, Jain, Cheng, & George Kyaw-Myo Aung, 2012). Given this, the following hypothesis is proposed:

**H3: Attachment to the club will affect attitude toward the sponsors.**

2.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter reviewed the literature regarding the four main streams relevant to this study. It was found that the four streams are interrelated, for instance, most sports organisations depend on their fans and sponsors for their subsistence, therefore developing a strong relationship with them is essential to achieve a certain level of success (Bee & Kahle, 2006). Further, Harris and Ogbonna (2008) identified the importance and potential benefits of relationship marketing for sports organisations, sponsors and fans. In terms of sports sponsorship, the available literature covers a wide variety of definitions and explains how the relationships with sports entities can be formed and enhanced. However, the literature highlighted that professional football sponsorship differs from a common sponsorship agreement. For example, Böhlet, Heffernan and Hewson (2007) state that sponsorship in the football context has become much more than a simple sponsorship deal. The authors argued that sponsorship is a key element for the football industry, a powerful marketing tool for companies, and an essential income contributor for professional clubs and non-profit football organisations. A sponsorship deal could have various positive or negative outcomes for the parties involved (Crompton, 2015; Ngan, Prendergast, & Tsang, 2011). From the commercial brand point of view, some of the negative risks can be controlled by them, others are just out of their control (Crompton, 2015). However, the sponsoring brand can always act accordingly and decrease the negative impact these actions could have on them (Crompton, 2015).

It was revealed that the level of loyalty fans possesses affected their interaction, commitment, and attachment to a sports team. Authors such as Parker and Stuart (1997) argued the high level of loyalty that football fans possess is far greater in comparison to customer loyalty in other markets. One study that explored and tested the relationship between football clubs, sponsors and fans was conducted by Amorim and Almeida (2015). The authors looked at the impact team identification has and how this can affect the sponsor’s brand equity. However, most of the studies discussed did not explore changes in people’s perceptions of certain types of brands when undertaking a sponsorship deal. As a result, three hypotheses were
formulated to aid addressing the existing gaps, by having a better understanding on how much people’s attitudes and behaviours change when a commercial brand becomes the sponsoring partner of a well-known international football club.
3. Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology required for the effective implementation of the proposed study. First, this chapter will review the experimental design. It then discusses the stimuli and questionnaire development. Then, a discussion of the experimental procedures, where the sample size and ethical considerations are explained. Finally, the final online questionnaire structure is discussed and explained.

3.2 Research Design

The research design is a type of inquiry within a specific method approach, in this case quantitative, which provides specific direction for practices in a research study (Creswell, 2014). In other words, it is a plan for collecting and analysing data that will allow the research to answer the proposed hypotheses. This research adopts an experimental design as the methodology. As discussed in Chapter Two, being a fan of a sports team could have an effect on the behaviour towards the sponsors (Parker & Fink, 2010). This study focused on two different manipulations, the first one is a sports team (present/ not present), and the second manipulation consists of 4 different types of sponsors. Functional, innovative, high and low involvement were the classifications given to the sponsors to conduct the experiment. Print advertisements were found to be the most appropriate vehicle for these manipulations.

3.3 Experimental Design

The research will employ a 4x2 between subjects, full factorial design to test what effect different sponsors’ brands such as functional, innovative, high and low involvement, and with or without an associated football club have on individuals’ attitudes, behaviours and purchase intentions toward the commercial brands. Real brands and a real football club were used for this experiment. Moreover, functional and innovative sponsors, high involvement and low involvement sponsors, and Manchester United presence were manipulated as independent variables to produce a total of eight unique experimental conditions for the experiment. The eight experimental manipulations developed from a combination of each independent variable for the experiment can be found in Table 3.1.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sponsor Type</th>
<th>High Involvement</th>
<th>Low Involvement</th>
<th>Functional</th>
<th>Technological</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Manipulation 1</td>
<td>Manipulation 3</td>
<td>Manipulation 5</td>
<td>Manipulation 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports Team</td>
<td>• Aeroflot and</td>
<td>• EA Sports and</td>
<td>• Apollo Tyres and</td>
<td>• Epson and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manchester United.</td>
<td>Manchester United</td>
<td>Manchester United</td>
<td>Manchester United</td>
<td>Manchester United</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.1: Experiment Manipulations.

3.4 Stimuli Development

3.4.1 Selection of Products and Brands

Manchester United sponsors were chosen as the focus for this study. According to research, fans that possess a high level of attachment and involvement with their preferred club are more likely to identify the club’s sponsors and thus, positively affect their purchase intentions (Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Madrigal, 2000; Parker and Fink, 2010; Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2000). The selection of the chosen sponsors was based on the types of products these sponsors and the level of recognition these brands have. For instance, Apollo Tyres which is Manchester United sponsor, fabricate tyres which can be categorised as a functional product. The choice for an innovative sponsor was Epson, which focuses on the creation of technological office equipment. Moreover, there were various sponsors that possessed high involvement product characteristics. However, it was decided that the most suitable options had to be sponsors that fit better the categories of high and low involvement, therefore Aeroflot which is an international airline, was chosen as the high involvement sponsor. The low involvement choice was once again selected trying to fit the category as best as possible. In this case, EA Sports was the most suitable sponsor as they are a video game manufacturer and focus on the production of football video games. Thus, their products can be categorised as a low involvement purchase.
3.4.2 Considerations for Developing Print Advertisements

The vehicles preferred for the experimental manipulation were print advertisements. According to Dahlén, Murray, and Nordenstam, (2004) print advertisements allow consumers to have control over the content because these are normally reader-paced as well as allowing the individual to decide how much time he or she wishes to take part in the advertisement content (Lee, 2000). Print advertisements permit the implicit message to be available for processing as long as needed by the spectator to ensure a more effective comprehension (Dahlén, Murray, & Nordenstam, 2004; Lee, 2000). Additionally, for an online study such as this one, print advertisements play a fundamental role due to the capacity they possess to show the stimuli in a way that all participants experience it in the same way without being subject to technical issues such as connection problems or even video quality. This type of vehicle to carry the manipulations was most deemed appropriate for these experiments because the advertisements were exclusively created for this project by using the logos of both football clubs and brands. Therefore, it was considered that static images would be the most effective way of presenting the desired stimuli.

3.4.3 Developing the Advertisements

As mentioned before, to create the eight-experimental manipulations for the experiment, eight advertisements were developed. Each of the eight advertisements was created to capture the participants’ attitudes and behaviours towards different sponsors. All advertisements were designed with the same characteristics, style and layout in an effort to reduce confounding results. The key elements used in all eight advertisements were a specific background colour that suits the sponsors’ brand colour, an image that shows each individual sponsors’ main product, a catchphrase that once again states the sponsors’ main product. The first four advertisements had Manchester United’s on the right side of the images. Then, the different sponsors’ logos were inserted on the left side of the advertisement as well as a caption on the bottom of the advertisements that read the sponsors’ name as being a proud sponsor of Manchester United football club. The other four advertisements had the same characteristics except the Manchester United logo was removed. The final experimental stimuli for each of the eight manipulations are included in Appendices 7.1.1 to 7.1.8.
3.4.4 Determining Levels and Manipulating Sponsor Type

Four sponsors were selected from Manchester United to get a total of eight sponsors. These are Apollo Tyres, Epson, Aeroflot and EA Sports for Manchester United. As already stated, the sponsors were classified into four different categories; Functional, innovative, high and low involvement. A previous study has used two Brazilian football clubs’ real sponsors in their research, where fans were asked about their opinion towards the rival club sponsor in a form of a questionnaire. The usage of real sponsors hugely benefited the research as using a real brand aided the fans to express their true perceptions towards those sponsors (Amorim & Almeida, 2015). The usage of real sponsors for this study was considered appropriate for various reasons. Firstly, as prior mentioned, fans with high attachment to a team are more likely to identify the club’s sponsors (Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Madrigal, 2000; Parker and Fink, 2010; Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2000). Therefore, being familiar with the brands will likely stimulate a brand effect that will materialise from fans established perceptions and status of the sponsors. These brand effects are exclusive to those fans that possess an awareness of the sponsors and/or prior knowledge of these. Secondly, the real sponsors were used to leverage predetermined opinions from individuals towards the sponsors. Manchester United fans may have pre-established perceptions of the brands that will affect their attitudes and behaviours and thus, their purchase intentions.

3.4.5 Determining Levels and Manipulating Football Club.

A football club was the second manipulation of this experiment. A very big and well-known club was selected to be a manipulation of this study, Manchester United. This study, as mentioned before, focuses on peoples’ attitudes and behaviours toward certain types of sponsors of a well-known football club. Further, in order for this experiment to work, it was decided that Manchester United would be manipulated by being present only in some of the advertisements. Specifically, in only four of the eight advertisements, Manchester United’s logo was displayed next to the sponsor brand with a text that read ‘name of the commercial brand proud sponsor of Manchester United’. This will help to understand and measure whether a commercial brand is affected in any way when it is associated with a very recognised international football club. One manipulation check was introduced to assure that all participants undertaking the questionnaires were, in fact, aware of which advertisements they were exposed to. This manipulation check is discussed in detail further in this chapter. The advertisements developed for this experiment were created taking several factors into
consideration. First, when developing the eight different advertisements, it was decided that these were going to be randomised. This means that each participant would only be exposed to one of the eight possible advertisements for the experiment. Second, all advertisements had to show either Manchester United and a sponsor or just the sponsor on its own as an effort to determine the levels and measure the outcome.

3.5 Complete Questionnaire Development

3.5.1 Independent Variable Measures

3.5.1.1 Recall Check

The recall check was introduced as the only manipulation check. This was introduced as an effort to ensure participants were aware and perceived the essential items of the advertisement. As mentioned before, each participant was only exposed to one of eight advertisements, either the commercial brand on its own or the commercial brand in association with Manchester United. Thus, the recall check asked the participants whether they saw a sports team in the advertisement and if they did, which team. Five options were created, these were; a sports team was not displayed on the advertisement, Manchester United, Real Madrid, Liverpool and Manchester City. If the participants were only exposed to one of the four commercial brand advertisements they had to select ‘a sports team was not displayed on the advertisement’, if they were exposed to one of the four commercial brands in association with Manchester United advertisements they had to select ‘Manchester United’. Any other option selected would instantly thank them and screen them out of the experiment.

3.5.2 Dependent Variable Measures

3.5.2.1 Attitude toward the Ad.

The observed attitudes toward the advertisement were measured using an original scale developed by Morrison and Shaffer (2003). The original scale was initially created and implemented to measure the overall participant’s assessment and effectiveness of the displayed advertisement (Morrison & Shaffer, 2003). Further, the original scale consisted of a seven-point semantic differential scales. However, to suit this study the scale had to be modified and cut down to seven 6-point semantic differential scales because the other three item points were not relevant. The scale requested the participants to answer the question ‘How would you rate the advertisement shown before?’ on the six-item semantic differential scale. Therefore, the
proposed six semantic differentials scale was incorporated as the first dependent variable measure part of the experiment as shown in Table 3.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Coding</th>
<th>Semantic Differential Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward the Ad</td>
<td>ATAD_1</td>
<td>Pleasant/ unpleasant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ATAD_2</td>
<td>Appealing/ unappealing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ATAD_3</td>
<td>Likeable/ dislikeable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ATAD_4</td>
<td>Interesting/ boring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ATAD_5</td>
<td>Effective/ ineffective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ATAD_6</td>
<td>Authentic/ not authentic.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.2: Semantic Differential Items for Attitude toward the Ad.

3.5.2.2 Attitude Toward the Brand in the Advertisement

The perceived effect of advertising stimuli from sponsor type on participants’ attitude toward the brand in the ad was measured using an original scale developed by Mullen (1995) and most recently used by Lepkowska-White, Brashear, and Weinberger (2003). The original scale was created and used to measure the participants’ attitudes and feelings toward a certain product presented in an advertisement (Lepkowska-White, et al, 2003; Mullen, 1995). Given that the advertisements in this study displayed the Manchester United logo and the commercial brand logo accordingly, it was important to modify and adapt the scale to portray the desired perceptions toward the sponsoring brand rather than the product and thus, attain the required results for this study. The adjustments made to the scale consisted in changing the wording of the statements to ensure participants were capable of communicating accurate attitudes and perceptions toward the sponsoring brand in question. The four-item, seven-point Likert scale become the first outcome variable for the experiment (see Table 3.3 below).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Coding</th>
<th>Likert Items (Disagree/Agree)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward brand in Advertisement</td>
<td>ATB_1</td>
<td>The sponsoring brand showed in this ad is attractive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ATB_2</td>
<td>The sponsoring brand showed in this ad is a good brand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ATB_3</td>
<td>I like the sponsoring brand showed in this ad.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ATB_4</td>
<td>The sponsoring brand showed in this ad is a satisfactory brand.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.3: Likert Items for Attitude toward Brand in Advertisement.
3.5.2.3 Attitude toward the Sponsor

The third outcome variable for the experiments was measured by the attitude toward the sponsorship scale. This scale has been created by using phrases and ideas from items in scales developed by Speed and Thompson (2000), it was first developed and used by Olson and Thjomøe (2011). The attitude toward the sponsor scale measures how the participants’ attitude and perception about an organisation are affected by learning it is sponsoring a certain event, cause or sports entity (Brunner II, 2013). Due to the similar exploration of both studies regarding attitudes toward sponsors, the original scale did not have to be altered to suit this study. Therefore, the proposed three item semantic differential scale was incorporated as part of the questionnaire for the experiment. However, the scale question and items slightly changed depending on which advertisement participants were exposed to. If they were exposed to Manchester United and commercial brand combination, they were only showed the scale items in Table 3.4. Moreover, if they were exposed to only the commercial brand, they were only showed the scale items in Table 3.5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Coding</th>
<th>Semantic Differential Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward</td>
<td>ATS_1</td>
<td>Like the sponsor Less than before/ Like the sponsor more than before.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the Sponsor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ATS_2</td>
<td>Less favourable to the sponsor/ More favourable to the sponsor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ATS_3</td>
<td>Less likely to buy from sponsor/ More likely to buy from the sponsor.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.4: Semantic Differential Items for Attitude toward the Sponsor.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Coding</th>
<th>Semantic Differential Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward</td>
<td>ATS_1</td>
<td>Like the brand less than before/ Like the brand more than before.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the Sponsor</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ATS_2</td>
<td>Less favourable to the brand/ More favourable to the brand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ATS_3</td>
<td>Less likely to buy from brand/ More likely to buy from the brand.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.5: Semantic Differential Items for Attitude toward the Sponsor 2.

3.5.2.4 Purchase Intentions

The perceived Purchase Intentions generated by the brand advertised for the experiment will be measured using a proposed scale developed by Biscaia, et al., (2013). The original scale was constructed by using four different items from two main studies, two items were retrieved
from Gwinner and Bennett (2008) and the other two items from Hong (2011). The scale measured the likelihood of participants purchasing a particular brand right after being exposed to an advertisement (Biscaia, et al., 2013). Further, Biscaia, et al. (2013) developed this scale for their study about sports sponsorship, they intended to measure how likely sports fans were to purchase their preferred team’s sponsors products. As the previous outcome variable, the proposed scale did not require significant alterations given that both studies pursued similar outcomes. However, the scale statements had to be slightly changed depending on which advertisement participants were exposed to. If they were exposed to the Manchester United and commercial brand combination, they were only showed the scale items in Table 3.6. Moreover, if they were exposed to only the commercial brand, they were only showed the scale items in Table 3.7. Finally, the same adapted four items, the seven-point Likert scale was used in the experiment of this study as the fourth outcome variable, the tables below present the scales.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Coding</th>
<th>Likert Items (Disagree/Agree)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purchase Intentions</td>
<td>PL_1</td>
<td>I would buy from this brand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PL_2</td>
<td>The sponsorship to this particular football club makes me more likely to buy this product from this brand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PL_3</td>
<td>Next time I need to buy this type of product, I would consider buying from this brand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PL_4</td>
<td>I would be more likely to buy this sponsors product over its competitors.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.6: Likert Items for Purchase Intentions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Coding</th>
<th>Likert Items (Disagree/Agree)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Purchase Intentions</td>
<td>PL_1</td>
<td>I would buy from this brand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PL_2</td>
<td>Given that this brand is now available in my city, it makes me more likely to buy this product from this brand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PL_3</td>
<td>Next time I need to buy this type of product, I would consider buying from this brand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PL_4</td>
<td>I would be more likely to buy this commercial brand’s product over its competitors.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.7: Likert Items for Purchase Intentions 2.
3.5.3 Covariate Variable Measures

3.5.3.1 Attachment to the Club

For the experiment, measuring participants’ attachment levels for Manchester United was an important step to ensure a complete study as the level of attachment can affect team’s sponsor awareness (Parker & Fink, 2010). Attachment to a brand with a focus on passion has been measured through different scales in research before (Brunner II, 2013). The original scale developed by Thomson, MacInnis and Park (2005) and most recently used by Malär et al (2011) considered brand attachment based on a passion for commercial brands rather than sports brands, therefore, it was necessary for this manipulation check to be adapted to test the participants’ attachment levels to a sporting entity. The five-item, seven-point Likert scale used in the experiment made participants express their true feelings towards the football club which helped to determine their level of attachment, as shown in Table 3.8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Coding</th>
<th>Likert Items (Disagree/Agree)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Team Attachment</td>
<td>TA_1</td>
<td>Feelings toward Manchester United can be characterised by Passion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TA_2</td>
<td>Feelings toward Manchester United can be characterised by Delight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TA_3</td>
<td>Feelings toward Manchester United can be characterised by Captivation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TA_4</td>
<td>Feelings toward Manchester United can be characterised by Affection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TA_5</td>
<td>Feelings toward Manchester United can be characterised by Devotion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.8: Likert Items for Attachment to the Club.

3.5.3.2 Brand Familiarity

Brand familiarity was measured using a three-item semantic differential scale created by Zhou, Yang, and Hui (2010). The items were taken from previous scales by Steenkamp et al. (2003) and Oliver and Bearden (1985). The suggested scale focuses on measuring the degree to which an individual is aware and possesses knowledge of a brand (Brunner II, 2013; Zhou, Yang, & Hui, 2010). The scale was not modified as it suited the study perfectly. The second covariate variable semantic differentials scale is shown in Table 3.9.
3.5.3.3 *Sports Knowledge*

Participants’ knowledge about football was measured using the same three-item semantic differential scale as used for brand familiarity. As prior mentioned, this scale was created by Zhou, Yang, and Hui (2010). The original scale measured the participants’ familiarity toward a certain commercial brand, this was not suitable for this covariate variable, therefore, the scale items had to be modified. This scale’s aim is to measure participants’ knowledge and familiarity toward football (soccer) as a sport. Therefore, some items had to be completely changed to suit this scale. For instance, the third item was completely customised from the original scale. The adapted semantic differentials scale is presented in Table 3.10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Coding</th>
<th>Semantic Differential Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brand Familiarity</td>
<td>BF_1</td>
<td>This brand is very unfamiliar to me/ This brand is very familiar to me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BF_2</td>
<td>I am not at all knowledgeable about this brand/ I am very knowledgeable about this brand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BF_3</td>
<td>I have never seen advertisements about this brand in any type of media/ I have seen many advertisements about this brand in the media.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.9: Semantic Differential Items for Brand Familiarity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Coding</th>
<th>Semantic Differential Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sports Knowledge</td>
<td>SK_1</td>
<td>Football (soccer) is very unfamiliar to me/ Football (soccer) is very familiar to me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SK_2</td>
<td>I am not at all knowledgeable about football (soccer) teams/ I am very knowledgeable about football (soccer) teams.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SK_3</td>
<td>Football (soccer) is a sport I follow constantly/ Football (soccer) is a sport I don’t follow constantly.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.10: Semantic Differential Items for Sports Knowledge.

3.5.4 Demographics

3.5.4.1 *Age*

Age was chosen as a covariate variable and a screening measure. Participants were required to be over the age of 18 to be eligible to participate in this study. It was fundamental for participants to be 18 years and older for ethical purposes as well as to confirm a more
mature point of view and possibly higher sponsors’ brand knowledge and awareness. Further, any participant that was under the age of 18 years of age was thanked and screened out of the experiment.

3.5.4.2 Gender

Gender was the sixth covariate variable for this experiment. This was undertaken as an effort to find out whether gender has any effect on participants’ attitudes and behaviours toward different types of commercial sponsoring brands. However, it is believed that gender does not affect brand perceptions, specifically toward football sponsors (Amorim & Almeida, 2015).

3.5.4.3 Household Income

Household income was included as a demographic to investigate whether different ranges of income has any effect on sponsor awareness and thus, purchase intentions. According to Dubois and Duquesne (1993) income provides consumers with purchasing power, which could affect brand awareness, knowledge and ultimately purchase intentions. Therefore, household income was chosen as a covariate variable. Six categories were included for this covariate variable, these are; less than £20,000, £20,000-£29,999, £30,000-£39,999, £40,000-49,999, greater than £50,000 and prefer not to say. These categories were chosen after a thorough research about household incomes in the U.K.

3.5.4.4 Education

Education was also included as a covariate measure to account for any possible variations, such as interpretation or perception. The education question asked the participants to select their highest degree or level of school that they have completed. Eight options were introduced, these are; less than high school, high school graduate, some college, 3-year university degree, 4-year university degree, master’s degree, doctorate and prefer not to say.

3.5.4.5 Employment

Employment was the last covariate measure introduced in this experiment. Once again, employment was chosen to test if this measurement has any effect on participants’ attitudes, behaviours, perceptions and ultimately purchase intentions toward the sponsoring brand. Seven categories were introduced, these are; employed full-time, employed part-time, unemployed looking for work, unemployed not looking for work, retired, student, and prefer not to say.
3.6 Experimental Procedure

3.6.1 Recruitment of Respondents

Respondents were recruited exclusively via online platforms including Facebook pages and groups, and survey exchange websites (Survey Circle and Pollpool) and other social media pages. The literature showed that having a strong attachment to a team, hence, being a fan could affect positively the behaviour toward the sponsors (Parker & Fink, 2010). Therefore, the sample criteria were chosen to ensure participant data is of high quality. Firstly, the age requirements for participants had to be 18 years and over. The reason for this is to ensure that the participants are mature enough to participate in this project. Geographical requirements were also a criterion as some of the sponsors tested are regional to the U.K., therefore the focus of the study was on the U.K.

The final questionnaire was uploaded to Qualtrics and on the same day, the recruitment process started. An incentive was offered to participants in the form of a draw for three unique £50 ($95NZ) Amazon vouchers. One pre-screening questions that required participants to confirm they meet the criteria needed for this study was implemented at the beginning of the study as an effort to ensure high quality of responses. Furthermore, participants who did not meet the criteria were not allowed to take the questionnaire. The draws were completed at the completion of all responses, at each different stage. The data collection period took place over 20 days for the main study, it started on the 20th of January and ended on the 8th of February. During this period of time, a total of 310 unique responses were recorded. However, 66 responses had to be removed as they were either incomplete or the response time was under 1 minute. By the end of the data evaluation process, 240 unique valid responses were approved and used for the analysis process.

3.6.2 Ethical Considerations

The current project was conducted in accordance with the guidelines given by the Human Ethics Committee of the University of Canterbury. Prior to the data collection the proposed research was reviewed and approved by the Committee (refer to appendix 7.2). To conform with the ethical practices upheld by the Committee, an information sheet for the final experiment (see Appendices 7.2.1) was included before respondents commenced the questionnaire. The information sheet outlined the broad objective of the project but did not fully inform the participants of the main purpose of the study to ensure the responses were not
influenced by this knowledge. Additionally, the participants were informed of the terms and conditions of participating, the rights of withdrawal before submission, the confidentiality and anonymity of their responses and finally, the storage process of the collected data. After participants were presented with the information sheet they were required to give their full consent before they could commence the experiment. This was done by asking participants to confirm that they have read the information provided and have understood the implications of participating. Then, participants were required to select ‘I have read the terms and conditions and I agree to participate in this project’, or ‘no, I do not wish to participate’. Respondents that chose the latter were thanked for their interest and directed to the end of the experiment without being able to proceed with the questionnaire.

Moreover, for the main study, participants were solicited to provide their email addresses to be eligible to enter the prize draws. This information gathered was solely used for the purpose of randomly selecting the prize winners and is to remain confidential.

3.7 Online Experiment

This research was carried out as an online experiment, which utilised the survey platform Qualtrics. An online experiment was considered the most appropriate way of carrying out this research as participants needed to be exposed to different stimuli. Further, the number of participants to conduct the experiment also influenced the decision to conduct an online experiment as using face-to-face questionnaire distribution would have been time-consuming, and it would have been almost impossible to target the correct audience as the chosen football club was from the U.K.

Participants were randomly exposed to experimental treatments, as an effort to control the effects of possible confounding variables and, consequently, increase this study’s overall validity. The questions were restricted to one to three questions per page to avoid overwhelming the participants with an excess of questions at a time as well as to eliminate the need for scrolling. Lastly, the questionnaire can be divided up into five sections based on the type of content and questions included.
3.7.1 Section One- Information and Consent

The first section included the information sheet prior discussed in the ethics section 3.6.2. Participants were presented with the information sheet by which they were asked to carefully read the terms and conditions before giving their consent to participate in the questionnaire. Respondents who selected yes were then asked to confirm that they were older than 18 years old, this question was introduced as a screening question. Respondents that did not meet the required criteria to either of these questions were thanked for their time and they were immediately directed to the end of the survey (Appendix 7.3.1)

3.7.2 Section Two- Stimuli Exposure

In the second section, participants were informed that they were going to be exposed to an advertisement which included either a football team logo and a sponsor brand or just the commercial brand on its own. After, participants were given 15 seconds to examine and consider the advertisement before continuing to the next section. For the experiment, participants were randomly allocated to one of the eight manipulation groups in which they were only exposed to one of eight possible advertisements. As mentioned before, the experiment contained one functional, one innovative, one high and one low involvement commercial brand as well as the same brands in association with Manchester United (Appendix 7.3.2).

3.7.3 Section Three- Independent and Dependent Measures

The third section began with one manipulation check. After that, seven questions about the dependent measures were introduced. Participants were asked to answer these questions thinking about the advertisements exhibited before. For the experiment, the dependent measures were attitude toward the ad, attitude toward product in the ad, attitude toward the sponsor and purchase intentions (Appendix 7.3.3).

3.7.4 Section Four- Covariates Measures and Demographics.

Section four is comprised of eight questions for the experiment. The covariate variables measured in this section were team attachment, brand familiarity, sports knowledge, gender, household income, education, and employment (Appendix 7.3.4).
3.7.5 Section Five- Finish

The final section started by acknowledging and thanking the respondents for their participation. Moreover, this section asked the participants to leave their email if they would like to go into the draw for one of the five available incentive vouchers. The questionnaire then ended (Appendix 7.3.5).

3.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter aimed to provide an overview of the quantitative research methodology implemented to test the hypotheses outlined and discussed in Chapter Two. This chapter firstly explained the research and experimental design adopted for this study. This was followed by a discussion of the stimuli development. Secondly, the development of the final questionnaire was explained including the presentation of variables and the justification of the different measurements used. Thirdly, the experimental procedure was then outlined, explaining recruitment and ethical considerations. Finally, the online experiment was outlined, and each section is explained. The next chapter provides an overview of the results and analyses of the data collected.
4. Results

4.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present an overview of the statistical analyses that were carried out to test the hypotheses presented in Chapter Two. First, an overview of the sample, including its size and composition is conducted. Second, the scales used are examined and the dimensionality and reliability are assessed. Third, the effects of the independent variables and covariate variables on the dependent variables are determined. Finally, hypotheses and relationships are tested using ANCOVA and linear regression.

4.2 Sample Size and Composition

4.2.1 Sample Size

As mentioned in Section 3.6.1, the data collection for the final experiment occurred over the duration of 20 days, which started on 20th of January 2018 and finished on the 8th of February 2018. During this time, a total of 310 respondents were recruited via various social media and survey exchange online platforms such as Facebook and Pollpool.

All of the participants gave their consent upon reading the Information Sheet presented to them prior to the beginning of the experiment. Most respondents verified themselves as adhering to the demographic qualifier, over the age of 18, and were consequently granted admission to the online questionnaire.

An essential procedure taken before commencing the statistical analyses was screening the data to ensure responses were of a high quality. Out of the 310 respondents, 66 responses were removed as the information provided was incomplete or did not meet the required criteria. For instance, thirty respondents withdrew from the study for unknown reasons, another twenty-two failed the attention checks and were screened out of the study, three participants were under the age of 18 thus, were not allowed to be part of the experiment. Eleven respondents had an unrealistic completion time of less than 2 minutes for the questionnaire. This criterion was implemented to ensure respondents were focused and reading the questions, and those with a low completion time appeared to use a systematic response tactic.

Correspondingly, the analysis sample consisted of 244 participants. In order to obtain the required equal sample size for each of the eight experimental conditions needed to satisfy
the statistical assumptions of ANCOVA, four cases were randomly deleted. The final sample consisted of 30 responses per manipulated condition, a total of 240 individual respondents.

4.2.2 Sample Composition

The distribution of the sociodemographic characteristics in the sample was analysed and the results are presented in Table 4.1. The age distribution shows the majority of the sample is aged between 18 to 24 (71.3%). Participants aged between 25 and 29 were the second highest in terms of representation with 14.2%. There was less representation in the sample for individuals aged 30 to 34 (6.7%) and for the older age groups 35 to 39 (3.8%), 40 to 44 (2.1%) and 50+ (1.7%). The smallest sample was from the age group 45 to 49 with 0.4%. Most of the participant sample was female with 70.4%, while males only accounted for 29.2%. Furthermore, the sample appeared to be well educated, since the majority of respondents had completed a 3-year tertiary degree (57.9%), whilst 13.4% of the total sample had completed postgraduate qualifications including masters and PhD degrees. As shown in Table 4.1, when asked about employment status, the majority of respondents (70.8%) indicated that they were students. Therefore, it was not a surprise that the majority of the sample had a household income of less than £20,000 (45.8%). Moreover, only 12.9% were working full-time, while 8.8% were working part-time. Further, only a small percentage of participants were unemployed (4.5%) and/or retired (1.3%). Finally, 19.6% preferred not to state their household income.
Table 4.1: Demographic Sample Composition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td>18 to 24</td>
<td>71.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25 to 29</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30 to 34</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>35 to 39</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40 to 44</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>45 to 49</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>50+</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>70.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Education</strong></td>
<td>High school graduate</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Some college</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-year university degree</td>
<td>57.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Master’s degree</td>
<td>12.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prefer not to say</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employment</strong></td>
<td>Employed full-time</td>
<td>12.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employed part-time</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>70.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prefer not to say</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Household income</strong></td>
<td>Less than £20,000</td>
<td>45.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>£20,000-£29,999</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>£30,000-£39,999</td>
<td>8.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>£40,000-£49,999</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Greater than £50,000</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prefer not to say</td>
<td>19.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3 Scale Structure and Reliability

The structure and reliability of the scales used in this study were tested using Principle Component Analysis and the Cronbach’s alpha procedure (Cronbach, 1991). The results of these analyses are reported in this section. Descriptive statistics are also presented at the end of this section, which includes the examination for non-normality and contamination from outliers using tests for skewness and kurtosis.
4.3.1 Scale Structure

Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation was used to test the dimensionality of the scales presented in the questionnaire. For these analyses, scale items with a communality score less than .50 were deleted. Furthermore, coefficients less than .30 were suppressed and items were deemed as cross-loading if the item was equally loading on two or more factors.

4.3.1.1 Dependent Variable Measures

4.3.1.1.1 Attitude toward the Ad

The Principal Component Analysis showed that the six items in the scale for Attitude toward the Ad, taken from Morrison and Shaffer (2003) had high communality scores above .60, apart from one item with a lower score of .54. The six items scale loaded onto only one factor and accounted for 70% of the total variance.

4.3.1.1.2 Attitude toward the Brand in the Advertisement

Analysis of the four items pertaining to the attitude toward the brand in the advertisement measure, taken from Lepkowska-White, Brashear, and Weinberger (2003) had high communality scores (> .68) and loaded onto only one factor. The four items scale accounted for 73% of the total variance.

4.3.1.1.3 Attitude toward the Sponsor

Principal Component Analysis showed that all three items in the attitude toward the sponsor scale first presented by Olson and Thjømøe (2011) had high communality scores (> .80) and loaded onto a single factor that explained 85% of the total variance.

4.3.1.1.4 Purchase Intentions

The scale proposed by Biscaia, et al., (2013) for the final dependent variable is composed of four items. The four items scale loaded onto a single factor, showed high communality scores (> .70) with the factor accounting for 75% of the total variance.
4.3.1.2 Covariate Variable Measures

4.3.1.2.1 Attachment to the Club

Principal Component Analysis showed that the five items in the attachment to the club scale developed by Thomson, MacInnis and Park (2005) had high communality scores (> .80) and loaded onto a single factor that explained 87% of the total variance.

4.3.1.2.2 Brand Familiarity

The three original items for brand familiarity created by Zhou, Yang, and Hui (2010), had high communality scores (> .80). The three items scale loaded onto one factor and accounted for 85% of the total variance.

4.3.1.2.3 Sports Knowledge

Analysis of the three items adapted from Zhou, Yang, and Hui (2010) scale had two high communality score items above .80, apart from one item with a lower score of .60. This item was kept because it was still higher than the .50 minimum. The three items scale loaded onto only one factor and accounted for 74% of the total variance.

4.3.2 Scale Reliability

After Principal Component Analysis was completed, all scales were tested for internal consistency (reliability) using Cronbach’s alpha procedure. Table 4.2 displays the Cronbach’s alpha values for each scale. The results of reliability analysis were positive as no items needed to be removed. All scales were found to have acceptable reliability levels (alpha > .80). Two of the study’s main dependent variables attitude toward the ad, attitude toward the sponsor and two of the covariate variables, attachment to the club and brand familiarity returned very high scale reliability scores (> .90).
### Table 4.2: Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficients for Total Scale Variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dependent Measures</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward the Ad</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward the Brand in the Advertisement</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward the Sponsor</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase Intentions</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Covariate Measures</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attachment to the Club</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Familiarity</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports Knowledge</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.3 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were calculated for each scale in the study and are presented in Table 4.3. The table presents the mean and standard deviation for individual scales, as well as the skewness and kurtosis scores as indicators of the mean distribution shape. The results show that all measures were approximately normally distributed. For instance, attitude toward the ad is not skewed as it is very close to zero. However, the negative kurtosis shows that the distribution is slightly flatter than normal. The other three dependent variable measures have negative skewness; therefore, they were slightly skewed to the left. Furthermore, the skewness for the four covariate measures is within the ranges of \( \pm 1 \), with scores between .03 and .18, which indicates that the distribution of the scores is slightly skewed to the right (Pallant, 2003).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dependent Measures</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward the Ad</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward the Brand in</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>-.28</td>
<td>.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the Advertisement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward the Sponsor</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>-.48</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase Intentions</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>-.34</td>
<td>-.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Covariate Measures</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attachment to the Club</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>-1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Familiarity</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>-1.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports Knowledge</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>-1.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics for Total Scale Variables.

4.4 Hypothesis Testing

In order to test the hypothesised relationships between Sports Team (present/ not present) and Sponsor Type (high involvement, low involvement, functional and innovative) and the dependent variables, several between-subject factorial analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) were conducted. The covariates chosen for inclusion in this analysis included attachment to the club, brand familiarity and sports knowledge.

4.4.1 Interaction Effect of Sponsor Type and Team Presence on Attitude toward the Sponsor.

As introduced in Chapter Two, Hypothesis One outlined that sponsor type in association with a football club would affect the consumers’ attitude toward the sponsor. To examine this hypothesis, the two independent variables were entered as fixed factors into a factorial ANCOVA, with attachment to the club, brand familiarity and sports knowledge entered as covariates. The descriptives and results of the analysis are presented in Table 4.4 and Table 4.5.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Sponsor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Football Team</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aeroflot</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apollo</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epson</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Football Team</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aeroflot</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apollo</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epson</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.4: Attitude toward the Sponsor for different experimental conditions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>$\eta_p^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attachment to the Club</td>
<td>27.21</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Familiarity</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports Knowledge</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Presence</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Sponsor</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence * Type of Sponsor</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.5: Effects of Conditions and Covariates on Attitude toward the Sponsor.

The results show that the interaction effect of sponsor type in association with a football club had no significant effect on attitude toward the sponsor ($F=.12$, $p > .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$). Only one covariate, attachment to the club produced a significant result ($F= 27.21$, $p < .05$, $\eta_p^2 = .11$), meaning the level of attachment does have an effect on the attitude toward the sponsor. The other two covariates brand familiarity and sports knowledge were not significant. Nevertheless, Hypothesis One was not supported.
4.4.2 Interaction Effect of Sponsor Type and Team Presence on Purchase Intentions.

Also introduced in Chapter Two, Hypothesis Two outlined that sponsor type in association with a football club would affect the consumers’ purchase intentions. To examine this hypothesis, the same two independent variables were entered as fixed factors into a factorial ANCOVA, with attachment to the club, brand familiarity and sports knowledge entered as covariates. The descriptives and results of the analysis are presented in Table 4.6 and Table 4.7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Sponsor</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Football Team</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aeroflot</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apollo</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>1.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epson</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Football Team</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aeroflot</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apollo</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>1.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epson</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.6: Purchase Intentions for different experimental conditions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>ηp²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attachment to the Club</td>
<td>50.28</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand Familiarity</td>
<td>11.33</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sports Knowledge</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Presence</td>
<td>7.07</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of Sponsor</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team Presence * Type of Sponsor</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.7: Effects of conditions and covariates on Purchase Intentions.
From the analysis, it is clear that there is an effect of the covariates attachment to the club (F= 50.28, p < .05, \( \eta_p^2 = .18 \)) and brand familiarity (F= 11.33, p < .05, \( \eta_p^2 = .05 \)) on the dependent variable, purchase intentions, while sports knowledge was not significant. The interaction between team presence and type of sponsor had no significant effect on purchase intentions (F= .55, p > .05, \( \eta_p^2 = .01 \)). However, a main effect of team presence on purchase intentions is present (F= 7.07, p < .05, \( \eta_p^2 = .03 \)), meaning the presence of a football club has an effect on the consumers’ purchase intentions. Therefore, Hypothesis Two is partially supported.

4.4.3 Interaction Effect of Attachment to the Club on Attitude toward the Sponsor.

As proposed in Chapter Two, Hypothesis Three suggests attachment to the club would affect an individual’s attitude toward the sponsor. To test this hypothesis, a regression analysis was required, the results shown in Table 4.8. Attachment to the club was chosen as the independent variable whereas attitude toward the sponsor as the dependent variable. The results of the regression analysis show that attachment to the club had a positive effect on attitude toward the sponsor (\( \beta = .33, p= .000 \)), although R\(^2\) variable indicated the relationship only explains a moderately small amount of the total variation (R\(^2\) = .11 or 11%). Therefore, Hypothesis Three is supported.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attachment to the Club on Attitude toward the Sponsor</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficient Beta (( \beta ))</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>R square (R(^2))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.8: Linear Regression.

4.5 Hypotheses Results

The primary emphasis of this chapter was to examine the proposed hypotheses outlined in Chapter Two. A summary of the hypotheses testing results is presented in Table 4.9. The results that have been presented in this chapter will be further discussed in Chapter Five.
The first hypothesis examined the effect of sponsor type in association with a football club on attitude toward the sponsor. The factorial ANCOVA analysis revealed no significant interaction effect of sponsor type and team presence on attitude toward the sponsor. Only one covariate, attachment to the club, had a significant effect. However, this was not enough to support the hypothesis, therefore, Hypothesis One was rejected.

Hypothesis Two examined the interaction effect of sponsor type in association with a football club to consumers’ purchase intentions. The ANCOVA analysis results showed no significant interaction effect on the dependent variable (purchase intentions). However, a main effect of team presence on purchase intentions was found. Further, two covariate variables, attachment to the club and brand familiarity also presented a significant effect. Nevertheless, due to the non-existence significant interaction effect, Hypothesis Two was not supported.

The third hypothesis examined the interaction effect of attachment to the club on attitude toward the sponsor. The linear regression analysis revealed that attachment to the club had a positive effect on attitude toward the sponsor. However, the results also indicated that the relationship only explains a small amount of the total variation (11%). Nonetheless, Hypothesis Three was supported.

4.6 Chapter Summary

The aim of this chapter was to test the hypotheses formulated in Chapter Two. All three hypotheses were tested by using ANCOVA and linear regression analyses. Further, an overview of the results was presented at the end of the Hypotheses Testing section. The next chapter provides a thorough discussion of these findings.
5. Discussion and Conclusions

5.1 Introduction

This chapter concludes the thesis by presenting a discussion of the major findings of the research found in Chapter Four. Practical and theoretical contributions, as well as the implications of the research, are explained. Finally, research limitations and suggestions for future research are presented.

5.2 Primary Research Findings

5.2.1 Summary of Research Purpose

Previous work has shown that sports sponsorship has been a method used by various businesses to establish a relationship with the consumers of the sponsee sports organisation, to increase brand awareness, to enhance sales, to generate protection from competitors and to facilitate positive brand image (Biscaia, et al., 2013). An important factor of sports sponsorship is deciding which sports club the business is willing to sponsor. This decision could have an overall impact on the success or failure of the sponsorship. Therefore, it is essential for businesses to understand all the possible advantages and disadvantages of sponsorship.

Previous research in the area of sports sponsorship has had a strong focus on the financial aspect of the sponsorship contract rather than the possible outcomes that could affect consumers’ attitudes and behaviours toward the type of sponsor (Bühler, 2006). This research aimed to discover whether people’s attitudes and behaviours toward certain types of commercial brands change when they become a sponsoring partner of a well-known international football club. The project aims to build on the relationship between fans, sponsors and football clubs. More specifically, whether sponsoring a football team has any effect on consumers’ attitude toward the sponsor and purchase intentions toward different types of brands, such as high involvement, low involvement, functional and technological brands.

In terms of academic contributions, this thesis further explores the relationship between consumers, sponsors and football clubs. Specifically, the effects of sponsoring a well-known football club for different types of businesses. The results derived from this research will determine whether different types of companies will have different effects on consumers’ attitudes and behaviours, such as purchase intentions, when sponsoring a well-known football
club. Furthermore, marketers will gain an insight into the different attitudes and behaviours of consumers that feel attached to a football club and those who do not.

5.3 Discussion of Main Findings

To test the dependence relationships that were hypothesised in Chapter Three, an online between-subjects experiment was conducted. Attachment to the club, brand familiarity and sports knowledge were included as covariates to control for any potential effects. The results are discussed in the remainder of this chapter.

5.3.1 Effects of Sponsor Type and Team Presence on Attitude toward the Sponsor.

Hypothesis One proposed that sponsor type in association with a football club would have an effect on attitude toward the sponsor. The ANCOVA results revealed no interaction effects between the two independent variables and attitude toward the sponsor. However, the covariate, attachment to the club, revealed a significant interaction with the dependent variable. Further, no main effects were illustrated in the analysis. These findings suggest that the type of sponsor in association with a football club does not affect consumers’ attitude toward that sponsor.

Moreover, the findings seem to somewhat differ from the results in the literature, which have suggested that in most occasions sports fans present a strong likelihood to prefer products from sponsors of their favourite club (Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Madrigal, 2000; Parker and Fink, 2010). However, it should be noted that the sample had a neutral feeling toward the chosen football club (Manchester United), most likely caused by the convenience sample. Further, the images and manipulations could have as well affected the level of attachment. In other words, most of the sample did not have a high attachment to the football club, thus, they cannot be considered fans as they lack one of the most important characteristics of a fan, which is high attachment to the club (Funk & James, 2001).

5.3.2 Effects of Sponsor Type and Team Presence on Purchase Intentions.

Hypothesis Two explored the effects of sponsor type in association with a football club on purchase intentions. The ANCOVA analysis results demonstrated no interaction effects between the two independent variables, sponsor type and presence of the club, on the dependent variable, purchase intentions. However, a main effect of presence on purchase intentions was
found, meaning the presence of a football club has an effect on the consumers’ purchase intentions. The covariates, attachment to the club and brand familiarity also were found to have a significant effect on the dependent variable.

The outcomes of the ANCOVA analysis seem to support what past research stated, which is that fans’ purchase intentions toward a sponsor’s product are affected by attachment to a sports club (Wang, et al., 2012). The covariate variable, attachment to the club, has shown that it had a significant effect on purchase intentions, meaning that in fact there is a relationship between these two variables. Moreover, the main effect shows that when a sponsor is associated with a football club, regardless of the type of business, consumers’ purchase intentions are positively affected. Meaning consumers’ intentions to purchase increase. This finding agrees with past research conducted by Javalgi, Traylor, Gross, and Lampman (1994), which states that sponsorship a football team works as an effective tool that can positively affect purchase intentions amongst other factors.

5.3.3 Effects of Attachment to the Club on Attitude toward the Sponsor.

Hypothesis Three explored the relationship between attachment to the club on attitude toward the sponsor. The results of the linear regression analysis show that attachment to the club had a positive effect on attitude toward the sponsor, meaning that when attachment to the club positively increases then, attitudes toward the sponsor will also positively increase. However, the $R^2$ variable indicated the relationship only explains a small amount of the total variation (11%).

These findings seem to agree with the prior literature. For instance, Wang, et al. (2012), stated that having a strong attachment to a team leads to developing a positive attitude toward the sponsor that eventually will encourage individuals to positively seek information about these products and develop the intention to purchase (Wang, Jain, Cheng, & George Kyaw-Myo Aung, 2012). Moreover, research conducted by Gwinner and Swanson (2003) and Koronios (2016) found that individuals with a high level of team attachment are more capable to distinguish or label the sponsors of their preferred team. Therefore, this finding appears to show that attachment to a sports club indeed can affect consumers’ attitude toward the sponsors.
5.3.4 Main Findings

The results of this research were unable to show any interaction effect across the first two hypotheses of sponsor type with an association with a football club on two dependent variables, attitude toward the sponsor and purchase intentions. However, it is essential to note that Hypothesis Two was partially supported as team presence had a main effect on purchase intentions. Further, it was also found that attachment to the club positively affects attitude toward the sponsor. The research conducted for this study was exploratory in nature as it tried to test variable combinations that had not been previously explored. Moreover, taking into consideration the many non-significant effects found in this research, it was challenging to ascertain relevance to aspects of the prior sports sponsorship literature as it had not been done before.

However, the results did show the effect the covariate variable, attachment to the club has on the dependent variables, attitudes toward the sponsor and on purchase intentions. These findings seem to confirm previous research findings, which explained that the level of attachment to a sports team will affect individuals’ attitudes and behaviours toward the club’s sponsors (Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Madrigal, 2000; Parker and Fink, 2010). It was also found that the covariate, brand familiarity, had an effect on only one dependent variable, purchase intentions. This shows that having knowledge about the brand or at least being familiar to the brand does affect an individual’s intentions to purchase from that brand (Wang, Jain, Cheng, & George Kyaw-Myo Aung, 2012). Further, the only main effect found in this research was the effect team presence had on purchase intentions. This demonstrated that having an association with a football club does affect consumers’ purchase intentions of the sponsor’s products. Overall, the research findings helped answer the proposed research objectives in Chapter One. First, it was found that attachment does affect consumers’ attitudes toward a sponsor and therefore, the first research objective was fulfilled. Second, the research also found that type of sponsor does not affect consumers’ attitudes and purchase intentions. Thus, this finding helped the second research objective to be achieved.

5.4 Research Implications and Contributions
5.4.1 Practical Implications

Firstly, this research sought to provide further insight for football clubs and businesses wanting to sponsor a sports team on the interaction of sponsor type in relation to a football club
on consumers’ attitudes and behaviours toward the sponsor. Further, this research purpose is to help sponsors and clubs to fully understand the fanatical and non-fanatical attitudes and behaviours towards them as well as how attachment can play an essential role in the perception of different types of sponsors of a football club. Although, this research was unable to determine the interaction effects for all hypotheses, one main effect and three small covariate effects on the dependent variable were discovered, providing useful insights into what factors affect consumers’ attitude, behaviours and perceptions. Football clubs and businesses should understand that the type of sponsor does not significantly affect consumers’ attitudes and behaviours when sponsoring a sports team notably impacts purchase intentions. Therefore, regardless of the type of brand, sponsoring a football club will impact individuals’ perceptions and attitudes toward that brand.

Secondly, businesses and football clubs should also understand that individuals’ attachment to a sports club positively affects attitude toward the sponsor, meaning the stronger the attachment to a team the more likely individuals are to have a positive attitude toward the sponsor, which ultimately, can impact purchase intentions. Finally, brand familiarity is another factor to consider for marketers in commercial and sports organisations, as consumers purchase intentions are directly affected by knowledge and familiarity with that brand. Therefore, when sponsoring a football club, commercial brands should take into consideration factors such as location and brand recognition, as consumers’ awareness and familiarity will affect purchase intentions.

5.4.2 Theoretical Implications

Theoretically, this thesis made a contribution by being the first to examine the effects of sponsor type in association with a football club on consumers’ attitudes and behaviours toward the sponsor. While previous research has postulated about the relationships between sports clubs, sponsors and fans and the effects sponsoring a football club has on fans (Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Madrigal, 2000; Parker and Fink, 2010) the exploration of how different type of sponsors, more specifically, high and low involvement, functional and technological sponsors of a well-known football team could impact consumers’ perceptions had not been directly investigated. This research has been able to show that different type of brands has little payback or effect from average consumers. This essentially means that to the average person a brand sponsoring a sports team has little effect on their attitudes and behaviours. However, this
The most important theoretical contribution to the marketing sponsorship field is that in the context of this study, the four different types of sponsors (high involvement, low involvement, functional and technological) did not have a significant effect on consumers’ attitudes and purchase intentions toward these. This means that consumers do not consider the type of sponsor to be a significant factor to alter their views and behaviours toward the sponsors of a football club. To the researchers’ knowledge, the impact of these types of sponsors on consumers’ decisions and perceptions have not been studied before.

Furthermore, this research provides some weight to Dalakas and Levin (2005), Parker and Fink (2010) and Wang, et al. (2012), who found that a strong attachment to a team leads to the development of positive attitudes toward the sponsor. This claim is supported by this research as it is evident through the findings that show significant positive effects of attachment to the club has on attitude toward the sponsor. The results illustrated how consumers’ attachment to the club is an essential factor to consider when sponsoring a sports team in order to target the desired audience in a more effective manner.

Previous research findings have predominantly found effects and relationships between attachment to a club and attitude toward the sponsor from sports fans perspective (Mikhailitchenko, Tootelian, & Mikhailitchenko, 2012; Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2000). However, this research took a more general population perspective, which shows the effects of individuals with low attachment or neutral feelings toward the chosen football club (Manchester United) on the teams’ sponsors. This is a significant theoretical contribution because it demonstrates the attitudes and behaviours of non-fanatical consumers, which provides an additional perspective to already existing literature.

5.5 Research Limitations

Several limitations need to be considered when interpreting the findings of this research. This research was tested on the general population’s attitudes and behaviours from the U.K. toward Manchester United’s sponsors. Past studies focus on the attitudes and behaviours of real fans (Amorim & Almeida, 2015; Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Madrigal, 2000;
Therefore, choosing a general population as the sample for this study instead of real fans could have interfered with the results as most of them felt neutral about the football club. Another significant limitation was the attachment to a club measurement. The results showed that the sample size’s attachment to Manchester United was below average. However, this result is subjective and a strong limitation as there is nothing it can be compared to. Therefore, this could have affected the final results of this study.

The sample size and characteristics of the population also had limitations. The final number included in the analyses was 240 respondents, which turned out to be 30 in each of the eight manipulations. While the size was appropriate, the gender and age profile of the sample does raise some limitations. When recruiting participants from a general population it is expected that a variable such as gender would have a balance between males and females. However, the sample for this study was heavily skewed toward females. In fact, as mentioned before, most of the participant were female with 70.4%, while males only accounted for 29.2%, the other 0.4% preferred not to share their gender. Moreover, because of the recruitment method, which was conducted through social media (Facebook) and survey exchange websites (Survey Circle and Pollpool), the returned sample size was majorly skewed to the 18 to 24 years bracket. In reality, this could have affected the results as most of the sample size were young and might not have knowledge about some of the sponsors and the products they offer. The older age brackets were not as efficiently reached as the younger brackets due to the recruitment method. A more representative demographic sample, in which the gender and age profile would be more balanced and more equally distributed could return significant results.

The selection of different types of actual Manchester United sponsors used in this study may have limited the applicability of these findings. The use of these different type of sponsors, which were not that well-known was considered suitable for this research, as individuals would be less likely to have pre-established connotations of each brand. However, the lack of brand familiarity showed could have caused limitations on individuals’ attitudes toward the sponsor and purchase intentions and this may have affected the results of this research. Finally, it needs to be considered that there may be different external factors such as prior bad experiences or a none existent purchase history of that type of product affecting respondents’ perceptions of attachment to the club, attitude toward the sponsor and purchase intentions.
5.6 Future Research

From the research findings and discussion presented in the previous chapter, a number of directions have been identified for future research. The discussion of the findings alongside the limitations presented in this study indicates further research is required to fully understand consumers’ attitudes and behaviours toward a sports club’s sponsors, as a way to move forward with sports sponsorship research. Firstly, this research introduced a geographical criterion as a way of getting the best possible results as some of the Manchester United sponsors included are regional to the United Kingdom. Notably, future research could look into other global locations to test if these findings were affected by country. Further, choosing another football club is another suggestion for future research. A different football club could have a significant effect on people’s perceptions of the sponsors.

As mentioned before, this research target audience was U.K. general population. Past studies have found out that individuals’ attitudes and behaviours toward the sponsors of a football club are more significant when the individuals are fans of such sports club (Amorim & Almeida, 2015; Parker and Fink, 2010). Therefore, it is suggested future research to be undertaken by using the same approach as this research but looking into real fans of the chosen club. This approach might return more significant results. Moreover, this study could be the foundation for future research into other sports. Football was the main focus of this study; however, the context of this study could be translated into other sports with ease. This would be academically beneficial, and it would further extend the sports sponsorship literature of different sports.

Future research could take a qualitative approach to this study to better understand the consumers’ perceptions of sponsors. A qualitative approach could be beneficial as it allows the researchers to get more in-depth information from participants. This approach could explore in more detail how attachment can be an essential factor that affects consumers’ attitudes and behaviours toward the sponsors. Finally, this research chose four different types of sponsors and categorised them into four different groups; high involvement, low involvement, functional and technological. Future research should also consider other types of sponsors and what impact the new categorisations could have on attitudes and perceptions.
5.7 Chapter summary

The main aim of this research was to investigate whether people’s attitudes and behaviours toward certain types of commercial brands change when they become a sponsoring partner of a well-known international football club. The findings indicated that the type of sponsor does not affect attitude toward the sponsor and purchase intentions. It is also showed that attachment to a club has a significant effect on attitude toward the sponsor. Moreover, being associated with a football club affects the consumers’ purchase intentions. These findings are hoped to help marketers working for football clubs as well as marketers working for companies that are looking to sponsor a sports team. This research also made a theoretical contribution to the already existing sports sponsorship literature.
6. References


Harris, L. C., & Goode, M. (2004). The four levels of loyalty and the pivotal role of trust: A study of online service dynamics. Journal of Retailing, 80, 139-158.


7. Appendices

7.1 Final Stimuli

7.1.1 High Involvement Brand/ Team Presence

Aeroflot bringing the world close together by flying to more U.K. destinations than ever before.

Aeroflot- Proud Airline Sponsor of Manchester United Football Club

7.1.2 Low Involvement Brand/ Team Presence

EA Sports - Official Football Video Gaming Sponsor of Manchester United Football Club
7.1.3 Functional Brand/ Team Presence

Apollo Tyres now available in more U.K. cities than ever before.

Apollo Tyres proud sponsor of Manchester United Football Club.

7.1.4 Technological Brand/ Team Presence

EPSON – Proud Office Equipment Sponsor of Manchester United Football Club

Passion for Innovation

EPSON EXCEED YOUR VISION
7.1.5 High Involvement Brand

Aeroflot bringing the world close together by flying to more U.K. destinations than ever before.

7.1.6 Low Involvement Brand

EA Sports FIFA 18—most popular football game in the United Kingdom!
7.1.7 Functional Brand

Apollo Tyres now available in more U.K. cities than ever before.

7.1.8 Technological Brand

EPSON – United Kingdom’s Number 1 Office Equipment Suppliers!

Passion for Innovation
HUMAN ETHICS COMMITTEE
Secretary, Rebecca Robinson
Telephone: +64 3 303-4568, Ext. 64588
Email: human.ethics@canterbury.ac.nz

Ref: HEC 2017/93/LR

20 November 2017

Rodrigo Sebastian Balcazar Cruz
Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurship
UNIVERSITY OF CANTERBURY

Dear Rodrigo Sebastian Balcazar

Thank you for submitting your low risk application to the Human Ethics Committee for the research proposal titled “How Fans Evaluate Multiple Sponsors in the Context of a Football Team”.

I am pleased to advise that this application has been reviewed and approved.

Please note that this approval is subject to the incorporation of the amendments you have provided in your emails of 16 October 2017, 23 October 2017, 2 November 2017 and 13 November 2017.

With best wishes for your project.

Yours sincerely,

[Signature]

Associate Professor Jane Maidment
Chair, Human Ethics Committee
7.2.1 Information Sheet

How fans evaluate multiple sponsors in the context of a football team.
Information Sheet.

Research project: How individuals evaluate football (soccer) sponsors

Please read this information before beginning the questionnaire

My name is Rodrigo Sebastian Balcazar Cruz, I am a Masters of Commerce in marketing candidate, currently undertaking the final Mcom project. I would like to warmly invite you to participate in this research project.

The purpose of this project is to investigate how do people evaluate multiple sponsors in the context of a football club. The project aims to understand the relationship between fans, sponsors and football clubs. More specifically, fans’ perceptions of sponsor advertisements in relation to football.

If you choose to take part in this study, your involvement will be to participate in an experiment that contains a survey, which is likely to take you approximately 8 minutes to complete. You will be shown an image for 20 seconds and then will have to answer questions based on your perception and attitudes toward the advertisements. Your answers will be recorded and provide data in a numerical form which will be analysed by the researcher.

The project is being carried out as a requirement for Masters of Commerce in Marketing by Rodrigo Sebastian Balcazar Cruz under the supervision of Professor Paul Ballantine who can be contacted at paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz. He will be happy to discuss any concerns you may have about participation in the project.

All data will remain confidential and your identity will not be disclosed. Results will be analysed, interpreted and examined by the researcher, and published as part of his Master of Commerce thesis. A thesis is a public document and it will be available through the University of Canterbury.

Participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw at any point up until your questionnaire has been submitted. Once you have submitted your answers you will be unable to retrieve your data as it will be anonymous.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, and participants should address any complaints to The Chair, Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz). Ref: HEC 2017/93/LR

By completing this questionnaire, it is understood that you have given your consent for your participation in this project. Furthermore, you accept the data collected will be analysed and the results published, but with the understanding of complete anonymity.
7.2.2 Recruitment

Did you know you could win a £50 Amazon voucher for only 7 minutes of your time? If you are interested then keep reading!

I am currently undertaking a Masters in Marketing and I am looking for participants out there who are willing to be part of this study. This study is about football sponsors!

It will take about 8 minutes to complete the survey and at the end, you will have the chance to enter a draw to win 1 of 3 Amazon vouchers worth £50 each (or the equivalent in your national currency). Be part of the experiment, answer some questions and go into the draw to win some free stuff! Further information is provided prior the start of the survey.

To participate just click on the link below!

Online Survey Software | Qualtrics Survey Solutions
Qualtrics sophisticated online survey software solutions make creating online surveys easy. Learn more about Research Suite and get a free account today.

CANTERBURY.QUALTRICS.COM
7.3 Questionnaire for Experiment

7.3.1 Section One: Information and Consent.

Department: Management, Marketing and Entrepreneurship
Telephone: +64 212750311
Email: rodrigo.balcazacruz@pg.canterbury.ac.nz

Research project: How individuals evaluate football (soccer) sponsors

Please read this information before beginning the questionnaire

My name is Rodrigo Sebastian Balcazar Cruz, I am a Masters of Commerce in marketing candidate, currently undertaking the final Mcom project. I would like to warmly invite you to participate in this research project.

The purpose of this project is to investigate how do people evaluate multiple sponsors in the context of a football club. The project aims to understand the relationship between fans, sponsors and football clubs. More specifically, fans’ perceptions of sponsor advertisements in relation to football.

If you choose to take part in this study, your involvement will be to participate in an experiment that contains a survey, which is likely to take you approximately 8 minutes to complete. You will be shown an image for 20 seconds and then have to answer questions based on your perception and attitudes toward the advertisements. Your answers will be recorded and provide data in a numerical form which will be analysed by the researcher.

The project is being carried out as a requirement for Masters of Commerce in Marketing by Rodrigo Sebastian Balcazar Cruz under the supervision of Professor Paul Ballantine who can be contacted at paul.ballantine@canterbury.ac.nz. He will be happy to discuss any concerns you may have about participation in the project.

All data will remain confidential and your identity will not be disclosed. Results will be analysed, interpreted and examined by the researcher, and published as part of his Master of Commerce thesis. A thesis is a public document and it will be available through the University of Canterbury.

Participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw at any point up until your questionnaire has been submitted. Once you have submitted your answers you will be unable to retrieve your data as it will be anonymous.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the University of Canterbury Human Ethics Committee, and participants should address any complaints to The Chair, Human Ethics Committee, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch (human-ethics@canterbury.ac.nz). Ref: HEC 2017/93/LR

By completing this questionnaire, it is understood that you have given your consent for your participation in this project. Furthermore, you accept the data collected will be analysed and the results published, but with the understanding of complete anonymity.

This survey contains a PollCode (www.poll-pool.com) on the last page

- I have read the terms and conditions and I agree to participate in this project
- I do not wish to participate in this project
Before we begin, we would like to make sure you qualify for our study.

Please select which age bracket you belong to:

- 17 years or less
- 18 years – 24 years
- 25 years – 29 years
- 30 years – 34 years
- 35 years – 39 years
- 40 years – 44 years
- 45 years – 49 years
- 50+

7.3.2 Section Two: Stimuli Exposure

Please examine carefully the following advertisement. After 15 seconds you will be able to proceed to the next page.
7.3.3 Section Three: Independent Measures and Dependent Measures.

In the advertisement shown before, did you see a sports team?

If yes, which one?
- A sports team was not displayed on the advertisement
- Manchester United
- Real Madrid
- Liverpool
- Manchester City

Please select the statement closest to the option that best applies to you:

How would you rate the advertisement shown before?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pleasant</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appealing</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likeable</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interesting</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authentic</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please indicate your views with respect to the following statement by using the scale "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree."

The commercial brand shown in this ad is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attractive.</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is a satisfactory brand</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is a good brand</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like this brand</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
<td>○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○ ○</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.3.4 Section Four: Covariates Measures and Demographics.

Please indicate your views with respect to the following statement by using the scale "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree".

Feelings toward Manchester United can be characterised by:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Captivation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Devotion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affection</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delight</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the commercial brand showed before in the advertisement, please select the option closest to the statement that best applies to you:

- I have never seen advertisements about this brand in any type of media.
- This brand is very unfamiliar to me.
- I'm not at all knowledgeable about this brand.
- I have seen many advertisements about this brand in the media.
- This brand is very familiar to me.
- I'm very knowledgeable about this brand.

Please select the option closest to the statement that best applies to you in regard to your soccer knowledge:

- Football (soccer) is a sport I follow constantly.
- Football (soccer) is very unfamiliar to me.
- I'm not at all knowledgeable about football (soccer) teams.
- Football (soccer) is very familiar to me.
- I'm very knowledgeable about football (soccer) teams.

Please indicate your views with respect to the following statement by using the scale "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree".

For the brand showed before in the advertisement:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Somewhat agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Someone like me would be willing to purchase from this brand if it became available in my city.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can easily picture myself using the product portrayed in the ad.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The ad made me think about my personal experiences with this type of product.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The ad related to me personally.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Select your gender:
- Male
- Female
- Prefer not to say

Your household income is:
Select the most suitable option:
- Less than £20,000
- £20,000-£29,999
- £30,000-£39,999
- £40,000-£49,999
- Greater than £50,000
- Prefer not to say

What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed? If currently enrolled, highest degree received
- Less than high school
- High school graduate
- Some college
- 3 year university degree
- 4 year university degree
- Masters degree
- Doctorate
- Prefer not to say

Current Employment Status:
- Employed full time
- Employed part time
- Unemployed looking for work
- Unemployed not looking for work
- Retired
- Student
- Prefer not to say
7.3.5 Section Five: Finish

Thank you for your participation in this survey!
The PollCode for PoliPool users (www.poll-pool.com): twh6pnaf
SurveyCircle users (www.surveycircle.com): The Survey Code is: 17Q1-Q7K4-PEMW-QXUT
If you found this survey via SwapSurvey.com, please click this link: https://app.swapsurvey.com/s/SkIoIaRef
If you would like to go into the draw to win 1 of 3 Amazon vouchers worth £50 please enter your email address below:

7.4 Football Club’s Approval

Brand Protection [brandprotection@manutd.co.uk]

To: Rodrigo Balsezar Cruz

Dear Rodrigo
Thank you for taking the time to contact us with your enquiry.

As your request is for educational purposes only, we do not object to the use of the Manchester United crest for your project. Please note that use of any of our registered trade marks for commercial purposes is not permitted.

May I take this opportunity to wish you the very best of luck with your studies.

Kind regards

Brand Protection

Brand Protection
T +44 (0) 161 668 8000
E brandprotection@manutd.co.uk

Manchester United Football Club Limited
Sir Matt Busby Way, Old Trafford
Manchester, M16 0RA
MANUTD.COM