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Sponsorship and advertising in sport: a study of consumers' attitude

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8 Sponsorship and Advertising in Sport: A Study of Consumers' Attitude

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Abstract

Research question: Advertising has been considered a less efficient vehicle of marketing communication. One recent study refuted that unlike traditional advertising mediums, consumers' attitude towards advertising was rather favourable in sport. This study compared consumers' attitudes between advertising and sponsorship in sport and examined the antecedents (beliefs) and consequence (purchase intentions) of attitude in advertising and sponsorship.

Research methods: Data were collected from 324 consumers. For testing of psychometric properties of the measures, a confirmatory factor analysis and a multiple invariance test were employed. A paired t-test, structural equation modeling, and invariance tests were conducted to test the research hypotheses.

Results and Findings: There was no significant difference in consumers' attitudes between advertising and sponsorship which were both deemed favourable. The path analyses revealed two positive beliefs (product information and hedonism/pleasure) and one negative belief (falsity/no sense) as significant predictors of attitude in both models. Good for the economy was an additional significant predictor of attitude in advertising but it was not so in sponsorship. The strengths of the three path coefficients were statistically identical across the two models. Attitude was a significant indicator of purchase intentions in both models; however, the invariance test revealed that the path in advertising was statistically stronger than that in sponsorship.

Implications: This study provides important knowledge about consumers' cognitive structures that could explain their decision making processes. Sport marketers could develop their promotion strategies more successfully, conveying their intent in a manner consistent with positive beliefs and avoiding activating negative beliefs.

Keywords: advertising through sport, sport sponsorship, belief, attitude, purchase intentions

Introduction

With greater emphasis and focus now placed on sport promotions, the global market sees the rapid rise of sport promotion as a major component of the marketing mix (Schwarz, Hunter, & Lafleur, 2013). This study explores two pivotal components in the sport promotion mix - advertising and sponsorship, where sport functions as an independent advertising or sponsorship platform. Advertising through sport may include any type of advertising using traditional mediums (e.g., television, print, online) but utilise sport-related contents as a natural advertising platform (Pyun & James, 2011). The term of sport-related contents includes all types of sporting amateur or professional events, athletes/coaches, teams, sport scenes and the like (Pyun & James, 2011). Advertising through sport may also include the presence of advertising at a sporting event such as in-stadium signage at games (Pyun, Kwon, Chon, & Han, 2012). When attending a football game at the stadium, consumers may be exposed to different types of signage. Unlike other traditional advertising mediums, one unique characteristic of advertising through sport is that people unconsciously experience such advertisements because they visit stadiums to watch sporting actions rather than the ads (Harshaw & Turner, 1999). It should be noted that while such in-stadium is sometimes considered as sponsorship as it is often included in integrated sponsorship packages, stadium and arena signage including LED signage and virtual signage should be considered as one format of advertising through sport (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007).

While advertising refers to a two-way communication process between advertiser and consumer, sponsorship includes a three-way communication process among sponsor, property, and consumer (Cameron, 2009). Accordingly, sponsorship is defined as "a business relationship between a provider [sponsor] of funds, resources or services and an individual, event or organisation [property] which offers in return some rights and association that may be used for commercial advantage" (Sleight, 1989, p. 4). Sport sponsorship may represent the

1 form of attaining the right of entitlement to events (e.g., Virgin Money London Marathon),
2 athletes (e.g., Adidas's endorsement deal with football celebrity David Beckham) or a facility
3 (e.g., Etihad Stadium). Through sporting events, people are exposed to a variety of marketing
4 strategies and corporate brand names or logos simply by watching the sporting actions. The
5 important point in distinguishing sponsorship from advertising is that a consumer receives a
6 sponsor's message through the property in a "passion" mode; however, a consumer receives
7 an advertiser's message through the media in an "interruption" mode (Cameron, 2009, p. 134).

8 With this conceptual difference, a prevailing assumption is that consumers' attitude
9 towards advertising is less favourable as it appears in highly commercialised contexts (cf.
10 Meenaghan, 2001a). However, a more recent research in the sport context (Pyun et al., 2012)
11 reported that consumers' attitude towards advertising through sport was rather positive, unlike
12 other traditional advertising mediums such as television, print, and online. Yet, Pyun and his
13 colleagues (2012) failed to examine the reactions consumers had of both advertising and
14 sponsorship for direct comparison. The current study was motivated with this theoretical
15 rationale that consumers' attitudes towards advertising and sponsorship are both favourable
16 in the sport context (c.f., Pyun et al., 2012).

17 However, there has been little attempt to investigate causal mechanisms of consumers'
18 attitude formations surrounding the two domains. A better understanding of different cognitive
19 structure embedded in advertising and sponsorship enables marketers to create more effective
20 promotional strategies. For example, one football club fan feels annoyed with a certain
21 brand's flashing LED signage during the matches, and this could be a main reason s/he
22 dislikes this brand and does not want to purchase its products. Another fan is quite favourable
23 towards the club's shirt sponsor and wants to purchase the sponsor's products as s/he
24 perceives that these sponsors help boost the financial viability of their teams. The marketers
25 can develop strategies in a manner consistent with the positive belief and avoiding activating

the negative stimuli. The ultimate goal of sport marketers is to increase brand images and sales. A recognition of relationships among consumers' beliefs, attitudes and purchase intentions will enable them to achieve this goal. This proposition is grounded on the Fishbein's (1967) concept that attitude is characterised as a consequence of belief and at the same time a determinant of purchase intentions.

Therefore, the purposes of this study **were** to (a) compare consumers' attitudes towards advertising and sponsorship in sport and (b) empirically examine the antecedents (beliefs) and the consequence (purchase intentions) of attitude towards both advertising and sponsorship. This systematic research **aims to** provide important information to sport marketers seeking to increase revenue and the enhancement of their brand image by understanding how consumers think, feel, and behave.

Theoretical Background

Conventional Approach to Advertising and Sponsorship

Past marketing research reported that consumers' reaction to sponsorship was different from advertising (e.g., Carrillat & d'Astous, 2012; Carrillat & d'Astous, 2013; Grohs & Reisinger, 2014; Hoek, Gendall, Jeffcoat, & Orsman, 1997). According to the classic sponsorship concept (Meenaghan, 2001a), companies often considered sponsorship as a tool to pursue charitable or philanthropic activities which were deemed as beneficial to our society (e.g., linking sponsorship with corporate social responsibility). Uhrich, Koenigstorfer, and Groeppel-Klein (2014) highlighted that many companies were engaged in leveraging sponsorship activities in conjunction with corporate social responsibility. Given this, a key factor distinguishing sponsorship from advertising was "goodwill" generation (Meenaghan, 2001a, p. 197). Meenaghan (2001a) suggested that goodwill was a key indicator of companies' investment behaviour, which lowered a consumer's defense mechanism, resulting in sponsorship being more acceptable. Similarly, Easton and Mackie (1998, p. 105) supported this notion that

1 sponsorship is usually considered "more altruistic and evident of the company's social
2 conscience" than advertising. In addition, Hoek et al. (1997) provided empirical evidence that
3 sponsorship was more effective in terms of brand awareness and could produce stronger
4 associations with a wider range of a sponsor's brand attributes. Therefore, sponsorship was
5 traditionally deemed as a more effective promotional tool for a company when brand image
6 enhancement was necessary.

7 In contrast, advertising was seen as being more "selfish" and in the commercial interest
8 of the advertiser (Meenaghan, 2001b, p. 101). It could be more "forceful and coercive", leading
9 to an alerted state in consumers' mind to defend against such communications (Meenaghan,
10 2001b, p. 101). This was a common finding from the marketing literature that consumers'
11 overall attitudes towards advertising in general and other traditional advertising mediums (e.g.,
12 TV, online, print) was getting more aggravated (e.g., Burns, 2003; Mehta, 2000; Mittal, 1994).

13 **Advertising and Sponsorship in Sport**

14 Specific to sport contexts, it was similarly claimed that consumers' attitude towards
15 sponsorship was more favourable when compared to advertising through sport (Lardinoit &
16 Quester, 2001). While sponsorship through philanthropic activities is still popular in sport
17 (Demir & Söderman, 2015), it is also true that sponsorship activities in the contemporary
18 professional sport and mega sport events are more commercialised with specific financial
19 goals. Given this, the findings from Lardinoit and Quester (2001) could be explained by the
20 concept of fan loyalty, where sport marketers leverage sponsorship in a way that taps into
21 fans' loyalty. When fans have strong loyalty to a sport team or event, they tend to have
22 positive attitudes towards its sponsors associated with their favourite team or event (Biscaia,
23 Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013). This is because of the image transfer process which
24 is particularly strong in sport sponsorship (Levin & Dalakas, 2005).

However, a different finding has been reported for advertising through sport (Pyun & James, 2010). Unlike the classical view that young and highly educated consumers usually form scepticism towards traditional advertising (e.g., Schlosser, Shavitt, & Kanfer, 1999), Pyun and James (2010) revealed that American college students showed favourable attitude towards advertising through sport. This finding was supported by further studies (Popović, Jakšić, Matić, Bjelica, & Maksimović, 2015; Pyun et al., 2012) that young consumers' attitude towards advertising through sport was significantly more positive than their attitude towards advertising in general and other traditional advertising mediums (e.g., TV commercials and online advertising). While the college student samples may express aversion to traditional advertising mediums, their active involvement with sport could cause them to build more favourable attitudes towards advertising through sport, which can be also explained by the image transfer process (Levin & Dalakas, 2005).

Accordingly, it was assumed that sport consumers would perceive both sponsorship and advertising in a positive way, particularly in the sport context. However, no direct comparison between consumers' attitudes towards sponsorship and advertising in sport has been examined. The paucity of empirical evidence in evaluating consumers' attitudes towards sport sponsorship and sport advertising may lead sport marketers to erroneous decisions when selecting a promotional tool. In addition, most past literature in this area (e.g., Bennett, Ferreira, Tsuji, Siders, & Cianfrone, 2006; Kim, Ko, & James, 2011; Pyun & James, 2010; Pyun & James, 2012) utilised college student samples. While college students are considered an important consumer segment in sport industries, it seems logical to recruit more generic sport consumers in order to generalise the findings. Therefore, the first aim of this study aimed to compare generic consumers' attitudes towards advertising through sport with their attitudes towards sport sponsorship.

Relationships between Beliefs and Attitude

1 The theoretical framework of this exploratory study is derived from the concept of Fishbein
 2 (1967) that the constructs of belief, attitude, and behaviour should be distinct. This multi-
 3 dimensional concept considers belief as an antecedent and behaviour as a consequence of
 4 attitude, forming a cognition-affect-conation relationship (Fishbein, 1967). People may
 5 have different reasons for the formation of the same attitude towards a certain object. For
 6 example, an English Premier League fan may form a negative attitude towards a sponsor
 7 because it makes football more commercialised. Another fan may also have the same
 8 negative attitude towards the sponsor because of annoyance with the sponsor logo when
 9 watching games due to a lack of fit between the league and the sponsor. Belief can therefore
 10 explain attitude. Using Fishbein's (1967) conceptual explanations, Pyun and James (2011)
 11 considered sport as an independent advertising platform and further developed the theoretical
 12 framework depicting the proposed relationships between seven beliefs and attitude toward
 13 advertising through sport.

14 Pyun and James (2011) conceptualised seven belief dimensions including four positive
 15 (i.e., product information, social role and image, hedonism/pleasure, and good for the
 16 economy) and three negative (i.e., materialism, falsity/no sense, and annoyance/irritation)
 17 beliefs which were hypothesised to predict attitude. Other studies have suggested that the
 18 proposed beliefs were significant indicators in shaping overall attitudes towards advertising
 19 in general and various specific mediums (e.g., Burns, 2003; Jin & Lutz, 2013; Parreño, Sanz-
 20 Blas, Ruiz-Mafé, & Aldás-Manzano, 2013). Specific to sport marketing, the past literature
 21 revealed the significant impacts of several positive beliefs (e.g., product information,
 22 hedonism/pleasure, and good for the economy) on attitude toward advertising through sport;
 23 however, the negative beliefs (e.g., annoyance/irritation, falsity/no sense, and materialism)
 24 were not significant indicators of the attitude (Popović et al., 2015; Pyun & James, 2010;
 25 Pyun et al., 2012). This empirical evidence may support the hypothesis that consumers'

overall attitude towards advertising through sport would be rather positive unlike the traditional mediums. However, it should be also noted that these studies used college students as samples. This segment may form more positive attitudes towards sport itself because of their active involvement with sport and reduce their pre-existing negative beliefs (Pyun & James, 2011). Thus, further research on more generic consumers is warranted.

In terms of sponsorship, corporations usually seek associations with a sport property partly because of the expectation that a sport event's positive image will transfer to a sponsoring company's brand image when it is connected via sponsorship (Mullin et al., 2007). Sponsorship engages consumers differently, by bestowing benefit on the activity, and capitalising on consumers' emotional relationship (Meenaghan, 2001a). Past research revealed a plethora of evidence in profiling of management processes where the focus is on motivation, choices, and behaviours of sponsorship decision-makings as well as recall and recognition tests as indicators of the effectiveness of sponsorship (e.g., Biscaia, Correia, Ross, & Rosado, 2014; Wakefield, Becker-Olsen, & Cornwell, 2007). However, contrasting how consumers establish their attitudes and behaviours towards sport sponsors and advertisers hasn't been examined and may represent an important step to aid sport organisations in better identifying partners and maximizing revenue. Building on the concept of attitude towards advertising through sport (Pyun & James, 2011), this study sought to examine the relationships between the beliefs and attitude towards sport sponsorship, along with advertising through sport. The followings are further explanations of the seven belief dimensions supposed to predict attitude.

Product information. Product information was an important reason why people were in favour of the two forms of sport promotion (Pyun & James, 2011). Past literatures revealed consistent findings that product information was a key variable in shaping overall attitudes towards advertising in general and specific advertising mediums (e.g., Burns, 2003) and

through sport (e.g., Bennett et al., 2006; Pyun & James, 2010, 2012). Both advertising and sponsorship should play the primary role of delivering information about attributes related to products. For example, an ad in a sport magazine could include lengthy contents to explain product benefits thoroughly. Sponsorship also provides potential opportunities for corporates to showcase their unique product feature or technological innovations during sport events. Consumers are motivated by the ability to acquire relevant information (e.g., features, price, value, etc.) about the products to reduce purchase uncertainty (Murray, 1991). In addition, such exposures to new product information could make consumers establish a connection between the product and the environment where information is delivered (Pettigrew et al., 2013). Thus, it was hypothesised as follows:

H1: There are positive relationships between product information and attitude towards sport sponsorship and advertising through sport.

Social role and image. Social role and image has been a popular advertising belief in explaining attitude in past literature (e.g., Pyun & James, 2011; Pollay & Mittal, 1993). This advertising function is often used by advertisers who develop a message that is designed to meet personal interests or curiosity of their target audiences. In advertising through sport, this function of advertising is often evidenced in athlete endorsements which use their fame or prestige (Pyun & James, 2011). The trustworthiness and influences from celebrities easily provide an ideal image or lifestyle consumers want to learn. When advertising or sponsorship is able to help people build their own identities or styles, consumer may form their attitude towards it in a more positive way as follows:

H2: There are positive relationships between social role and image and attitude towards sport sponsorship and advertising through sport.

Hedonism/pleasure. This advertising function has been one of the most dominant beliefs in the empirical tests on advertising through sport (Bennett et al., 2006; Pyun & James,

2010; Pyun et al., 2012). Past studies in marketing and communication also indicated that hedonism/pleasure was a significant belief, influencing attitude towards advertising in general (e.g., Pollay & Mittal, 1993) and in specific mediums (e.g., Burns, 2003; Parreño et al., 2013). Consumers may hold preferences for hedonic or entertaining contents due to its thought-provoking and interest-evoking characteristics. These characteristics demand invested time to understand and consume the sport advertisements or sponsors, while stimulating purchase considerations. On the other hand, consumers have little interest towards dull and boring contents, lowering the intention of future purchase. Parreño et al. (2013) highlighted mobile advertisers could enhance attitude through personalised and relevant message with entertainment characteristics. If the messages of sport advertisements or sponsors are hedonic and pleasurable, it increases the chance of acceptance of a particular sport promotion. Thus, the presented study proposed the following relationship:

H3: There are positive relationships between hedonism/pleasure and attitude towards sport sponsorship and advertising through sport.

Annoyance/irritation. The significant impact of annoyance/irritation on attitude toward advertising in general and specific medium (e.g., Burns, 2003; Parreño et al., 2013) could be extended to sport advertising or sponsorship. Annoyance/irritation would be a significant reason why consumers form negative attitudes due to its interruptive nature, which may affect the quality of the game that targeted consumers are watching. Some advertisements may not be of any interest or relevance to the consumers at all. For example, some football fans may be annoyed by the interruption from overwhelming LED signage presenting moving, changing, and graphic images. A good balance in the number of messages exposed to audiences would be helpful in order not to form negative evaluations for the signage. However, Bennett et al. (2006) pointed out such physical signage on traditional locations would be less intrusive than virtual signage exposed on prime locations. In addition,

sponsorship activities (e.g., brand logos on team jerseys, entitlement, or naming rights) could be intrusive and disrupt spectators to the extent that their attitudes are adversely influenced while they are attending or watching sporting events. Based on the results of the previous studies, the following relationship was suggested:

H4: There are negative relationships between annoyance/irritation and attitude towards sport sponsorship and advertising through sport.

Good for the economy. Good for the economy is also one popular functional attribute in the advertising and sponsorship model (Lardinoit & Quester, 2001; Pyun & James, 2011). There are several economic benefits expected from sport advertising and sponsorship. Firstly, active consumption derived from advertising and sponsorship would help revitalise local economy. For instance, the Super Bowl generated US\$300 to US\$400 million to a host city's economy (Matheson & Baade, 2006). In addition, sport consumers are aware that events are more financially viable with advertising and sponsorship activities. During sporting events, the distributions of freebies and prize money are also dependent on the generosity of advertising and sponsorship deals. A win-win situation would surface as both consumers and marketers benefit from promotional activities, where consumers get to enjoy sponsored or advertised products while companies have a greater opportunity to engage consumers' positive feelings for the events. As such, consumers are being exposed to sport sponsors repeatedly, which causes them to draw connections between the sport and the sponsors. This may create consumers' positive reactions to the sponsors (Madrigal, 2000). Overall cash flow would increase when consumers act on their purchase behaviour and the economy benefits as a whole. Furthermore, if a sponsor's involvement is seen as altruistic in nature, marketers can leverage on strategies that lead to commercial attributions as they complement the positive impressions already created (Carrillat & d'Astous, 2013). As a result, the following is expected:

H5: There are positive relationships between good for the economy and attitude towards sport sponsorship and advertising through sport.

Materialism. Polly and Mittal (1993, p. 102) described this materialism as "a set of belief structure that sees consumption as the route to most, if not all, satisfaction". In the current capitalistic environment of the sport industry, it is inevitable for sport to get more materialised. Among many factors that have influenced the commercialisation of sport, sponsorship would be a key factor as it is considered as one of the most rapidly growing elements of marketing in recent years (Meenaghan, McLoughlin, & McCormack, 2013). As found in Meenaghan's (2001) qualitative research, many people agree that advertising makes them buy something that they do not really need. A growing number of advertising and sponsorship campaigns in sporting events would produce compulsive-buying tendency, and consumers perceive this tendency as a negative function of advertising and sponsorship, resulting in society becoming more materialistic (Kwak et al, 2002). Several empirical studies supported the negative relationship between materialism and attitude (e.g., Mittal, 1994; Pollay & Mittal, 1993). This study also expects a negative relationship between materialism and attitude as follows:

H6: There are negative relationships between materialism and attitude towards sport sponsorship and advertising through sport.

Falsity/no sense. In past research, falsity/no sense was a negative indicator of attitude formation (Bennett et al., 2006; Schlosser et al., 1999; Shavitt, Lowrey, & Haefner, 1998). Shavitt et al (1998) emphasised the indignity of advertising produced people's aversion to generic advertising. In the same vein, sport consumers may perceive that advertising or sponsorship activities could provide misleading information and sometimes be offensive. Many people also perceive that advertising is often dishonest or exaggerated (Meenaghan, 2001a). One possible example is the growth of gambling sponsorship in football. In the 2016-

7 season of the English Premier League, there were 10 shirt sponsors from the gambling companies, compared to five gambling sponsors in the 2012-3 season. The proliferation of gambling sponsorship and advertising in football would generate a direct risk to young people, where football is more popular among this segment of the population (Monaghan, Derevensky, & Sklar, 2008). Therefore, this study would propose the following hypothesis:

H7: There are negative relationships between falsity/no sense and attitude towards advertising through sport sponsorship and advertising through sport.

Relationships between Attitude and Purchase Intentions

In addition to the link between belief and attitude, Fishbein (1967) defined that behaviour intention is independent from belief and attitude, and attitude is rather a predictor of behaviour intention, completing the cognition-affect-conation sequence. Behaviour intention has been considered one of the most popular indicators of both advertising and sponsorship effectiveness (Crompton, 2004; Wells, Burnett, & Moriarty, 2000). There have been various studies attempting to explain consumers' intentions to behave in certain ways in advertising or sponsorship such as purchase intention (e.g., Biscaia et al., 2013; Dees, Bennett, & Villegas, 2008; Kim et al., 2001), switching/complaint intention (e.g., Bush, Smith, & Martin, 1999), and positive word-of-mouth intention (e.g., Alexandris, Tsaousi, & James, 2007; Bush et al., 1999). Dees et al. (2008) believed that purchase intention is linked to consumers' perceived value and satisfaction and showed the significant impact of attitude on purchase intentions in intercollegiate football sponsorship. Biscaia et al. (2013) also found attitude was the strongest predictor of purchase intentions in professional football sponsorship. This sequence also applies to advertising. Effective advertising campaigns elicited positive reactions from consumers and formed a positive attitude which was directly related to behavioural intentions (Bush et al., 1999). Thus, this study was extended from the Pyun and James's (2011) model by including consumers' purchase intention as a consequence of

attitude and applying to the sponsorship model for a direct comparison of processes in the attitude formation with the advertising model.

H8: There are positive relationships between attitude and purchase intentions in sport sponsorship and advertising through sport.

Method

Research Participants

Data for the study were obtained from sampling customers at several major shopping centres in prime locations in Singapore. Customers from shopping centres constitute a major share of the market for many diverse products (Malhotra, 2010). Such a community intercept survey at shopping mall, sport bars, or event venue is an effective method to trace media patterns and learn information on the effectiveness of new promotional tools in sport marketing research (Sutton, Irwin, & McGladden, 1998). Three trained research assistants distributed self-administered questionnaires to generic consumers using a mall-intercept method between March and April in 2017. A total of 324 respondents participated in the study. The willing participants were briefed about the purpose of the study and informed that there were no right or wrong answers, assured of the confidentiality of their responses, and encouraged to ask questions if necessary. The participants were also informed that they were allowed to withdraw from taking part in the study any time they choose to do so.

Four demographic characteristics, gender, age, ethnicity, and economic activity status were measured. The respondents consisted of 179 (55.2%) males and 145 (44.8%) females and ranged in age from 19 to 66 years ($M = 36.00$, $SD = 8.82$). 62.38% of the respondents were Chinese while Malay and Indian respondents had 21.9% and 13.6%, respectively, and the rest indicated that they were of other ethnicities. This demographic information of the samples was similar with that of the citizen population of Singapore (i.e., 76.1% for Chinese, 15.0% for Malays, and 7.4% for Indians; Singapore Department of Statistics, 2016). In terms

of economic activity status, the highest percentage of respondents came from working full-time (79.3%), followed by working part-time (6.2%), homemaker (5.2%), retiree (2.8%), student (1.9%), and national serviceman (1.5%).

Measurements

The questionnaire included two sections measuring two domains: advertising through sport and sport sponsorship. Each section contained 26 belief items, three attitude items, and three purchase behaviour items in the respective domain. All items were designed to capture the respondents' opinions about sport sponsorship and advertising through sport. This approach focuses on measuring the respondents' cognitive, affective, and conative drivers surrounding advertising and sponsorship in general rather than specific advertisements or sponsorships in particular mediums or sport properties. However, it should be noted that the data on both advertising and sponsorship were collected from the same subjects at one point in time, possibly producing a common method variance bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

The 26-item belief scale, measuring the seven belief dimensions about advertising and sponsorship was adapted from Pyun and James (2009). The seven belief dimensions include product information (three items), social role/image (three items), hedonic/pleasure (four items), annoyance/irritation (five items), good for the economy (three items), materialism (three items), and falsity/no sense (five items). The three items measuring attitude towards advertising through sport and sport sponsorship were adapted from Pollay and Mittal (1993) and Mackenzie and Lutz (1989). All belief and attitude items were measured using a 7-point Likert scale, anchored with strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (7). Purchase intention was measured by asking about the respondents' willingness to purchase and/or use products and/or services, using a three item 7-point semantic differential scale (Madrigal, 2000). All individual statements measuring three constructs are shown in Table 1.

1 Data Analysis

For the preliminary analyses of the data, the Statistical Package for the Social Science (IBM SPSS 22.0) was employed. Descriptive statistics were utilised to screen the data (e.g., missing values, outliers, and normality) and to measure the respondents' demographic information. Cronbach's alpha and item-to-total correlation coefficients were calculated to examine internal consistency of the measures.

For testing of the psychometric properties and the equivalence of the models between the advertising and sponsorship groups, a two-phase analysis was conducted using Byrne's (2004) procedures for a multigroup invariance test. In phase one, each advertising and sponsorship model was tested using a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) independently to test the overall and internal model fits to the data. In phase two, chi-square and degree of freedom values of this baseline model (H_0) whose all parameters were unconstrained were computed from the simultaneous test between the two groups. These baseline values were then compared with those of the four subsequently specified models: (a) a model with all parameters constrained to be equal (H_A), (b) a model with all factor loadings constrained to be equal (H_{A1}), (c) a model with all factor variances/covariances constrained to be equal (H_{A2}), and (d) a model with all error variances constrained to be equal (H_{A3}). Since these partially constrained models were all nested within the baseline model, a chi-square difference test can be employed for a direct model comparison. All analyses employed in the two phases were carried out by LISREL 8.80.

For the main analyses, first a paired t-test was used to test if there was a significant difference in attitude scores between advertising through sport and sport sponsorship. Subsequently, structural equation modeling (SEM) was carried out to test the proposed relationships among belief, attitude, and purchase intention for the both models.

25 **Results**

1 Preliminary Analyses

2 Descriptive statistics showed that there were no outliers and missing values or invalid data
 3 responses. In terms of testing normality of the distribution of observed variables, each
 4 observed variable was tested based on both skewness and kurtosis. Skewness and kurtosis
 5 values should fall within the range of ± 1.00 to be considered normal (Kline, 1998). For
 6 advertising, skewness values ranged from -0.56 to 0.36, and kurtosis values ranged from -0.80
 7 to 1.34. For sponsorship, the skewness values ranged from -0.53 to 0.41, and kurtosis values
 8 ranged from -0.99 to 0.95. Apart from one advertising item's kurtosis statistic (1.34 for H1)
 9 being slightly larger than 1.00, the rest of the data satisfied the normality assumption (see
 10 Table 1 for more details).

11 #####Insert Table 1 near here####

12 For internal consistency of the measures, .70 alpha (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994)
 13 and .50 item-total correlation coefficients (Bearden, Netermeyer, & Teel, 1989) were used as
 14 the cut-offs to determine the amount of variance due to the random errors of content
 15 heterogeneity. All items' item-to-total correlation coefficients in advertising (.60~.90 for
 16 beliefs, .74~.80 for attitudes, and .75~.83 for purchase intention) and sponsorship (.51~.87
 17 for beliefs, .76~.84 for attitudes, and .67~.81 for purchase intention) were greater than .50,
 18 indicating all items were acceptable. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from .82
 19 to .93 for advertising and from .86 to .93 for sponsorship (see Table 1).

20 Assessments of the Measurement Model

21 In phase one, two separate CFAs were performed to confirm overall goodness-of-fit,
 22 reliability, and validity of the measures utilised in both advertising and sponsorship
 23 measurement model. The global model fit tests showed the overall adequacy of the models:
 24 $\chi^2(428) = 1534.92$, $\chi^2/df = 3.59$, RMSEA = .09, IFI = .93, CFI = .93 for the advertising
 25 measurement model and $\chi^2(428) = 1510.90$, $\chi^2/df = 3.53$, RMSEA = .09, IFI = .94, CFI = .95

for the sponsorship measurement model. The psychometric properties of the constructs were measured by composite reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Table 2 shows the composite reliability values ranged from .82 to .93 for advertising and from .87 to .92 for sponsorship, satisfying its suggested values of .60 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). With regard to convergent validity, the AVE values ranged from .55 to .82 for advertising and from .58 to .77 for sponsorship, all meeting the .50 cut-off suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981). However, eight items (H4, A3, A4, A5, M3, F3, F4 and F5) in the advertising model and five items (A3, M3, and F1) in the sponsorship model failed to meet the .707 cut-off, indicating that those items had more unique variance than common variance (Kline, 1998; see Table 2). For testing of discriminant validity, the correlation coefficients among the belief, attitude, and purchase intention constructs (see Table 3) and their AVE scores (see Table 2) were used to determine if the conceptually different constructs were also supported by empirical evidence (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The results showed that the squared correlations among the constructs (.00 to .62 for advertising and .01 to .42 for sponsorship) were less than their related AVE values. Thus, the constructs in both models seemed to discriminate. Given the results from the CFAs, the adequacy of the model was deemed appropriate for both the advertising and sponsorship models. Accordingly, the current measurement was used as a baseline model for the phase two of the model invariance test.

###Insert Table 2 near here###

###Insert Table 3 near here###

In phase two of testing for model invariance, a test for goodness-of-fit of the unconstrained baseline model (H_0) was conducted between the advertising and sponsorship groups simultaneously. The null model showed an acceptable fit to the both groups: $\chi^2(856) = 3045.83$; RMSEA = .09, IFI = .94, CFI = .94. The chi-square and degree of freedom values ($\chi^2 = 3045.83$ with $df = 856$) served as baseline values against the four specified models. All

results related to testing for model invariance were reported in Table 4. First, we compared the values ($\chi^2 = 3237.23$ with $df = 956$) from the fully constrained model (H_A) with those from the baseline model (H_0) and rejected the null hypothesis of equality of all parameters between the two groups ($\Delta\chi^2 = 191.40$ with $\Delta df = 100$) at $p = .01$. It indicated that there were certain variant parameter(s) somewhere in the model between the groups. We moved to the next step for further investigations. We tested the second specified model (H_{A1}) whose all factor loadings were constrained to be identical between the groups and computed a chi-square statistic ($\chi^2 = 3131.55$ with $df = 888$). A chi-square difference test revealed that a chi-squares difference value ($\Delta\chi^2 = 85.72$ with $\Delta df = 32$) was greater than its critical value of 53.49, also showing statistical significance. Next, the third specified model (H_{A2}) whose all factor covariances and variances were constrained to be identical between the groups ($\chi^2 = 3104.21$ with $df = 892$) was compared with the baseline model. A chi-square difference test revealed no statistical significance ($\Delta\chi^2 = 58.38$ with $\Delta df = 36$). Lastly, a chi-square difference test with the fourth specified model (H_{A3}) whose all error variances were constrained to be equal between the groups and also yielded that a chi-square difference value of 47.42 with 32 degrees of freedom was not statistically significant (see Table 4 for more details). Overall, while a series of the model invariance tests empirically supported the invariance of (co)variances and error variances in the model, the equivalence of the factor loadings was questioned. However, the two nested models showed no decrease in CFI (.94 for the unconstrained model and .94 for the factor-constrained model; see Table 4), supporting metric invariance, based on the CFI change of less than .01 (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

Prior to the main tests, we refined the belief scale by removing several problematic items identified from the CFAs, which were two items (A3 and A5) in annoyance/irritation and two items (F1 and F5) in falsity/no sense, while retaining at least three items per

dimension (see Table 2). After the item reductions, metric (factor loadings) invariance was reassessed. Unfortunately, a chi-square difference test revealed still statistical significance ($\Delta\chi^2 = 75.58$ with $\Delta df = 28$). However, there was no decrease in CFI (.96 for the unconstrained model and .96 for the factor-constrained model). The results showed that while some factor loadings seemed non-invariant, the other subsets of all parameters (factor co/variance and error variance) were invariant. Milfont and Fischer (2010) noted that "full measurement invariance is unlikely to hold in practice...too strict and unrealistic..." (p. 117). Thus, the partial measurement invariance was achieved prior to the subsequent analysis (Byrne, Shavelson, & Muthén, 1989).

###Insert Table 4 near here###

Attitudes towards Advertising through Sport vs Sport Sponsorship

A paired-sample *t*-test was conducted to test whether consumers' advertising attitude was significantly different from their sponsorship attitude. The test revealed that there was no significant difference between attitude towards advertising ($M = 4.60$, $SD = 0.89$) and sponsorship ($M = 4.68$, $SD = 0.97$) at the .05 probability level: $t(323) = -1.436$, $p = .152$. This result suggested that consumers' attitude towards advertising was not significantly lower than attitude towards sponsorship in sport contexts.

Assessments of the Structural Model

Two structural model tests were carried out to determine if there were any different beliefs dimensions in predicting attitudes in advertising and sponsorship and if an attitude was a significant predictor of purchase intentions in both advertising and sponsorship. The parameter estimates for the proposed relationships among beliefs, attitude, and purchase intentions in the models are presented in Figure 1. The advertising model showed improved model fit to the data after the model refinement: $\chi^2(321) = 874.75$, $\chi^2/df = 3.59$, RMSEA = .07, IFI = .96, CFI = .96. The path analysis showed that product information ($\beta = .32$, $t =$

5.24), hedonism/pleasure ($\beta = .21, t = 3.32$), and good for the economy ($\beta = .20, t = 3.82$) were positively related with attitude while only falsity/no sense ($\beta = -.23, t = -4.28$) was negatively related with attitude. In the sponsorship model, similar results were evidenced. The sponsorship model also provided a satisfactory fit to the data: $\chi^2(321) = 965.37, \chi^2/df = 3.01, RMSEA = .08, IFI = .96, CFI = .96$. The significant determinants of attitude toward sport sponsorship were product information ($\beta = .36, t = 5.92$), hedonism/pleasure ($\beta = .36, t = 5.90$), and falsity/no sense ($\beta = -.33, t = -6.18$). However, good for the economy ($\beta = .07, t = 1.78$) was no longer significant in the sponsorship model. The other one positive belief (social role and image) and two negative beliefs (annoyance/irritation and materialism) were not statistically significant in both models (see Figure 1). Therefore, the path analyses supported H1, H3, and H7 for both models and H5 for the advertising model only. However, the analyses failed to support H2, H4, and H6 for both models and H5 for the sponsorship model only. The proportions of variance in the attitude constructs in both models seemed to be well explained by the proposed relationships ($R^2 = .53$ in the advertising model and $R^2 = .64$ in the sponsorship model). In addition, attitude was a significant indicator of purchase intentions in both models: $\beta = .82, t = 13.70$ for advertising ($R^2 = .67$) and $\beta = .69, t = 11.22$ for sponsorship ($R^2 = .48$), supporting H8. Lastly, invariance of the path coefficients of the relationships across both models was tested using a chi-square difference test at $p = .01$ ($\chi^2[1] = 6.64$). The three significant path coefficients of production information ($\Delta\chi^2[1] = .04$), hedonism/pleasure ($\Delta\chi^2[1] = .04$), and Falsity/no sense ($\Delta\chi^2[1] = .38$) were consistent across both models. However, the path coefficients between attitude and purchase intentions were non-invariant ($\Delta\chi^2[1] = 22.63$), indicating that the path parameter of $\beta = .82$ in advertising was significantly higher than $\beta = .69$ in sponsorship.

####Insert Figure 1 near here####

Discussion

1 Consumers may hold different beliefs when experiencing a certain brand and then form
2 different attitudes which are an important determinant of their future behaviour towards the
3 brand (Till & Busler, 2000). In the same manner, it is proposed that consumers perceive
4 different functions about advertising through sport or sport sponsorship and build a certain
5 attitude towards it, which eventually determines a decision to purchase a particular advertised
6 or sponsored product (Pyun & James, 2011). On the basis of the recent empirical evidence
7 (Pyun & James, 2012), this research started with the proposition that consumers' attitude
8 towards advertising through sport might not be that negative compared to attitude towards
9 sport sponsorship. The research extended the existing knowledge on advertising and
10 sponsorship processes by seeking to compare advertising through sport and sport sponsorship
11 in terms of consumers' attitudes and see why consumers feel in certain ways towards both
12 communications and if there were any different beliefs significantly involved in forming the
13 attitudes, which might be translated into their behaviour.

14 The results revealed that consumers' attitudes towards advertising through sport and
15 sport sponsorship were both positive, and there was no significant difference in two mean
16 scores. Given the previous findings that sponsorship in general tends to be more favourable
17 than advertising in general (Carrillat & d'Astous, 2012; Meenaghan, 2001a), this finding
18 appears surprising. The result concerning respondents' marginally favourable reactions to
19 sport advertising ($M = 4.60$) is inconsistent with previous studies on advertising in general
20 (e.g., Burns, 2003; Mittal, 1994) and in specific mediums (Burns, 2003; Mittal, 1994).
21 However, this result is consistent with studies in sport contexts (e.g., Pyun & James, 2010,
22 2012). Earlier studies conducted in the 1980s (Andrews, 1989) indicated that consumers'
23 attitude towards advertising became more negative as compared to studies done much earlier
24 in the 1950s and 1960s (Bauer & Greyser, 1968). Research undertaken in the 2000s on
25 television or mobile advertisements also found that consumers' attitudes towards advertising

in specific mediums were unfavourable, even more so than advertising in general (Mehta, 2000; Watson, McCarthy, & Rowley, 2013). Likewise, consumers' attitudes towards online advertisements were also unfavourable (e.g., Tan & Chia, 2007). Similarly, Kim et al. (2011) addressed that sponsorship generating a low defense mechanism among consumers would be a more effective communication tool than advertising even in sport settings, following Meenaghan (2001a)'s concepts. However, it was evidenced in this study that there were generally favourable responses among consumers when marketers use sport as an advertising platform. As for sport sponsorship, the result that consumers' attitude towards sponsorship was usually favourable was consistent with past literature (e.g., Koenigstorfer & Groeppel-Klein, 2012), which is also extended by the current analysis. This finding provides marketers with one important implication when deciding a promotional tool. Whether corporate messages could effectively reach their consumers often depends on selection of a promotional tool (Wells et al., 2000). Consumers' favourable attitudes towards advertising and sponsorship imply that they are more willing to receive the messages delivered.

One possible explanation on why advertising and sponsorship in sport saw similar and favourable attitudes from the respondents may be because of the recent fever about sport and sporting events in Singapore. Singapore successfully hosted the first ever night time race in the F1 Grand Prix beginning in 2008, the inaugural Youth Olympic Games in 2010, and the South East Asian Games in 2015. In 2016, Singapore won its first-ever Olympic gold medal in the men's 100-meter butterfly at the Rio Olympics. The hosting of major sporting events and the achievements in international competitions brought pride to its citizens (Leng, Kuo, Baysa-Pee, & Tay, 2014). As such, sport provides "very strong image, has a mass international audience, and appeals to all classes" (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003, p. 275). Thus, sport as an advertising or sponsorship platform would generate "excitement" and "emotional attachment" among people (Copeland, Frisby, & McCaville, 1996, p. 33). This familiarity

1 and connection to sport or sport celebrities may overcome any initial aversions that
2 consumers have towards any form of sport advertisements or sponsorships (Pyun & James,
3 2011). Dhurup (2014) highlighted that celebrities who have attractive features may add value
4 to an endorsed product. Thus, consumers would be more receptive to marketing using sport
5 contents. Consumers' positive attitudes towards sport promotions would explain why many
6 corporate marketers seeking a more healthy and dynamic image have turned to the use of
7 sport as a marketing communication tool.

8 Another possibility is related to the measurement. The absence of difference may be
9 explained by the format of questions asking the subjects' overall attitude towards advertising
10 and sponsorship, without referring to specific advertisers or sponsors. The consideration of
11 industry-specific advertisers and/or sponsors may have produced different results. For
12 example, with the hypothesis that consumers may form varying attitudes and purchase
13 intentions towards different sponsors, Biscaia et al. (2013) tested how consumers' attitudes
14 towards the actual specific sponsors influenced their purchase intentions of these sponsors,
15 rather than focusing on evaluation of abstract sponsorship. This issue is further discussed in
16 the limitation section below.

17 It should not be overlooked that consumers may have difficulties in distinguishing
18 advertisers from sponsors particularly in mega sport contexts. Some advertisements (e.g., in-
19 stadium signage) would be perceived as sponsorship activities among consumers, seen as
20 “feelgood” (Olson, 2010, p. 188). Olson (2010) pointed out that while people tended to
21 perceive sponsorship as less commercial communication platforms, this “feelgood” could be
22 mitigated when sponsors were believed as insincere (e.g., advertiser). The contrary concept is
23 applied for this case, enabling advertisers to capitalise on positive aspects of sponsorship (e.g.,
24 sincerity, receptivity) which would eventually rub off on their advertised brands.

1 An identification of what perceptions or beliefs determine favourable attitudes
2 provides significant implications for sport marketers by underpinning consumers' cognitive
3 structures in determining their decision-making process. Thus, the next phase was designed
4 to test whether such positive elements of consumers' cognitive structures embedded in sport
5 contents worked to form attitude in a favourable way. In addition, the study sought to examine
6 the differences in the magnitudes of structural paths to see if the belief-attitude and attitude-
7 purchase intention relationships in advertising differed from those in sponsorship. Four
8 positive (product information, social role and image, hedonism/pleasure, and good for the
9 economy) and three negative beliefs (annoyance/irritation, materialism, and falsity/no sense)
10 were prepared to test the relationships with attitudes. These beliefs are believed to explain an
11 individual's attitude towards advertising through sport and sport sponsorship based on the
12 Fishbein's (1967) conceptual framework. These seven belief dimensions were measured using
13 the scale developed by Pyun and James (2009), and their relationships with attitude as well as
14 the relationship between attitude and purchase intention were tested for sponsorship and
15 advertising independently. The study provided empirical evidence that among the positive
16 belief constructs, product information, hedonism/pleasure, and good for the economy were
17 significant determinants in shaping overall attitudes in the advertising model. For the
18 sponsorship model, production information and hedonism/pleasures were significant indicators
19 of attitudes. However, good for the economy was no longer significant in the sponsorship
20 model. Interestingly, among the negative belief constructs, falsity/no sense was a negative
21 determinant for both advertising and sponsorship.

22 It was also supported that purchase intention was a significant consequence of
23 attitudes in both models (Bush et al., 1999), **supporting that** the existing advertising model
24 can be extended to sponsorship. The identification of key predictors of attitudes will enable
25 practitioners to create and design promotional campaigns by enhancing positive functions and

at the same time reducing negative functions surrounding advertising or sponsorship. It should be noted that the invariance test revealed the attitude-purchase intention link in advertising ($\beta = .82$) was statistically stronger than that in sponsorship ($\beta = .69$). While sponsorship is deemed a more indirect/disguised attempt to persuade, advertising is very direct with greater overt intent to persuade consumers (Meenaghan, 2001a). This study also revealed no significant difference in the respondents' attitudes between advertising and sponsorship, indicating both were somewhat positive, unlike the traditional belief. When combining consumers' favourable attitude towards advertising with this disposition of advertising (Meenaghan, 2001a), it seems the impact of attitude on purchase intention is more prominent in the advertising context.

Consumers may form their own perceptions about the advertisements or sponsorship activities. Based on the established perceptions, they build certain feelings or emotions. Then, they make a decision at some point as to whether they will purchase the advertised product or not. This sequence of cognition-affect-conation is what sport marketers are keen to learn when planning promotional campaigns as it is an important source of competitive advantage for them. For the effective advertising and sponsorship development, marketers may emphasise to utilise such positive functions (e.g., promotion information, hedonism/pleasure, and good for the economy) to generate positive attitudes but avoid the negative function of falsity/no sense when designing promotional contents. This may show the psychological process of how advertising and sponsorship work. Sport marketers in pursuing greater marketplace efficiencies seem to design promotional campaigns containing production information as consumers are able to better link their needs and wants to the marketers' offerings (Pollay & Mittels, 1993). The marketers also need to consider hedonism/pleasure elements as a crucial technique to promote their target consumers' likability. Pyun and James (2012) highlighted entertaining elements such as humour, funny message, and dramatic sport

moments can easily attract consumers' attentions. More hedonic atmosphere would be far more conducive to generate positive feelings among consumers. These favourable feelings are in turn significant determinants of product evaluations and purchase decisions (Bush et al., 1999).

To conclude, marketing through sport remains one of the most effective ways to achieve companies' marketing strategy due to the surge in sporting activities in the global sport industry (Ellert, Schafmeister, Mueller, Dallwig, & Phelan, 2014). Sport marketers have considered sport sponsorship and advertising through sport as effective communication tools. It has been suggested by Dean (1999) that advertising and sponsorship are two forms of promotions that are best-intertwined. That implies, advertising is often included in sponsorship activity particularly at mega sporting events. For example, Kinney and McDaniel (1996) highlighted that "corporate sponsorship of the Olympics is frequently supported with advertising touting the sponsorship" (p. 251). However, there have been many attempts to distinguish between advertising and sponsorship conceptually. Meenaghan (2001a) noted that advertising is a more straight forward and less vague promotional tool, and McDonald (1991) defined sponsorship as "advertising plus", purporting "more than advertising" (p. 35). With the proposition that advertising and sponsorship are distinct concepts as addressed by several researchers (e.g., Hoek et al., 1997; Meenaghan, 2001a; Pyun & James, 2011), the study contributes to the understanding of not only consumers' reaction to both advertising and sponsorship but also their cognitive outcomes that would help determine their future behaviour. This study highlights consumers' attitudes towards the two promotion strategies independently on the basis of different functions, utilising four positive and three negative belief dimensions. The findings of this study are worthwhile, highlighting that consumers generally have a more positive attitude towards sport promotions either through advertising or sponsorship. It is believed that sport plays an important role to engage consumers positively and have contributed to respondents' relatively more positive attitudes towards sport as a

marketing tool. The relationship between attitude and purchase intention was also well evidenced in both models. Developing a positive image transfer through the use of sport as a marketing platform would result in an increase in purchase intention of sponsored and advertised products. The findings of the study provide a better understanding as to what interests and evokes consumers, providing a guide for marketing practices.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The first limitation is related with the sample utilised. Although this research contributes to the existing literature on advertising and sponsorship in sport by recruiting general consumers, the findings may not provide bespoke information to specific consumer segments which are more homogeneous. Future research could replicate the current model with other highly selective consumer segments (e.g., professionals, householders, baby boomers, etc.) to establish the external validity of the results and help marketers design promotional campaigns to effectively reach to their specific market segments.

Secondly, this study used the abstract belief/attitude/purchase intention measures to measure consumers' overall responses to sport advertising and sponsorship. However, because the study did not focus on specific advertisers or sponsors, the participants may not correctly understand the difference between advertising and sponsorship (Biscaia et al., 2013). Thus, people may tend to react differently to different advertisers' or sponsors' brands linked to different sport properties due to their own perceptions of the brands and existing knowledge of the sport involved (Roy & Cornwell, 2004). According to the elaboration likelihood model (see Petty, Cacioppo, & Shumann, 1983), consumers build different decision-making processes on low- and high-involvement product purchase. For instance, regardless of an attitude towards a sponsor, purchase behaviour would differ between a soda (low-involvement) and a car (high-involvement). Thus, future research could be designed to examine specific advertisements or sponsorship activities in specific mediums (e.g.,

Facebook) or sport properties (e.g., UEFA Euro 2020). It would help sport marketers better understand consumers' reactions to a specific advertising/sponsorship stimulus during a particular exposure occasion (Lutz, 1985). In addition, controlling the level of exposure to the mediums (e.g., social media) would be necessary. For instance, young people seem to watch less television but spend more time on social media (Coyne, Padilla-Walker, Holmgren, & Stockdale, 2018). As such, they have different perceptions about TV commercial and online advertising.

Thirdly, the current study extended the existing advertising model to sponsorship and found the fairly consistent results between the two domains. The proportions of variance in attitude constructs explained by the beliefs were 53% for advertising and 64% for sponsorship. One possible explanation is that various advertising opportunities are sometimes packaged together with sponsorship. For instance, Man City fans can watch Etihad Airways logo in various places surrounding the stadium including players' shirts, LED displays, and stadium signs. This is because the shirt sponsorship, stadium naming right, and LED signage have been included in the club's one sponsorship deal. This may influence sport fans' reactions towards advertising and sponsorship arbitrarily. There is thus room for improvement. For instance, Cameron (2009, p. 26) highlighted that "sponsorship works very differently than advertising" due to its three-way relationships among sponsor, property, and consumer. Due to the reason noted above, when the advertisement is presented in a sport stadium, one may argue that there is also a three-way communication process. Given that, building a proper association between sponsor and property is important to achieve consumers' positive responses through sponsorship (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005). Thus, additional bespoke belief dimensions related to brand association between sponsor and property (e.g., sponsorship congruence) can be included in the sponsorship model (Rifon, Choi, Trimble, & Li, 2004).

1 Lastly, the current model including cognitive, affective and conative outcomes may not
2 fully explain the consumers' advertising/sponsorship communication processes. Individuals'
3 involvement with or interest in sport could be included in the model to assess a possible
4 moderation effect on the relationship between belief and attitude. Pyun and James (2011)
5 conceptualised that attitude towards sport can be a moderator of attitude toward advertising
6 through sport and highlighted that "consumers' positive attitudes towards sport may function
7 to reduce their pre-existing negative perceptions about advertising..." (p. 39). In the same
8 vein, consumers' established involvement with or interest in sport could be transferred to their
9 attitude toward advertising or sponsorship. Particularly for sponsorship model, team
10 attachment or loyalty would be a possible moderator in this linkage. A fan's attachment or
11 loyalty to a team is a key indicator of forming a favourable attitude toward sponsors
12 (Madrigal, 2000). To express loyalty to his/her favourite team, s/he would reduce his or her
13 preexisting negative perceptions about sponsorship.

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Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of the Belief and Attitude Items for Advertising through Sport (Sport Sponsorship)

	<i>Advertising (sponsorship) through sport...</i>	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	α
Product information	tells me which brands have the features I am looking for. (P1)	4.82(4.65)	1.16(1.24)	-0.56(-0.29)	0.32(-0.50)	.82 (.89)
	helps me to keep up to date about the products available in the marketplace. (P2)	4.93(4.74)	1.05(1.21)	-0.42(-0.40)	0.85(-0.03)	
	is a good source of product information. (P3)	4.79(4.56)	1.12(1.23)	-0.32(-0.16)	0.32(-0.33)	
Social role and image	helps me learn about fashions and about what to buy to impress others. (S1)	4.36(4.19)	1.42(1.42)	-0.48(-0.30)	-0.22(-0.45)	.87 (.87)
	helps me to learn what is in fashion and what I should buy for keeping a good social image. (S2)	4.30(4.22)	1.42(1.43)	-0.27(-0.17)	-0.28(-0.58)	
	gives me ideas about fashion. (S3)	4.54(4.34)	1.38(1.39)	-0.22(-0.12)	-0.52(-0.56)	
Hedonism/pleasure	is often amusing and entertaining. (H1)	4.77(4.45)	1.02(1.19)	-0.36(-0.08)	1.34(-0.22)	.89 (.93)
	is enjoyable. (H2)	4.75(4.51)	1.01(1.17)	-0.29(-0.10)	0.81(-0.01)	
	gives me pleasure when I think about what I saw or heard or read. (H3)	4.56(4.33)	1.02(1.14)	-0.23(-0.18)	0.64(-0.03)	
	is sometimes even more enjoyable than other media contents. (H4)	4.65(4.33)	1.04(1.21)	-0.30(-0.19)	0.88(-0.23)	
Annoyance/irritation	is annoying. (A1)	3.26(3.35)	1.12(1.18)	0.18(0.41)	0.42(0.10)	.87 (.92)
	is irritating. (A2)	3.23(3.30)	1.16(1.20)	0.03(0.27)	0.05(-0.03)	
	is too often. (A3)	3.74(3.59)	1.32(1.52)	0.20(0.20)	0.09(-0.55)	
	is too ridiculous. (A4)	3.50(3.58)	1.24(1.49)	0.36(0.33)	0.21(-0.39)	
	is too loud. (A5)	3.56(3.66)	1.14(1.34)	0.11(0.19)	-0.01(-0.15)	
Good for the economy	in general helps our nation's economy. (G1)	4.23(4.39)	1.02(0.95)	-0.39(-0.43)	0.50(0.85)	.93 (.91)
	generally helps the local economy. (G2)	4.28(4.47)	1.09(0.96)	-0.29(-0.50)	0.54(0.94)	
	helps raise our standard of living. (G3)	4.16(4.35)	1.12(0.98)	-0.22(-0.11)	0.22(0.79)	
Materialism	is making us a materialistic society, overly interested in buying and owning things. (M1)	4.96(4.65)	1.35(1.37)	-0.16(0.18)	-0.80(-0.87)	.85 (.86)
	influences people to buy things they do not really need. (M2)	5.03(4.69)	1.38(1.43)	-0.40(-0.01)	-0.47(-0.99)	
	leads to a waste of natural resources by creating desires for unnecessary goods. (M3)	4.49(4.28)	1.46(1.47)	-0.04(0.26)	-0.49(-0.65)	
Falsity/no sense	in general is misleading. (F1)	4.28(4.34)	1.30(1.35)	0.08(0.22)	-0.51(-0.74)	.86 (.86)
	is deceptive. (F2)	4.23(4.03)	1.27(1.40)	0.26(0.36)	-0.54(-0.33)	
	is dishonest. (F3)	3.67(3.46)	1.10(1.14)	0.33(0.02)	0.39(0.26)	
	is untrue. (F4)	3.55(3.35)	1.11(1.17)	0.30(0.11)	0.52(0.36)	
	is bad for children. (F5)	3.57(3.46)	1.29(1.36)	0.28(0.11)	-0.17(-0.30)	
Attitude	My general opinion of advertising through sport (sport sponsorship) is favourable. (A1)	4.51(4.60)	0.90(1.00)	-0.21(0.17)	0.15(0.11)	.88 (.89)
	Overall, I consider advertising through sport (sport sponsorship) a good thing. (A2)	4.57(4.69)	0.98(1.01)	0.02(0.11)	0.33(0.18)	
	Overall, I like advertising through sport (sport sponsorship). (A3)	4.70(4.75)	1.08(1.16)	-0.15(-0.08)	0.53(0.01)	
<i>Are you willing to buy/use products or services of companies who are utilising advertising (sponsorship) through sport?</i>						
Purchase intention	Extremely unlikely – extremely likely (PI1)	4.34(4.36)	1.13(0.95)	-0.33(-0.28)	-0.24(0.60)	.89 (.86)
	Not probable – Probable (PI2)	4.48(4.45)	1.21(0.97)	-0.47(-0.53)	-0.16(0.95)	
	No chance – certain chance (PI3)	4.60(4.59)	1.26(1.12)	-0.36(-0.20)	-0.18(0.61)	

Note 1: The sponsorship values are shown in parentheses. Note 2: Purchase intention items were measured by asking about the respondents' willingness to purchase and/or use advertised (sponsored) products and/or services.

Table 2

*Assessment of Internal Model Fit in the Measurement Model for Advertising through Sport
(Sport Sponsorship)*

		Factor loading	Composite reliability	AVE
Product information	P1	.73(.85)	.82(.89)	.61(.74)
	P2	.85(.90)		
	P3	.75(.82)		
Social role and image	S1	.79(.82)	.88(.88)	.71(.72)
	S2	.95(.94)		
	S3	.78(.77)		
Hedonism/pleasure	H1	.90(.90)	.89(.92)	.68(.77)
	H2	.94(.93)		
	H3	.74(.86)		
	H4	.69(.80)		
Annoyance/irritation	A1	.94(.94)	.87(.91)	.57(.71)
	A2	.94(.96)		
	A3 ^a	.57(.68)		
	A4	.67(.74)		
	A5 ^a	.58(.72)		
Good for the economy	G1	.91(.87)	.93(.91)	.82(.77)
	G2	.96(.96)		
	G3	.84(.79)		
Materialism	M1	.88(.80)	.87(.87)	.69(.70)
	M2	.93(1.00)		
	M3	.65(.68)		
Falsity/no sense	F1 ^a	.84(.53)	.86(.87)	.55(.58)
	F2	.88(.74)		
	F3	.69(.88)		
	F4	.65(.84)		
	F5 ^a	.61(.76)		
Attitude	Att1	.84(.90)	.88(.90)	.72(.75)
	Att2	.89(.86)		
	Att3	.81(.84)		
Purchase intention	PI1	.82(.75)	.90(.87)	.74(.69)
	PI2	.90(.90)		
	PI3	.86(.84)		

^aThose items were removed after the model invariance tests.

Note: The sponsorship values are shown in parentheses.

Table 3

Correlations Coefficients among the Latent Variables for Advertising through Sport (Sport Sponsorship)

	Product information	Social role and image	Hedonism/ pleasure	Annoyance/ irritation	Good for the economy	Materialism	Falsity/ no sense	Attitude	Purchase intention
Product information	1								
Social role and image	.46*(.55*)	1							
Hedonism/ pleasure	.40*(.55*)	.49*(.60*)	1						
Annoyance/ irritation	-.35*(-.40*)	-.28*(-.31*)	-.41*(-.44*)	1					
Good for the economy	.12(.08)	.05(.09)	.33*(.14*)	-.24*(-.10)	1				
Materialism	.05(.20*)	.04(.12*)	-.20*(.11*)	.27*(.10)	-.31*(-.11*)	1			
Falsity/no sense	-.21*(-.25*)	-.10(-.11)	-.19*(-.17*)	.36*(.49*)	-.27*(-.13*)	.63*(.42*)	1		
Attitude	.51*(.62*)	.35*(.37*)	.48*(.59*)	-.42*(-.50*)	.36*(.18*)	-.27*(.01)	-.48*(-.53*)	1	
Purchase intention	.45*(.50*)	.42*(.54*)	.53*(.57*)	-.37*(-.42*)	.39*(.25*)	-.28*(-.08)	-.40*(-.38*)	.79*(.65*)	1

*Significant at the .05 probability level.

Note: The correlation coefficients for sponsorship were included in the parenthesis.

Table 4

Test of Invariance of the Parameters between the Advertising and Sponsorship Models

	Model	$\chi^2(df)$	Test of invariance	CFI
	Null hypothesis (Ho): All unconstrained parameters	3045.83(856)	-	.94
	All parameters (H_A)	3237.23(956)	$H_A - H_o = \Delta\chi^2(100) = 191.40^*$	.93
Constrained parameters	Factor loadings (H_{A1})	3131.55(888)	$H_{A1} - H_o = \Delta\chi^2(32) = 85.72^*$	.94
	Factor co/variances (H_{A2})	3104.21(892)	$H_{A2} - H_o = \Delta\chi^2(36) = 58.38$	.94
	Error variances (H_{A3})	3093.25(888)	$H_{A3} - H_o = \Delta\chi^2(32) = 47.42$	.94

*Significant at the .01 probability level.

Note: The critical values of chi-square with 100, 36, and 32 *dfs* at the .01 probability level are 135.81, 58.62, and 53.49, respectively.

Figure 1. Standardised parameter estimates of the structural models for advertising through sport (sport sponsorship)

*Significant at $\alpha = .05$.

Note: The sponsorship values are shown in parentheses.