

Strategie, Marketing
und Informationsmanagement
Klaus-Peter Wiedmann *Hrsg.*

RESEARCH

Philip Gross

Growing Brands Through Sponsorship

An Empirical Investigation of Brand
Image Transfer in a Sponsorship
Alliance



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Strategie, Marketing und Informationsmanagement

Herausgegeben von

Klaus-Peter Wiedmann, Hannover, Deutschland

Die Schriftenreihe gibt Einblick in den aktuellen Forschungsstand zu den Themenfeldern Strategie, Marketing und Informationsmanagement. Sie behandelt vor allem auch solche Fragen, die für die Unternehmenspraxis von Bedeutung sind. Besonderer Wert wird auf die Praxisrelevanz und -anwendbarkeit der Beiträge gelegt. Die Reihe will den Transfer wissenschaftlicher Erkenntnisse in die unternehmerische Praxis fördern. Zielgruppe sind daher sowohl Studierende und Wissenschaftler als auch Marketingpraktiker und Entscheidungsträger.

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Foreword by Prof. Dr. Klaus-Peter Wiedmann

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To my family

Katja, Philomena Teresa, Ursula, and René

Thanks for your unconditional love, relentless support, and trust.

Foreword

The attention of both millions of viewers worldwide and a considerable number of on-site spectators has been on the 2014 FIFA World Cup Brazil just recently. A total of 64 matches were played in 12 cities and the excitement has been enormous with not only the audience and the players but also with the sponsors. Companies like Adidas, Visa, Sony, or Continental invested millions of dollars for the right of associating their brands with the event or particular teams and for leveraging these associations by means of collateral advertising and activation activities. However, the question remains whether or not all of that presence in a multitude of communication channels really paid off. Has awareness for the brands really been raised? Have client relationships really been cultivated through vivid brand experiences? Did the sponsoring companies' employees really feel positively about their employers engagement and has loyalty increased? And also, did the mental perceptions for the brands in consumers' heads really shift into the direction intended by the brand managers?

Anecdotal evidence suggests that not many of these questions are answered in the internal follow-up audits conducted by sponsor brands. Even though academic research in the field of sponsorship developed a multitude of frameworks and models on how to assess sponsorship outcome, the academic-practitioner divide is still considerably wide. Substantiating the surmise concerning this lack of contact between academic research and sponsorship practice, the number of research insights on sponsorship strategy and tactics (rather than the assessment of outcomes) having diffused to managers' work desks is very limited too. The present book is making an impact on practice by investigating a managerially relevant and, heretofore, under-researched aspect of sponsorship and brand management. While adhering to exceptionally high standards of empirical research, Dr. Gross provides fresh insights and viable advice on how to grow brands through sponsorship. His work specifically addresses the last of the above-mentioned questions. Namely, through which mental processes and on what image transfer routes do brand perceptions change in sponsorship?

The insights are fresh insofar as the between-sponsor brand image transfer that stands at the center of this study's consideration has up to now not been investigated with the thoroughness presented here. Imagine the brand manager that sees his or her brand sharing a perimeter billboard or any other sponsorship signage with a co-sponsor during the FIFA World Cup. In the past, it might have been that manager's intuition that led him to the assumption of this sponsorship ally probably imbuing the own brand. However, given the

results of the present study, we now have an initial piece of scientific evidence that in fact a sponsor brand can gain (or suffer) from brand attitude and brand personality traits innately tied to a co-sponsor. As the research framework does not only encompass the between-sponsor image transfer relationship but rather spans the entirety of transfer relations that might unfold among two sponsor brands and a sponsorship property, the investigation sheds light on how all of the individual brand level entities comprising a "sponsorship alliance" impact one another. Accordingly, a salient contribution of the present work lies in the finding that two brands concurrently sponsoring the same event may add an extra effect to the image gain they seek to garner from the property by cross-fertilizing with regard to their own images.

The viability of advice mainly arises from the conclusive implications as outlined for practitioners as well as from a number of concise ideas on the direction of future research. Through profound practical knowledge on the subject matter Philip Gross is well versed with regard to the needs and requirements coming along with executing and delivering on a sponsorship strategy. Building on this expertise, he understands to boil scientific findings down to the essence and deduct relevant propositions for both brand and property managers. Pointing to some fruitful paths for further investigation, he pays tribute to the field of study he immersed into as a scientist and paves the way for new insights to come. It is my hope that in contrast to depending on managers' intuition, growing brands through sponsorship may come to rely more on substantive research endeavors like the one at hand.

In that sense I wish this book a receptive and large audience in the communities of both practitioners and academicians.

Prof. Dr. Klaus-Peter Wiedmann

Acknowledgments

Per aspera ad astra – through hardships to the stars. In the course of writing my dissertation this Latin phrase came to my mind every once in a while. Especially at times when ideas on how to infer from bright peoples' thoughts for the purpose of my own deliberation did not flow from cognition to pages easily or when empirical efforts have stalled I used to recall the excitement and curiosity that had brought me to this point and I imagined how it will feel once the work will be completed. This and the relentless support of others is what carried me through the hardships of scientific work to the stars of insight and accomplishment. I would like to acknowledge and thank to some of the persons that were vital for the success of my work.

I am much obliged to my doctoral advisor Prof. Dr. Klaus-Peter Wiedmann. Professor Wiedmann had the grandeur of giving the opportunity to elaborate and write a dissertation in the field of marketing to me as an engineer and he put confidence in my abilities throughout that endeavor. He provided support to my thoughts and augmented my ideas through critical analysis and advice to the point. I especially admire Professor Wiedmann's capacity for enthusiasm and his ability to sharply extract the principal elements of the not always concise concepts I confronted him with. By providing guidance in connecting these dots he helped me to see and probe into the intricacies of the subject under discussion at all times. Thank you for enabling me to fulfill my dream.

I also highly appreciate the effort of my second assessor Prof. Dr. Kay Blaufus who invested time and thought into my work. Given the manifold scientific activities and duties of Professor Blaufus and in anticipation of his packed calendar expressing my gratitude for his opinion is even more important to me. On a related note I would also like to express my thankfulness to Tom Ramoser who, without knowing me personally but by just happening to work at the same management consultancy as I did at that time, introduced me to Professor Wiedmann based on some brief conversation and exchange of thoughts. His recommendation ultimately led to what now is present as "my book". Thank you for taking a stand for me.

As it has been my ambition to conduct research with a high degree of practical relevance, collaboration with organizations that are involved into the sponsorship business and with the people embodying these organizations has been invaluable to the progress of this dissertation. I thankfully look back to all the illuminating discussions I had with those who truly deal with the subtleties of sponsorship management as part of their professional

responsibility. At this place special thanks go to Larisa Matkovic-Kilibarda, Head of Sponsorship at the Migros-Genossenschafts-Bund, and to Markus Rege, Head of Marketing and Education at the Zoo Zurich. Migros provided for financial assistance in the main study conducted for the purpose of this dissertation, while the Zoo Zurich allowed for access to its customer database and to its sponsorship partners in a preliminary study leading up to this work. I am gratified to see the research results to be of value for you and your aspirations.

My parents Ursula and René deserve the credit of bringing me up and educating me in a way as to know that everything is possible with disciplined work. At the outset of this effort they asked me whether I knew what I was about to getting involved with – and I said yes. Of course (and especially in retrospect) I did not know what I got into and my parents most probably were aware of that very well. Nevertheless, they motivated me to go after my desire because they were in no doubt having taught me everything needed to overcome difficulties and to always be guided by a goal carried in mind. Thank you for giving me deep confidence and for being a safe haven in my life.

Finally, my greatest thanks go to my wife, Katja, and to my daughter, Philomena Teresa, for their invariable patience and sacrifice. This enterprise had not been possible without your faith in my abilities and your continual encouragement. You allowed for the freedom I needed for concentrated work and you also provided for occasional distraction be it in the form of taking me out into the snowy or summery mountains around Laax or through jointly creating offbeat houses and fierce creatures with Lego bricks on the floor of our living room. Thank you for accompanying me on that journey and beyond.

Philip Gross

Abstract

It has long been acknowledged that sponsorship offers unique opportunities for implementing brand strategy. Beyond contributing to brand awareness, enhancement of beliefs or feelings for a sponsor through transfer of brand image from a sponsored property has traditionally been a predominant objective of sponsorship. This dissertation addresses new opportunities for brand building that may reside within a sponsorship alliance. The study infers from congruity theory and associative learning theory to propose and test a research model that accounts for a sponsor to also gain from brand attitude and personality traits innately tied to a co-sponsor. Results provide evidence for direct image transfer between two sponsor brands. Specifically, the attitude toward one brand was found to imbue a second brand it is paired with through a common sponsorship engagement. Furthermore, nine brand associations out of a roster of 13 did significantly rub off from one sponsor brand onto the other. The latter finding is of particular interest to brand managers that aim at positioning their brand in the marketplace by building a distinct personality profile rather than just presiding over a vague attitude. Beyond investigating image transfer between sponsor brands this study also explores conveyance of attitudes and personality traits between sponsor brands and the sponsorship property and accounts for direct and moderating effects of brand image fit and brand familiarity. Implications for practitioners are straightforward. Because brand image rub-off onto a sponsor brand must not only be expected from the sponsored property but also from co-sponsors, brand managers may gain from who they share a perimeter billboard (or any other ad space in sponsorship) with but they must also be aware of detrimental effects. Pairing with a co-sponsor might fortify or dilute a sponsor brand's image depending on the expediency of the image conveyed by that ally. Managers of sponsorship properties do also benefit from positive evidence for image transfer between sponsors. For example, their approach in acquiring additional sponsors might be enriched by argumentation on positive image radiation coming off existing sponsors.

Keywords: Brand image, image transfer, sponsorship alliance

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Abbreviations

ADF	Asymptotically distribution free
AGFI	Adjusted goodness-of-fit index
ANCOVA	Analysis of covariance
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
AVE	Average variance extracted
b	Standardized regression weight
β	Unstandardized regression weight
bn	Billion
CAGR	Compound annual growth rate
cf.	Confer (compare)
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	Comparative fit index
CHF	Confoederatio Helvetica Franc/-s (Swiss franc/-s)
CI	Confidence interval
col.	Column
df	Degrees of freedom (df _M : Degrees of freedom of the model; df _R : Degrees of freedom of residuals of the model)
e.g.	Exempli gratia (for the sake of example)
E-mail	Electronic mail
ESAF	Eidgenössisches Schwing- und Aelplerfest (Triennial, wrestling-style sports event in Switzerland)
f.	Following page
FASPO	Fachverband für Sponsoring und Sonderwerbformen (Association for sponsoring and advertising specials)
ff.	Following pages
FIFA	Fédération Internationale de Football Association (International Federation of Association Football)
GFI	Goodness-of-fit index
GfK	Gesellschaft für Konsumforschung (Society for consumer research)
GLM	General linear model
HAM	Human associative memory

ibid.	Ibidem (in the same place)
i.e.	Id est (that is)
IEG	International Events Group
IOC	International Olympic Committee
LOCOG	London Organizing Committee of the Olympic Games and Paralympic Games
ML	Maximum likelihood
NRA	National Rifle Association (United States)
p.	Page
PA	Path analysis
para.	Paragraph
pp.	Pages
RMR	Root mean square residual
RMSEA	Root mean square error of approximation
SAC	Swiss Alpine Club
SD	Standard deviation
SE	Standard error
SEM	Structural equation model/-ing
S-O-R	Stimulus-Organism-Response
SR	Structural regression
S-R	Stimulus-Response
TOP	The Olympic Program (IOC sponsorship program)
UAW	United Auto Workers (United States)
USD	United States Dollar/-s

1 Introduction

1.1 Research problem and aim

In the competitive environment of our time rational sales arguments like a product's functionality and mere specification or the quality of a service do rarely differentiate a market offering from its competitors sufficiently so as to yield a positive influence on customers' buying decisions (Esch 2005, p.133; Biel 1993, p.73f.). In fact, alternative products or services are often marketed on comparable selling propositions and the utilitarian benefits they provide are indiscernible or differences do not exist at all (Kapferer 2008, p.173f.). It has been proposed that competitive superiority and differentiation must be attained through positioning a brand in the marketplace by establishing key brand associations in the minds of customers (Keller et al. 2002). From a firm's perspective, a strong network of associations not only facilitates customers' attention and learning processes (e.g., of advertising messages) but also leads to more favorable interpretations and evaluations of marketing information compared to brands with less elaborate memory structures (Hoeffler and Keller 2003, p.423ff.). Also, well established associations and brand familiarity have been proposed to work as a choice heuristic (see e.g., Kerin et al. 1996; Maheswaran et al. 1992; Smith and Park 1992; Hoyer and Brown 1990) endowing strong brands with an advantage at the point-of-sale. Referring to the associations held in memory by consumers, Gardner and Levy (1955), in their seminal article on the image of a brand, nicely put this preference effect into words by stating that "[t]hese sets of ideas, feelings, and attitudes that consumers have about brands are crucial to them in picking and sticking to ones that seem most appropriate. How else can they decide whether to smoke Camels or Lucky Strikes; to use Nescafé or Borden's instant coffee; to drive a Ford or a Chevrolet or a Plymouth" (p.35). The Fortune Magazine emphasized the relevance of distinguishing one offer from another by means of outstanding brands famously as follows: "In the 21st century, branding ultimately will be the only unique differentiator between companies" (1997, as cited in Esch 2008, p.1).

Brand associations can result from direct experience through brand trial, previous advertising or leveraging secondary brand associations (Campbell and Keller 2003, p.293). Typically, secondary brand associations arise from inferences consumers make from some entity inherently linked to the brand such as a celebrity spokesperson or an event (Keller 1993, p.11). If, for example, a brand is tied to an event through sponsorship, some of the

ideas, beliefs, or feelings associated with the event might ultimately become a component of the brand's mental representation. Effectively, building brand image has been declared a predominant objective of sponsorship activities from a practitioner's perspective (Cornwell et al. 2001) and brand image transfer is heavily investigated by academicians in the field of sponsorship research (Walliser 2003, p.15; Cornwell and Maignan 1998, p.13ff.). The transference of attitudes and associations from sponsorship properties (e.g., events) to sponsor brands has been of interest to sponsorship researchers and remains a central field of investigation. Early articles on the subject addressed the basic question of whether an image innately tied to a sponsorship property can spill over to a sponsor brand at all (see e.g., Crimmins and Horn 1996; Stipp and Schiavone 1996; Meenaghan 1983), whereas more recent research efforts aim at finding theoretical underpinnings to explain the transfer mechanism (see e.g., Cornwell 2008; Cornwell et al. 2005; Glogger 1999) and empirically explore intervening constructs like sponsor brand familiarity (see e.g., Carrillat et al. 2005; Lardinoit and Quester 2001), sponsor/event fit (see e.g., Fleck and Quester 2007; Becker-Olsen and Hill 2006; Grohs and Reisinger 2005; Rifon et al. 2004; Gwinner and Eaton 1999), or different types of involvement (see e.g., Grohs et al. 2004; Lardinoit and Derbaix 2001; Meenaghan 2001b). Owing to the crucial contribution of brand image to the widely accepted conceptualization of customer-based brand equity put forth by Keller (1993) and providing for the prominent role the image construct occupies as an objective of sponsorship activities (Cornwell et al. 2001; Meenaghan 2001b; Crimmins and Horn 1996; Marshall and Cook 1992; Meerabeau et al. 1991), the focus of the research endeavor proposed by the thesis at hand is on investigating brand image transfer in sponsorships. As will be outlined next, this study extends on the existing literature at two points. *First*, supplementing a preponderance of research on image transfer effects between sponsor brand and sponsorship property, this investigation also accounts for potential spillover from one sponsor brand to another sponsor brand. Thus, an integrated research model encompassing multiple transfer relationships between sponsor brands and a sponsorship property will be developed. *Second*, brand image is conceptualized from an associative network-based perspective (Geuens et al. 2009; Aaker 1997) in addition to the attitude-based perspective (Glogger 1999, p.49ff.) which has been widely applied in sponsorship research (and, generally, in research on brand image transfer). That is, image transfer will be measured at the level of attitudes as well as in a piecemeal fashion at the level of brand personality traits. In contrast to the attitude-based perspective,

which provides a more general evaluation of a brand (e.g., "bad/good"), the personality-based assessment takes into account a roster of associations (e.g., "down to earth") each of which is characteristic of a brand to a greater or lesser degree. In fact, this study is first to implement the assessment of transfer effects in sponsorship across a holistic brand personality profile.

The vast majority of research on image transfer in sponsorship is focused on the analysis of solo sponsorships. This stands in marked contrast to sponsorship practice where simultaneous presentation of multiple sponsors is the norm (Carrillat et al. 2010, p.109). With the exception of event marketing activities that are usually internally initiated by a company and, evidently, revolve on promoting one single brand only (Nufer 2012, p.26; Drengner 2006, p.24ff.), it is quite common today to find a roster of sponsors (Ruth and Simonin 2006) presented on a single sponsorship property. Take the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) as an illustrative example. Not only is the organization sponsored by six major corporate brands that enjoy the status of FIFA Partners¹, but also does none of these partners occupy a salient position with regard to brand presentation. There is no such thing as a paramount main sponsor. That is, the six sponsors are presented concurrently on an equal sponsorship-hierarchy level. Surprisingly, direct spillover of attitudes and associations between different brands sponsoring the same property has received scant research attention as yet (see Figure 1, p.6 for a selection of conceptual work and empirical studies on image transfer in sponsorship arrangements). To the knowledge of the author, only four articles addressing this issue have been published as yet (i.e., Carrillat et al. 2010; Schnittka et al. 2009; see also Wiedmann and Gross 2013 presenting the main results of the doctoral dissertation at hand and Carrillat and Harris 2002 providing an initial conceptualization on the inter-sponsor transfer process). That is the more notable as the visual representations of the sponsors (e.g., logo, brand name, advertising tag lines) are often much more prominently and vividly displayed in many sponsorship settings compared to the visual representation of the sponsored event or organization. Beyond that, sponsors' brands are often well familiar to the target audience whereas the brand of the sponsored entity might be quite unknown. Emmi and Stimorol are, for example, strong national brands jointly sponsoring many music festivals

¹ As per April 2014 the six FIFA Partners were: Adidas, The Coca-Cola Company, Emirates, Hyundai Kia Automotive Group, Sony Corporation, and Visa (FIFA 2014).

in Switzerland – but have you ever heard of the Open Air Gampel¹? However, it is not that we lack scientific evidence on the question of how one brand imbues another brand when paired. A good body of theoretical and empirical knowledge concerning image transfer in multiple brand conditions has been gathered in other fields of marketing research like brand alliance (e.g., Washburn et al. 2004; Rao et al. 1999; Simonin and Ruth 1998; Park et al. 1996; Rao and Ruekert 1994), co-branding (e.g., Walchli 2007; Washburn et al. 2000; Shocker 1995), advertising alliance (e.g., Samu et al. 1999), or dual branding (e.g., Levin 2002; Levin and Levin 2000). Cornwell and colleagues (2005), hence, call for informing sponsorship research by insights from these research areas and from a practitioner's standpoint note that "companies undertaking non-exclusive sponsorships may also need to consider which other brands will be present at the event, since the presence of controversial products could promote negative attitudes [...] toward related sponsors" (p.36). Likewise, Ruth and Simonin (2003) underscore the importance of investigating image transfer between two brands concurrently sponsoring a single sponsorship property by phrasing an important question that remained unexamined so far as "how the presence of multiple sponsors ultimately affects each participating brand" (p.27, likewise Henseler et al. 2009, p.250; Walliser 2003, p.22; Speed and Thompson 2000, p.237). The research model developed for this study will specifically address this gap in sponsorship literature and aims at embracing sponsorship reality by investigating the question of how a preexisting image associated with one sponsor brand may influence evaluations of another brand sponsoring the same property (see Figure 18, p.155). Furthermore, building on scientific evidence for image spillover from a sponsor brand to the sponsorship property² (Henseler et al. 2009; Becker-Olsen and Hill 2006; Ruth and Simonin 2006; Ruth and Simonin 2003) and extending on empirical studies on image transfer between two sponsors published so far (e.g., Carrillat et al. 2010; Schnittka et al. 2009), an indirect path from one sponsor brand to another sponsor brand, mediated by the sponsorship property's brand image, will be put forth³. Such a research attempt is also encouraged by shortcomings of current sponsorship strategy practice. Bruhn (1994) outlines

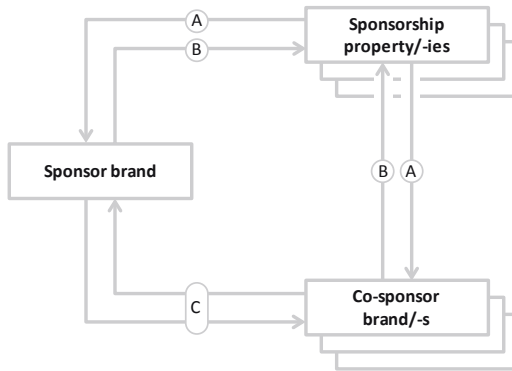
¹ The Swiss dairy company Emmi and the chewing gum brand Stimorol (a Kraft Foods brand) are co-partners of the music festival Open Air Gampel/Switzerland (alongside with a presenting sponsor and other partners) (Open Air Gampel 2012).

² I.e., the opposite path of the transfer process usually considered, which is directed from property to sponsor.

³ An indirect effect is the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable that is mediated by one or multiple other variables (Baron and Kenny 1986).

the process of sponsorship strategy development and postulates image-affinity between brand and property to guide the selection of a particular sponsorship. However, no reference is made as to the aspect of image-affinity between the brand and existing sponsors. Apparently, not only researchers but also practitioners seem to neglect the potential influence of a co-sponsor's image on the image of a sponsor brand¹. Consequently, the *first problem* being addressed in this thesis is that brand managers are left blind with regard to image effects emanating from co-sponsors if their brand is concurrently sponsoring the same property as that ally. Accordantly, these managers are unaware of pertinent levers that might help leveraging wishful spillovers or prevent adverse effects.

¹ This assertion corresponds to the subjective impression the author of this study gained throughout a number of personal discussions with brand managers of diverse industries.



A Image transfer from **sponsorship property/-ies** to **co-/sponsor brand/-s**

- Otker and Hayes (1987)
- McCracken (1989)
- Javalgi et al. (1994)
- Rajaretnam (1994)
- Thwaites (1994)
- d'Astous and Bitz (1995)
- Stipp and Schiavone (1996)
- Crimmins and Horn (1996)
- Gwinner (1997)
- Ferrand and Pagès (1999)
- Gierl und Kirchner (1999)
- Glogger (1999)
- Gwinner and Eaton (1999)
- Pope and Voges (1999)
- Speed and Thompson (2000)
- Meenaghan (2001b)
- Dean (2002)
- Grohs et al. (2004)
- Rifon et al. (2004)
- Smith (2004)
- Chien et al. (2005)
- Cornwell et al. (2005)
- Dalakas and Levin (2005)
- Grohs and Reisinger (2005)
- Carrillat et al. (2005)
- Neijens et al. (2009)
- Chien et al. (2011)
- Zdravkovic and Till (2012)

B Image transfer from **co-/sponsor brand/-s** to **sponsorship property/-ies**

- Ruth and Simonin (2003)
- Becker-Olsen and Hill (2006)
- Ruth and Simonin (2006)
- Henseler et al. (2009)

C Image transfer **between co-/sponsor brand/-s**

- Carrillat and Harris (2002)
- Schnittka et al. (2009)
- Carrillat et al. (2010)
- Wiedmann and Gross (2013)

Figure 1: Overview on conceptual work and empirical studies on image transfer in sponsorship arrangements. Source: Own illustration.

As mentioned above, this study also extends on the existing literature by conceptualizing the image construct from an associative network-based perspective in addition to the purely attitude-related view. While many authors investigating sponsorship effects claim to explore how brand image is conveyed between sponsors and sponsees (in either direction), the studies conducted so far mainly conceptualize the image construct from an attitude-based perspective¹. However, such an approach in part falls short of practical relevance since brand

¹ For exceptions see Chien et al. (2011), Henseler et al. (2009), Coppetti (2004), Gwinner and Eaton (1999).

managers are mainly concerned with creating, refining, or reinforcing a distinct brand personality profile rather than establishing a vague brand attitude. This thesis extends on the plethora of image transfer studies in sponsorship by adopting an associative network-based perspective on brand image and, thus, accounts for effects of a sponsorship engagement on the personality of a brand. As such, the *second problem* addressed by this study is that of positioning a brand through creating, modifying, or reinforcing specific brand associations by means of a sponsorship engagement.

The *aim of the empirical study* as proposed here will be to analyze direct and indirect routes on which the image of a co-sponsor brand, conceptualized from an attitude-based perspective as well as from an associative network-based perspective, might be conveyed to a focal sponsor. Compliant with the notion of "brand alliance" (see e.g., Rao et al. 1999; Simonin and Ruth 1998; Rao and Ruekert 1994), the constituent brands of a sponsorship agreement – namely a focal sponsor, a co-sponsor, and a sponsored property – will be referred to as a "sponsorship alliance"¹ (see also chapter 2.3, p.53ff). Thus, the empirical study presented here will contribute to the present knowledge on image transfer in sponsorship as it examines, in an integrative manner, how the images of brands affiliated in a sponsorship alliance are conveyed between each other – especially between the co-sponsor and the focal sponsor – and as the research effort followed here does not conceptualize brand image from an attitude-based perspective exclusively but also accounts for an associative network-based perspective. From a practitioner's view, brand managers will be empowered by such a study in their attempt to assess potential (beneficial or detrimental) image spillover from co-sponsors when judiciously evaluating and selecting appropriate sponsorship entities, whereas managers of sponsorship properties (e.g., event managers) stand to gain from such insight by being able to leverage an existing sponsorship roster and, respectively, its image potential in the acquisition of new sponsors.

1.2 Research questions

This research was inspired by the author's personal experience as a spectator, participant and member of a number of organizing committees of sports events. For the majority of events

¹ According to Rao and coworkers (Rao et al. 1999; Rao and Ruekert 1994), brand alliances involve the short- and long-term association or combination of two or more brands, products, and/or other proprietary assets. These brands, products, or assets can be represented physically (e.g., by sales bundles) or symbolically (e.g., through advertisement) by the association of brand names, logos, or other brand-related assets.

and for a variety of sponsored properties other than events it is a blatant fact that nowadays the number of sponsors exceeds the amount a regular viewer can possibly elaborate. The result of sponsorship clutter is consumer confusion (Cornwell et al. 2000, p.131f.) and inordinate interference with the image transfer process (Glogger 1999, pp.154 and 203). Opposite to that, in the few cases of well-planned sponsorships with a limited number of prominently displayed sponsors, image transfer between these brands might be more controlled and, thus, should be amenable to scientific measurement and analysis. For such a situation, brand managers should expect an answer to the question of mutual influence of brand images – the more so as they usually have a rather narrow scope of influence with regard to the composition of a sponsorship alliance. For example, the brand manager of Audi should ask if the perception of his or her brand will be altered through the concurrent sponsorship of the FIS Alpine Ski World Cup with the luxury watch manufacturer Longines¹. Building on this, the main research question is formulated as follows:

Main research question *With two brands concurrently sponsoring a single sponsorship property, does the brand image inherently tied to a co-sponsor transfer to the focal sponsor?*

As it has been outlined before (see chapter 1.1, p.1ff.), this study aims at shedding light on the issue of image transference between allied brands from both an attitude-based perspective as well as an associative network-based perspective. These two perspectives are reflected in sub-questions A and B, respectively. Beyond investigating the issue of image transference per se, it is deemed instructive to identify factors that may moderate the image transfer process because such factors will enable sponsorship practitioners to facilitate beneficial effects or to mitigate detrimental transfers. The subject of moderation is covered by sub-question C. Finally, this thesis aspires to offer concrete recommendations for sponsorship practitioners (i.e., for brand managers and sponsorship property managers) in order to comply with the demand for managerially relevant and utilizable scientific research (Lutz 1991, para.7).

¹ The car manufacturer Audi is the title sponsor of the FIS Alpine Ski World Cup and the watch manufacturer Longines is that race series' official timing partner (FIS 2012).

Since sponsorship occupies an ever-increasing share of marketing communications budgets (see chapter 2.2.1, p.21ff.) and as more and more sponsor brands vie for awareness increase and image gain, translating theoretical frameworks and empirical insights into applicable advice is deemed an effort worthwhile. Thus, the following research sub-questions are to be answered:

- Sub-question A** *With two brands concurrently sponsoring a single sponsorship property, does the brand attitude toward a co-sponsor transfer to the focal sponsor?*
- Sub-question B** *With two brands concurrently sponsoring a single sponsorship property, does the brand personality of a co-sponsor spill over to the focal sponsor?*
- Sub-question C** *Can the strength of attitude transfer or the vigor of personality traits' spillover be influenced by moderating factors?*
- Sub-question D** *What must practitioners (brand managers or sponsorship property managers) consider in operative sponsorship execution in order to best possibly benefit from a potential image transfer from a co-sponsor to the focal sponsor?*

It has been mentioned before that there is extensive academic insight into image transfer processes between a single sponsor and a sponsorship property (see Figure 1, p.6). Answering the questions outlined here by means of an integrated research model (i.e., integrating multiple image transfer relationships) will be an initial step into filling the *research gap* that encircles direct and moderated image transfer from a co-sponsor to a focal sponsor. In fact, Ruth and Simonin (2003) contend that "[o]mitted from research inquiry has been the issue of multiple sponsors and their impact on sponsorship advertising [...]" (p.19). Four reasons underscore the *relevance of this research* endeavor. *First*, insights gained through this study will allow the integration of multiple-brand sponsorships into the marketing-mix on a factual rather than on an intuitive ground. Instead of just "hoping for the best", it is of utmost importance for brand management to a priori consider potential image modifications resulting from any marketing activity and, also, to measure the actual effects a posteriori. *Second*, since a sponsorship alliance could be perceived as a communication instrument that may contribute

to creating further bonds among business partners (Cornwell and Maignan 1998, p.18), knowledge on image conveyance is a very sensible issue when these partnerships are going to be leveraged and intensified. *Third*, Meenaghan (2001b; 2001a) claimed that our understanding of sponsorship is insufficient and trails behind our understanding of advertising effects. According to him, this deficiency can be overcome by focusing on characteristics that may set sponsorship apart from advertising. As advertising usually promotes one brand (except from co-advertising), unique opportunities of sponsorship may evolve from investigating mutual effects of multiple brands being cooperatively promoted through a sponsorship alliance. *Fourth*, Walliser (2003, p.20) explains that sponsorship studies relating to the question of image effects are lagging behind research on awareness. Still, the body of knowledge on the conditions that lead to successful and durable image transfer is very limited.

1.3 Scope of research

This thesis focuses on *sponsorship* as one instrument of marketing communications (see Hermanns and Marwitz 2008 for a proposition on the classification of sponsorship within the marketing-mix). Compared to alternative forms of communication, sponsorship has gained relevance in recent years as reflected by increases in total spending (see chapter 2.2.1, p.21ff.) and an elevated share of the total marketing budget (Hermanns 2010, p.42). In contrast to advertising, sponsorship requires a fee paid in advance with the future communicative value remaining undetermined to a certain extent¹. Here, advertising offers a more controllable instrument for communication. Also different from advertising, sponsorship leveraging and activation requires additional spending (on top of rights fees) to obtain the greatest value (Cornwell et al. 2005, p.36). Compensating for such downsides, consumer perception of sponsorship has been shown to be more favorable compared to advertising, with sponsorship being received in a halo of goodwill and advertising being confronted with consumer defense mechanisms (Meenaghan 2001a, p.209ff.).

A second containment is introduced with regard to the number of sponsors as well as to the hierarchical level of sponsors. The thesis at hand accounts for sponsorship reality in that it acknowledges the abundance of co-sponsorships as opposed to solo sponsorships (Carrillat et

¹ Sponsorship does carry an inherent risk by lacking full control over the communication medium. While e.g. content and locations of billboards are strictly controlled in an advertising campaign, public behavior of sponsored celebrities or performance of sponsored sports teams cannot be directed.

al. 2010, p.109). Specifically, this study investigates consumer perception and elaboration of a *sponsorship alliance*. While a co-sponsorship refers to the fact that multiple sponsors occur concurrently through side-by-side signage, a sponsorship alliance as understood here means the promotion of all of the brands being united in a joint engagement (i.e., the sponsor brands and the sponsorship property brand). With more than one sponsor brand appearing on a single property, there usually exists some sort of explicit hierarchy that splits the roster of sponsors into different categories typically coming with distinct communication rights each. Because sponsor hierarchies and forms are very diverse across sponsorships and tend to be subject to constant adaptation and development, providing a consistent structure suitable for inclusion in a research model is impossible¹. Notwithstanding the fact that assessing moderating effects of sponsorship hierarchies on the process of image transfer might be an interesting road worth walking down in future research attempts (see chapter 7.4, p.231ff.), this study will focus on effects between brands on an *equal sponsorship-hierarchy level*.

The third containment refers to the objective pursued by a sponsoring firm. Typically, economic goals are separated from psychological or consumer-oriented goals, the latter of which have been advanced as prevalent (Erdogan and Kitchen 1998; Gardner and Shuman 1987). Within the domain of psychological goals it is the increase of a brand's awareness as well as the build-up, modification, and reinforcement of a brand's image that stand out as the most prominently discussed effects of sponsorship (see chapter 2.2.4, p.41ff. and chapter 2.2.5, p.46ff). The focus here will be on *brand image* as the central outcome variable. On the one hand, it has been proposed that brand image is of paramount importance in creating customer-based brand equity (Esch and Andresen 1994; Keller 1993; Aaker 1991), a concept that has evolved into a matter of prime importance for marketing practitioners and scholars alike (see also the excursus on customer-based brand equity, p.89ff.). On the other hand uniformly high levels of awareness for the investigated brands will be a prerequisite in the research model. Therefore, brand awareness per se seems unsuitable for being introduced into the model as an independent variable. Also, it has been noted that brand image received considerably less attention in sponsorship research compared to brand awareness (Meenaghan 2001b, p.97f.). The work at hand may contribute to eradicating this flaw and will shed further light on the image effects. Finally, from a management perspective, this study adheres to and contributes to the identity-based understanding to brand management (see also chapter 2.1,

¹ See Bruhn (2010, p.20ff.) for an approach to structuring forms of sponsorships from a sponsor's perspective.

p.19ff.) and, consequently, views brand image as the continuous effort to develop *brand attitude* and to fine-tune *brand personality* (Esch 2008, p.79ff.; Kapferer 2008, p.171ff.). Building on these containments, the scope of the research presented here is narrowed down to the transfer of, respectively, brand attitude and brand personality in a sponsorship alliance.

1.4 Research methodology and approach

This piece of work seeks both conceptual development and empirical exploration (Ulrich 1981) of the central issue of image transfer in a sponsorship alliance, building on a sound theoretical foundation. By aspiring for the best possible description of the subject under discussion, addressing potential determinants, identifying basic conditions, and developing central hypotheses, this work follows Popper's (1973, p.213; 1972, p.29) request to search for and find satisfying explanations for everything worth explaining and requiring scientific illumination. With the intention to get deeper, more precise, and more thoroughly tested insights, the researcher builds and tests hypotheses and puts them into relation to one another. That way, theories may develop which are, however, never of final validity but rather of temporary nature. The idea of hypothetical or conjectural knowledge adheres to the philosophy put forth in the epistemological attitude of *critical rationalism*. This scientific philosophy was advanced by Karl Popper (2005/1934; 1973; 1972; see also Albert 2002; Albert 2000; Miller 1994; Albert 1991; Bartley 1984) and holds that theories cannot be verified by means of hypotheses testing, but only falsified through finding evidence opposing the theory. Thus, there is nothing like a final truth or irrevocable knowledge but only transiently accepted theories against which evidence might be found when confronted with reality. In this sense, so-called fallibilism contends that scientific progress builds on the search for imperfections and subsequent improvement of erroneous theories. Larry Briskman has coined the phrase "[l]ook before you leap [emphasis in original]" (as cited in Miller 1994, p.30) in order to express that critical testing should be conducted in lieu of reasoning through proofing. However, the acceptance of critical rationalism in the context of social scientific studies like the one on hand entails some practical problems (Schnell et al. 2008; Homburg 2000 here and below). In contrast to e.g. the natural sciences, relationships between constructs in the social sciences are often prone to context factors out of scope or non-controllable for the researcher. This fact significantly complicates falsification of theories as called for by critical rationalism. Also, critical rationalism does not account for the probabilistic nature of claims (Kieser and Kubicek 1978, p.24f.; Hempel 1977, p.55ff.) and

the imperfectness of measurement instruments (Hunt 1990, p.9) – both of which are, however, widespread phenomena in the social sciences.

Due to the problems arising from practical applications of critical rationalism, the study at hand is oriented towards the concept of *scientific realism* (Leplin 1997, 1984; Hunt 1991a, p.379f., 1990, p.8ff.) which has been proposed to be more suitable in the context of the social sciences (Bunge 1993). In contrast to critical rationalism, scientific realism tolerates positive evaluation of a hypothesis (i.e., a hypothesis can be accepted or supported). Accordingly, scientific realism has been aptly described as "a positive epistemic attitude towards the content of our best theories and models" (Chakravarty 2011, para.1) with scientific realists holding that science aims to produce true descriptions of things in the world (Van Fraassen 1980, p.8). In accordance to this, scientific realism relies on the principle of verification (instead of falsification as adopted for critical rationalism) that concedes that the truth may be approached in incremental steps, or, in other words, that knowledge can be gained step-by-step through gradually increasing confirmation (Carnap 1953, p.48). Moreover, in contrast to critical realism which exclusively allows for deductive argumentation, scientific realism accepts induction as a valid mean of reasoning. As such, scientific realism accounts for the imperfectness of measurement instruments utilized in the context of empirical investigations (Hunt 1990, p.9).

Conforming to some of the central tenets of scientific realism as put forth by Homburg (2000), this thesis follows, first, a positivistic approach in that answering the research questions will be sought after by *empirical testing*. Specifically, hypotheses are tested by means of an experimental setup with primary data being analyzed through methods of multivariate statistics. Second, in order to contribute to the scientific knowledge accumulated on the issue of image transfer in sponsorship, both *deductive and inductive reasoning* will be applied. Furthermore, two main theoretical approaches are going to be introduced for explaining image transfer from an attitude-based perspective and from an associative network-based perspective, respectively. This is important since none of the existing frameworks explaining sponsorship has received sufficient empirical support to emerge as a leading theory (Walliser 2003, p.15; Cornwell 1999). Accordingly, note that, third, the two main theories are not considered as rival alternatives but rather as complementary approaches contributing to the elucidation of image transfer in the sense of a *complementary theoretical pluralism*.

1.5 Structure of thesis

Figure 2 (p.17) gives an overview on the formal structure of chapters and provides an indication concerning the content-related architecture adhered to throughout the thesis. In *chapter one* (p.1ff.), an introduction to the research attempt of elucidating brand image transfer in a sponsorship alliance has been given up to this point. Sponsorship has been identified as an instrument of marketing communications with two basic problems associated to image transfer still unaddressed in academic research (i.e. image transfer between two sponsors, transfer of single brand associations supplementing the purely attitude-based view on image transfer). Both the aim of the study and the main research question to be answered was explicitly pointed out (chapters 1.1 and 1.2). Building on this, the scope of the research at hand has been narrowed down to the transfer of brand attitude and brand personality in a sponsorship alliance (chapter 1.3). From an epistemological perspective, scientific realism (in contrast to critical rationalism) was identified as the attitude most suitable for addressing this type of scientific problem (chapter 1.4).

A thorough review of the existing literature encompassing the relevant¹ areas of brand management, sponsorship and brand image will provide the conceptual and theoretical background for the study in *chapter two* (p.19ff.). Identity-based brand management is introduced as the basic concept to strategic branding accepted for this thesis (chapter 2.1). It will be pointed out that brand image is a construct that represents what customers hold in mind about a brand while brand identity reflects the characteristic traits of a brand as proactively created by marketing managers and as deliberately communicated to the customers. The following chapter then gives an overview on sponsorship as one possible means of communicating brand identity to the relevant target group (chapter 2.2). Both historical roots and contemporary forms of application of this marketing instrument will be described. Subsequently, a claim for the introduction of what will be referred to as the sponsorship alliance is made (chapter 2.3). Specifically, a sponsorship alliance is going to be delineated as a concept that extends on the idea of co-sponsorship by encompassing a sponsorship property brand as well as a focal sponsor brand and a co-sponsor brand in its most parsimonious configuration. Next, this work's understanding of the concept of brand image will be developed (chapter 2.4). Most importantly, the attitude-based perspective on

¹ "Relevant" is understood with regard to the required theoretical background to answer the research questions.

brand image as well as the associative network-based perspective on brand image is carefully described as two distinct views underlying the same construct. This differentiation will be followed throughout the entire thesis and provides the core for separating brand image and, hence, brand image transfer into one conception that lends from social psychology and incorporates a more holistic understanding in the sense of a summary evaluation of an object (attitude) and a view that builds on considerations on information representation in human memory as put forth by cognitive psychologists (associative network). Furthermore, chapter 2.4 includes an excursus on the concept of customer-based brand equity. In accordance with the dyadic view on brand image, congruity theory and associative learning theory, respectively, are presented as the theoretical foundations of image transfer (chapter 2.5). It is important to recognize that the conceptual and theoretical foundations provided in chapter two do not only explain this work's understanding of some of the key constructs and processes in an isolated fashion but that they rather offer important knowledge and insight required for the development of the research framework. In this sense, the literature to be reviewed in chapter two will conduce to providing the theoretical substance immanent to the stimulus-organism-response framework on image transfer in a sponsorship alliance (outlined throughout chapter 3.4 and ultimately culminating in chapter 3.5 and Figure 17).

The conceptual framework on image transfer in a sponsorship alliance will be developed and portrayed in *chapter three* (p.115ff.) with an introductory part pointing out the objectives and guiding principles of such a framework in the context of scientific research (chapter 3.1). Building on the stimulus-organism-response paradigm, key variables under investigation as well as preliminary assumptions regarding the relationships between these variables are going to be pointed out (chapters 3.2 through 3.4). By integration of the theoretical background outlined in chapter two and the conceptual approach developed in chapter three the framework provides, as a terminal outcome, for a graphical illustration of cause-effect relations assumed to represent the interplay between environmental stimuli, organismic processes, and consumer response occurring upon the encounter of a sponsorship alliance (chapter 3.5 and Figure 17).

In *chapter four* (p.139ff.) the theoretical and conceptual body developed to this point will be used to create and propose a research model on image transfer in a sponsorship alliance. It is important to note that the model outlined here will be an integrated representation of image relationships among all of the three brands constituting the most

parsimonious account of a sponsorship alliance (i.e., the focal sponsor, a co-sponsor, and a sponsored property). Notwithstanding this comprehensive approach, the investigation of one specific path of image transfer, namely the path representing reciprocation of the two sponsors' brand images, will be paramount. A total of nine sets of main effect hypotheses and moderating effect hypotheses will be worked out by taking into account theoretical notions and empirical insights from sponsorship investigation and adjacent veins of research on image transfer (chapters 4.1 through 4.5).

As this study is committed to provide guidelines for practitioners on how to set up new and evaluate existing sponsorships in light of potential image transfer between concurrent sponsors (in addition to the aspired academic advancement), it is important to set up the empirical research with a view to the generalization of results. An appropriate research design and methodology is presented in *chapter five* (p.157ff.). Specifically, it will be described how the fictitious sponsorship alliance that provides for the experimental intervention was conceived (chapter 5.1), what type of experimental design and sampling procedure contributed to the gathering of the dataset used for hypotheses testing later (chapters 5.2 and 5.3), and to what degree the utilized scales comply with requirements of the applied statistical procedures in terms of reliability and unidimensionality (chapter 5.4).

In *chapter six* (p.177ff.), after an initial part that is dedicated to checking for the success of experimental manipulations (chapter 6.1), the results of testing the nine sets of hypotheses by application of t-tests, analyses of covariance and structural regression modeling as well as path modeling (two distinct procedures from the structural equation modeling family) are presented (chapters 6.2 through 6.9). Subsequent to statistical testing of each single hypothesis, a discussion will be provided which exemplifies the meaning of the finding and draws relationships to other hypotheses or to results of congenial research where reasonable. A summary of empirical findings is given at the end of chapter six (chapter 6.10).

Chapter seven (p.221ff.) is the concluding chapter. Here, the key insights are condensed and the research questions brought up in chapter 1.2 will be answered based on the results of the empirical study (chapter 7.1). Furthermore, implications and guidelines for practitioners are deducted (chapter 7.2) and the contributions of this work to current research on image transfer in sponsorship will be critically appraised (chapter 7.3). It will also be important to point out the limitations of this research and, accordingly, to give some informed idea on future research (chapter 7.4).

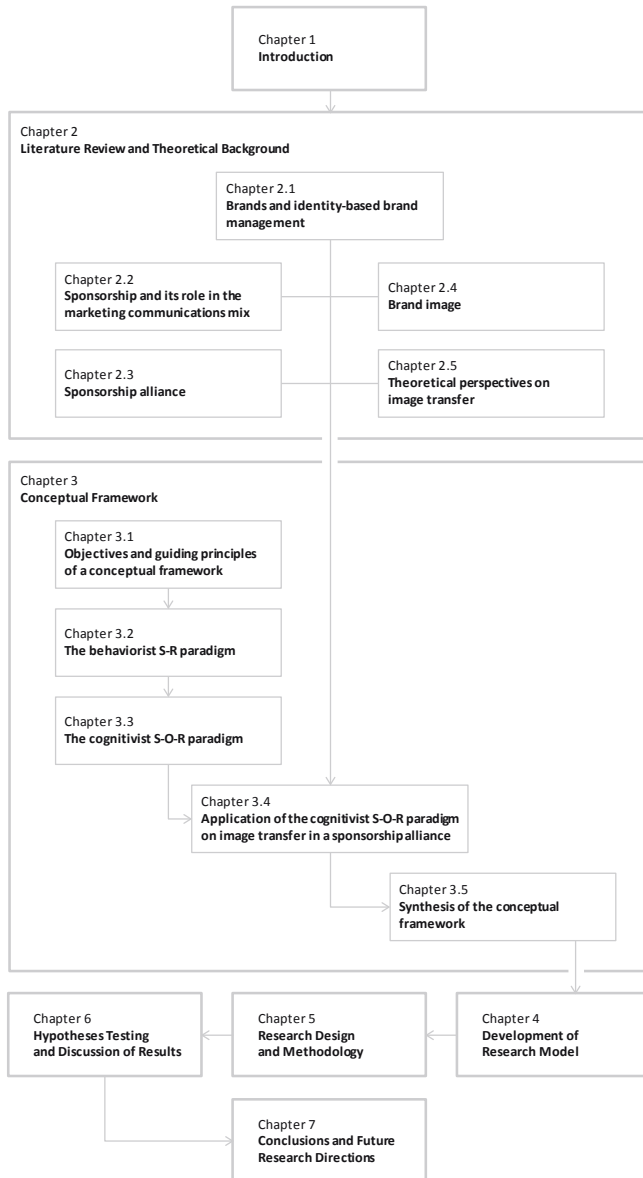


Figure 2: Formal structure of book chapters and architecture of content. Source: Own illustration.

2 Literature Review and Theoretical Background

2.1 Brands and identity-based brand management

Brands have a long history in identifying the provenance of a product (e.g., a specific manufacturer or region) and in differentiating one market offering from another. For example, brick-makers in ancient Egypt used to emboss their bricks using unique symbols and members of trade guilds in medieval Europe utilized "trademarks" on their products as a sign of quality for the customers and to claim legal protection of exclusive production rights for specified regional markets. The notion of "brand/-ing" emerged in the 16th century and is said to originate in Whiskey distillers' habit to burn – or brand – the name of the producer onto each barrel in order to identify the producer and to prevent substitution with cheaper products (Farquhar 1990, p.RC-7; see also Esch and Langner 2005, p.575). Also, farmers in the "Wild West" used (and still use) to mark their cattle by branding the sign of the owner into the animals' fur (Keller 2008, p.2). Branding of products or services as we know it today evolved at the beginning of the 20th century as a result of mass production in the course of industrial development. Consumer goods manufacturers strived to regain control over product sales from retailers (Biel 1993, p.69) and they also aimed to move beyond selling commodities towards marketing branded products (Aaker 1991, p.8). Meanwhile, the branding concept is covering societal fields across commercial and non-commercial interaction such as online products and services, peoples and organizations, sports and arts, tourist destinations, or ideas (Keller 2008, p.10ff.).

As early as 1939 Domizlaff (1939) proposed that branding techniques should yield the development of a trustful relationship between the consumer and the product (see also Domizlaff 2005). This farsighted view embraces both an instrumental as well as a perceptual understanding of brand management (Drengner 2006, p.43f.; Esch et al. 2005, p.9f.). While the former standpoint has been adopted for early applications of brand management and focused on the technicalities of the brand leadership process from an owner's perspective (like the appropriate utilization of advertising), the latter position is concerned with building, modifying, and reinforcing brand attitudes and brand associations in the mind of consumers. Identity-based brand management is an advancement of the exclusively image-based perspective in that it accounts for the internal perspective of an organization (e.g., a firm) as the brand possessor and creator in addition to the external perspective of the customers

holding an image of a brand in their minds. In other words, the identity-based approach to brand management takes into account the brand as projected by internal stakeholders (e.g., brand managers) referred to as the brand identity, as well as the brand as perceived by external stakeholders (e.g., customers, suppliers) referred to as the brand image (De Chernatony 2006; De Chernatony and Harris 2000).

This two-dimensional approach to brand management (Burmam et al. 2009) has been developed by different scholars the most prominent of which are Kapferer (1992; 1991), Aaker (1996) as well as Meffert and Burmann (1996). Brand identity reflects the characteristic traits of a brand as understood and proactively created by internal staff and management of a company. It is therefore considered a form of group identity, which is expressed through shared values, aims, behavior, and the organization's ethos (Burmam and Blinda 2006, p.6ff.; Van Riel and Balmer 1997). Building on such a common understanding of what the brand does and does not represent, the identity approach takes the role of a brand leadership concept that guides corporate actions toward a coherent brand that ultimately is understood by external stakeholders (De Chernatony and Harris 2000). Meffert and Burmann (1996, p.31) define brand identity as a consistent and cohesive entity of brand features which form a brand's character and contribute to sustainable differentiation of the brand from other brands. The process of communicating the essence of a brand's identity – that is, the brand promise – to the target group/s and, along this line, pointing out facets that differentiate a brand from competing offers is called brand positioning. The brand promise sets the expectation of customers with regard to brand performance and benefit. Brand behavior at all touch-points must keep up to these expectations in order to attain customer satisfaction (Dunn and Davis 2003; De Chernatony and Harris 2000) and build a stable brand/customer-relationship (Burmam et al. 2006, p.483).

While brand identity represents the sender's dimension of such an integrated approach to brand management, brand image as hold in mind by the customers represents the receiver's dimension (Kapferer 2012, p.152). Influencing a brand's image is one of the central objectives of sponsorship and, thus, the brand image construct will be introduced as the outcome variable of interest in this study (see chapter 3.4, p.120ff. and chapter 4, p.139ff.). Providing for this eminent role in regard to the thesis at hand, the brand image construct will be outlined in some more detail in a dedicated chapter (see chapter 2.4, p.56ff.). But first, the role of sponsorship in the marketing communications mix will be discussed and the

instrument's ability to transcend brand identity and conjure up brand image in the sense of the identity-based brand management approach is going to be highlighted (see chapters 2.2, p.21ff. and 2.3, p.53ff.).

2.2 Sponsorship and its role in the marketing communications mix

Even though sponsorship has gained acceptance as an instrument of the marketing communications mix during the past years, it is still a relatively new medium. The increasing degree of sophistication in sponsorship strategy and execution has contributed to the development from a form of management ego trip driven by intuition and individual enthusiasm (Crimmins and Horn 1996) to a professionally applied instrument of brand management. The present chapter provides an overview on the instrument's historical development (2.2.1), on its current understanding (2.2.2), and on different forms (2.2.3) and objectives sought after (2.2.4). An essential issue that is outlined towards the end of this chapter is the integration of sponsorship into the marketing communications mix (2.2.5).

2.2.1 History and development

The origin of sponsorship cannot be identified unambiguously because the habit of supporting an organization or a person was known in ancient Greek, in the Roman Empire, and most probably in other regions and/or epochs too. In general, it is purported that wealthy individuals at that time took pleasure in supporting athletic and arts festivals or gladiators in order to enhance their social standing (Cornwell 1995; Sandler and Shani 1993).

Notwithstanding the irrelevancy of accurately dating the genesis of sponsorship, many authors credit the roots of the instrument as we know it today to Gaius Clinius Maecenas who lived in Rome at about 70 BC as an intimate and advisor to Caesar Augustus (see e.g., Coppetti 2004, p.9; Bruhn 2003, p.3). Maecenas used his personal affluence as well as his political and social power to support young poets like Horace or Virgil. His name has become an epitome for a generous and selfless patron of the arts and the notion of "Mäzenatentum" (German for patronage) today means the advancement and support of cultural and communal means by single persons or organizations out of purely altruistic motives (Bruhn 2003, p.4). However, in accordance with a dictum put forth by Samuel Johnson contending that to "act from pure benevolence is not possible for finite beings. Human benevolence is mingled with vanity, interest or some other motive" (quoted after Meenaghan 1983, p.17), Maecenas did in fact receive some reward in return for his generosity. In the interest of the state, he expected

that the poems written by his protégés would have the power to reconcile men's minds to the order of the Roman Empire and that these works would eventually help associating the state with glory and majesty. Also, some of the supported artists' masterpieces auspiciously alluded to both Maecenas and Augustus (Coppetti 2004, p.9). In effect, the mechanism of receiving favorable communicative reference in exchange for monetary or in-kind support as deployed by Maecenas some two-thousand years ago strongly resembles prior (Meenaghan 1983, p.9) and contemporary understanding of commercial sponsorship (see Table 1, p.31f.).

Albeit some form of promotion of different societal causes did obviously exist since quite some time, formation and distinction of a broader variety of sponsorship types (e.g., sports, culture, social causes, science) as well as the professional management of sponsorships as we understand it today has yet emerged only since the early 1970s (Ahlert et al. 2007, p.5). The commercial development of the Olympic Games may be illustrative in exerting the evolution of sponsorship from the beginning of the 20th century until today since it has a long tradition of utilizing a heavily publicized event for the communicative benefit of associated firms. Association of firms and brands with the event started at the Games' very first holding of the modern era in Athens 1896. George Averoff paid generously for the refurbishment of the stadium in preparation for the event and some companies provided financial support by advertising in the event's souvenir program (e.g., Kodak – one of the first sponsors of the Olympic Movement). Even though the donation of monetary or in-kind assistance may have arisen from some laudable desire to support a fine cause, commercial objectives were an undeniable facet of the motivation pattern too. For the 1928 Games in Amsterdam Coca-Cola was acquired as a partner and the brand began the longest continuous Olympic sponsor relationship at that point of time (Coca-Cola is still a current member of The Olympic Partners – TOP – program). As the commercialization of the Games started to become rampant with the entry of brands like Coca-Cola into the roster of sponsors, it happened at the same year that the IOC stipulated posters and billboards to not be on display on stadium grounds and buildings. Surprisingly, it is this more restrictive than encouraging decision that down to the present day contributes a fair share to the high value of the Olympic Games as a sponsorship property because it provides for the very exclusive nature of this particular event and allows for maintaining a commercial-free look (Coppetti 2004, p.10). For the 1952 Games in Helsinki an international marketing program was launched for the first time with the first sponsorship contracts issued (IOC 2012 here and below). It was not until

about this time that Olympic sponsorship latched onto the professional conduct that would lead up to the unprecedented high standard of sponsorship management complied with today. From that point on, the number of partners and licensees skyrocketed peaking at 628 sponsors and suppliers for the 1976 Games in Montreal. In a reaction to this proliferation the IOC adopted a policy that restricted the number of sponsors and bundled worldwide marketing rights for both Winter Games and Summer Games. For example, the sponsor portfolio for the 2010 Winter Olympic Games in Vancouver was restricted to the 9 TOP program partners, 16 national partners and official supporters, and 41 official and media suppliers (24 broadcast partners not included) (IOC 2010). Nevertheless, the revenue generated from sponsorship (TOP program and domestic sponsorship) and licensing has grown to a total of USD 2.61 bn for the four-year period of 2005-2008 (nearly threefold the revenue generated for the 1993-1996 period; data on period 2009-2012 not yet available at the time of writing). Apparently, the IOC succeeded in limiting the number of sponsors in an attempt to both provide more exclusive communicative opportunities to each sponsor and to reduce sponsorship clutter as perceived by spectators, while still increasing income. In this sense, the history of Olympic sponsorship may serve as an example that exhibits the evolution of sponsorship from its rather patronage-like beginnings to professionalized commercial sponsorship via ages of communicative excess and episodes of over-regulation. In an attempt to structure and describe the development of recent sponsorship history, Bruhn (2008) differentiates and portrays seven phases that cover a period starting from the 1960s and leading up to the beginning of the 21st century. Below, these phases will be presented succinctly (according to Bruhn 2008, p.25ff.):

Phase of surreptitious advertising (1960s)

At the dawn of sponsorship, communicative activities in the context of events that aimed at establishing some sort of perceptual connection between an advertised brand and an event have largely been conducted without official permission by hosts or organizers. Mostly, this form of advertising was applied on-site with sports events and through the media via sports broadcasting. The recipients did not necessarily recognize the purpose of the communicative content. Presenting brands and advertising messages without formally disclosing a communicative intent is prevailing today in the form of product placement. Furthermore, today's ambush marketing (also called parasitic marketing) is characterized by its unauthorized status, where brands that are not contractually linked to a sponsorship property

still try to affiliate with an event, organization, or person (Shani and Sandler 1998; Sandler and Shani 1989). These links are typically established by using generic phrases associated with the property, advertising during an event broadcast, or the use of consumer promotion activities in the context of a property (e.g., product sampling around the event venue, publicizing congratulatory messages to an athlete) (McKelvey and Grady 2008, p.555ff.).

Phase of sports advertising (1970s)

The transition to "authorized" forms of sponsorship is attributed to the first occurrences of jersey advertising in European soccer. Specifically, in 1973 the soccer team of Eintracht Braunschweig changed their club emblem from a lion to the roaring deer-logo of liqueur producer Jägermeister in exchange for an annual payment of 100'000 Deutsche marks. That way, Jägermeister legally promoted their company logo during a time when jersey advertising was still banned officially (Jötten 2011).

Phase of sports sponsorship dominance (1980s)

During this period professional sponsorship strategies and procedures were developed and companies started planning and managing their engagements in a systematic manner. Particularly the ever-expanding sports sponsorship activities were occasionally integrated into the marketing communications mix. Apparently, sports sponsorship dominance cannot be considered a phase that began and ended in the 1980s as insinuated by the title of this section, but it is rather a discipline of sponsorship that has become to dominate the entire instrument as per today (IEG 2011; Bruhn 2010, p.80).

Phase of extension to new target groups (early 1990s)

During the early 1990s, companies began to address new target groups outside the sports sponsorship field. Culture and arts sponsorship, social sponsorship, and environmental sponsorship gained relevance during this period. These sponsorship forms have long been recognized as patronage rather than sponsorship because motives of donors were perceived as altruistic and have rarely been linked to any commercial intent in the beginning. Nowadays, professional commitments in these fields are clearly following measurable communication objectives too.

Phase of program- and media sponsorship (mid 1990s)

In the mid 1990s companies started engaging in sponsorship of radio- and television programs. With the emergence of new media, especially the internet, this form of sponsorship has been widened to encompass all types of media. The wide reach of some of these

platforms allows for communicating to a large audience which is mainly used to gain brand awareness. Whether or not program- and media sponsorship is a discrete form of sponsorship is an issue heavily debated among researchers and practitioners (see chapter 2.2.3, section Sponsorship field, p.36f.).

Phase of integrated communication (mid 1990s)

In line with advancing professionalism in sponsorship strategy development and execution, companies have been searching for new possibilities to support their engagements through integration into the broader context of their marketing communications activities. It is well known today that one of the keys to reach desired consumer reaction to sponsorship is exploitation through collateral advertising or leverage (Cornwell et al. 2005, p.36; Otker 1988). Through additional expenditures on sponsorship promotion, brand managers must make sure that the sponsorship message transcends to their target audience and they have to detain consumers from incorrectly identifying a competitor as an event sponsor (Johar et al. 2006; Pham and Johar 2001; Johar and Pham 1999). For example, a longitudinal study conducted by Hermanns (2010) indicates that 56% of sponsors integrate their activities with classical advertising and 32% link-up their sponsorship to sales promotions¹. A recent study (see IEG and Performance Research 2011) estimates that the "leverage spending per rights"-ratio was 1.6/1 in 2011.

Phase of value creation (late 1990s)

Finally, performance measurement in the sense of a "Return on Sponsorship Investment" has emerged in the late 1990s in order to satisfy widespread shareholder value attitude. The core of this discussion has been and still is the potential value creation through different types of sponsorship and the value creation of sponsorship compared to other instruments of the marketing communications mix. The significance of a measurable return on sponsorship investment is reflected by the high share of companies actively assessing this kind of performance indicator or some related statistic. In a recent survey, 67% of companies' decision-makers indicated to measure sponsorship returns and 50% of them declared that return on sponsorship investment has increased over the past few years² (IEG and

¹ For an extensive overview on the extent and the different forms of sponsorship integration see Hermanns (2010, p.45).

² 27% of respondents indicated no perceived change in sponsorship return on investment, 6% declared they perceived a decrease, and 18% said they do not know (IEG and Performance Research 2011).

Performance Research 2011). Generally, the importance of putting in place appropriate performance indicators as well as developing measurement approaches will remain high as the increasing levels of sponsorship spending bring into focus their capacity in providing a satisfactory return on investment (Clark et al. 2009, p.170) and especially as the relationship between sponsorship agreements and shareholder value is still unclear (Deitz et al. 2013).

With regard to the future development of sponsorship it can undoubtedly be expected that we will see further proliferation of the instrument with regard to content and forms. The International Events Group (IEG 2012c), a globally active provider of sponsorship consulting and commercial research services, contends that sponsorship is the fastest-growing marketing medium and its importance in marketing strategy deployment is on constant increase (Cunningham et al. 2009, p.65). Today, anything and anybody can be sponsored: from buildings to lifestyles and from causes to research (Klein 2000). Even the classic delineation into sponsor brands owned and marketed by commercial organizations versus properties like events or teams acting as the beneficiaries of a sponsorship might become blurred. The example of Chelsea Football Club linking up with the Sauber Formula One racing team might serve as an illustrative example of such dilution (Chelsea FC 2012). In this recent case Chelsea FC, being a recipient of sponsorship fees as one might expect, acts as a sponsor to the F1 team as if it were a firm aiming at promoting its corporate brand. But a corporate brand is most probably what the management team of Chelsea FC perceives its club to be. The goals that might be pursued by the football club by means of this partnership are the typical goals of a commercial sponsor: reaching a worldwide audience to enhance brand awareness and building brand image through transfer of associations such as excitement, passion for performance, or unique heritage. Thus, with progressing universality of branding, that is, in times in which everything can be branded (Keller 2008, p.10ff.) the "typical sponsor" and the "typical sponsee" might not exist anymore. It is also to be expected that sponsors will make new sponsorship fields available for their purposes due to saturation in established areas. This tendency is most evident in the emergence of action sports as a sponsorship field being in vogue recently (Bennett et al. 2003; Bennett et al. 2002). Beyond the development of new sponsorship content and forms, technological progress (e.g., smartphones) and increasing levels of out-of-home leisure activities will presumably fuel the expansion of sponsorship (Cornwell 2008, p.42).

The positive outlook on the progress of sponsorship in terms of content, forms, and technological support is substantiated by strong volume growth in the past and encouraging projections for the future. That is, after the market contraction experienced in 2009 (a mere 2.1% increase over 2008), researchers are convinced that global sponsorship spending will carry on its positive track record. Specifically, the growth rates for the years after 2009 have all been in the 5%-region with the projected growth rate for the year 2012 (over 2011) set at 4.9% (IEG 2012a; IEG 2011; IEG 2010; IEG 2000 here and below). This is in line with the strong growth rates experienced over the past several years. During the ten-year period from 1996 to 2006 global expenditures for sponsorship rights fees increased from USD 13.4 bn to USD 33.7 bn – equalling a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of +9.7% – while from 2006 to 2012 sponsorship spending will increase further to a projected value of USD 51.0 bn. It has been suggested that the recent retardation in sponsorship growth – the CAGR for the 2006 to 2012 period equals +7.0% – is related to the world economic crisis that may slow down marketing spending in general. An overview on the development of global spending on sponsorship rights fees and the CAGR's given above is presented in Figure 3. Remember that these numbers exclusively represent the sponsorship fees and do not include any outlays on sponsorship leverage or activation required to communicatively exploit the acquired rights.

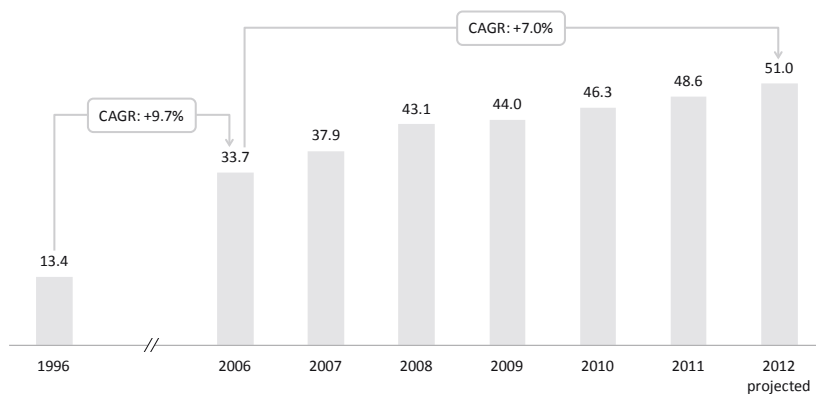


Figure 3: Total global sponsorship spending 1996 – 2012 projected [USD bn]. Source: International Events Group (IEG 2012a; IEG 2011; IEG 2010; IEG 2000).

A breakdown by world regions shows that behind North America – by far the largest sponsorship market – Europe will remain the second-largest source of sponsorship spending according to projections for 2012. Above average growth rates for 2012 (over 2011) are foreseen for the Asia Pacific region (+6.3%), where especially China and India are considered vibrant marketplaces for sponsorship, and for Central and South America, where the upcoming FIFA World Cup and Olympic Games in Brazil in 2014 and 2016, respectively, are regarded as two events spurring sponsorship spending in the entire region. A view on the regional breakdown as projected for the year 2012 including the anticipated growth rates over 2011 is provided in Figure 4.

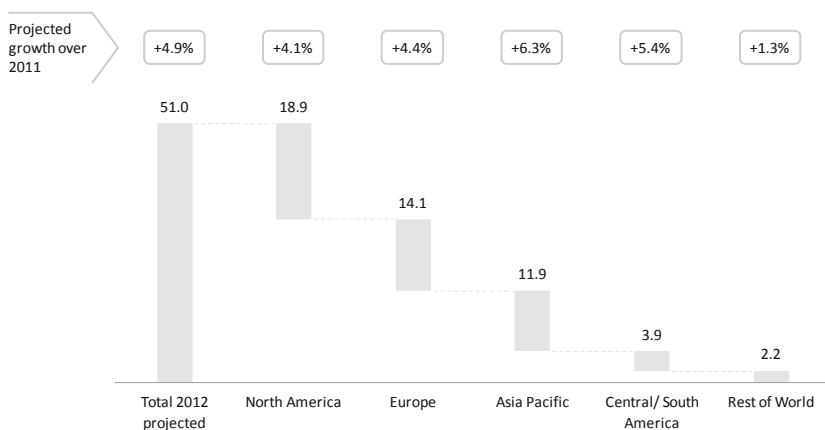


Figure 4: Regional breakdown of projected total global sponsorship spending 2012 [USD bn]. Source: International Events Group (IEG 2012a).

Comparable to what has been the case in many years over the past two decades (Cornwell 2008, p.41), sponsorship's growth rate will likely stay ahead of the pace experienced by advertising and sales promotion in 2012. While the numbers to substantiate this development are available for the US market only, assuming the general picture for other major sponsorship markets to be of a similar nature seems a tenable position. The general trend of sponsorship spending growth to exceed the growth rates seen for advertising and other communication instruments is supported by various studies (see e.g., Hermanns 2010, p.12; Cornwell 2008, p.41f.).

While advertising, sales promotion, and sponsorship all dropped in 2009, sponsorship has experienced the most dynamic recovery since. However, as sponsorship spending did not

accelerate quite as fast as predicted in earlier reports and, instead, advertising investments (and also investments into sales promotion) did expand more than foreseen, sponsorship is currently projected to grow at only a slightly higher rate than advertising in 2012. It will be most interesting to see whether or not new types of sponsorship content and forms or innovative technological solutions will back the strong development of sponsorship further or if other instruments of the marketing communications mix will be able to recapture some lost terrain. Whatever the future development exactly is going to look like, it appears to be clear that sponsorship will maintain a fair share of total marketing spending and that advertising might not have to be declared dead soon due to the advent of less traditional communications instruments (a prognosis that should come true until the middle of the 21st century according to a 1994 comment by Rust and Oliver). A comparative view on the year-over-year growth rates of advertising, sales promotion, and sponsorship is given in Figure 5.

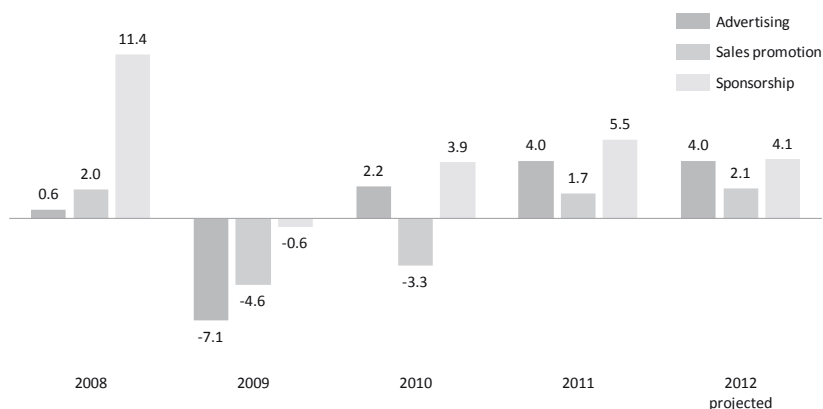


Figure 5: Year-over-year growth rates of advertising, sales promotion, and sponsorship [%; North American market only]. Source: International Events Group (IEG 2012a; IEG 2011).

The lion's share of sponsorship spending is assigned to sports sponsorship reflecting the general commercial weight of this area as well as the high popularity of leisure activities in the sports field. Depending on the study one refers to, the portion of total sponsorship spending assigned to sports sponsorship ranges from 45% (Hermanns 2010, p.43) to 69% (IEG 2012a, para.13). This spread might be attributable to actual disparities in spending behavior of sponsorship managers in different regional markets (i.e., the 45% refer to the German market while the 69% are an estimated value for the North American market),

differences in measurement approaches (i.e., the 45% are based on a qualitative survey while the 69% build on a quantitative inquiry), or unequal classification of sponsorship types (i.e., spending on advertisements during the television broadcast of a sports event may be considered sports sponsorship or, alternatively, falls into the separate program- and media sponsorship category). Whatever the reason for differences in numbers, it is very clear that sport sponsorship spending occupies the largest piece of the sponsorship cake. Furthermore, it seems that brand managers remember the virtues of more traditional and well-explored sponsorship activities during economic downturns. For example, after sponsorship of the causes has seen strong proliferation in recent years (e.g., a 6.7% increase in 2010 over 2009 – reflecting the strongest growth rate of all property types accounted for), projections for 2012 see sports and entertainment sponsorship on a tear while the rise in supporting the causes might face some set back (a 3.1% increase is projected for 2012 over 2011 – reflecting a growth rate that trails behind the corresponding rates of sports and entertainment sponsorship) (IEG 2012a; IEG 2011).

As a concluding remark on the history and development of sponsorship it can be said that while patronage-like behavior may date back to the ancient Greek culture and the Roman Empire, the instrument of sponsorship has still only become a professionally applied element of the marketing communications mix in the 1980s. As such, sponsorship can be considered a very recent type of activity in the marketing arsenal. However, as (almost) no boundaries seem to exist as to the creative design and application of commercial sponsorship, the instrument will stretch to new domains of human social interaction and it will continue to gain volume in the foreseeable future.

2.2.2 Definitions and current understanding

In accordance with the constant but not strictly orchestrated development of sponsorship during the past decades as illustrated in the previous chapter, some ambiguity among researchers and practitioners with regard to definition and current understanding has come to the fore along the way. For the purpose of the work at hand, a new definition must be added to the plethora of existing definitions because the multi-brand relationship covered by a sponsorship alliance (see chapter 2.3, p.53ff.) outreaches the scope of existing definitions that bear upon the bilateral relationship between a sponsor and a sponsored property. Beyond providing a definition, the general understanding of sponsorship as cultivated throughout this

thesis will also be exposed by discriminating sponsorship from other forms of corporate or private benefitting like patronage or charitable donation.

In order to set the stage for the development of a definition that applies to the context of a sponsorship alliance, an overview on some of the prevailing definitions, past and current, is going to be given next. The overview reveals that provision for some of the earliest descriptions and characterizations has been mainly relinquished to practitioners. That is, as the instrument began to evolve into commercial attempt and professional aspiration, the stakeholders of daily-business-sponsorship have been in need for a terminology that provided a common code for their activities (Coppetti 2004, p.19). Later, when interest of the scientific community began to grow, definitions satisfying epistemological requirements (see e.g. Schnell et al. 2008, p.50ff.) have been added to the roster. Some of the most widely cited contemporary definitions of scientific nature and use are those provided by Meenaghan (1991a, p.36; 1983, p.9) for the English literature and Bruhn (1986, p.3) for the German literature.

Year	Author/s	Definition	Source
1971	Sports Council of the UK	"Sponsorship is a gift or payment in return for some facility or privilege which aims to provide publicity for the donor."	Meenaghan (1983, p.8)
1972	Acumen Marketing Group	"The provision of financial or material support for some independent activity which is not intrinsic to the furtherance of commercial aims, but from which the supporting company might reasonably expect to gain commercial benefit."	Meenaghan (1983, p.8)
1974	Royal Philharmonic Orchestra	"Sponsorship is the donation or loan of resources (people, money, materials, etc.) by private individuals or organisations to other individuals or organisations engaged in the provision of those public goods and services designed to improve the quality of life."	Meenaghan (1983, p.8)
1979	Nigel Waite	"(1) A commercial organisation (sponsor) provides resources for the benefit of a leisure activity (sponsored). (2) The sponsor does so with the expectation of gaining some commercially valuable benefit. [...] (3) The sponsored activity consents to the sponsor company using a facility it has to offer in exchange for the resources it accordingly receives."	Waite (1979, p.10)

1980	Jean Simkins	<p>"(1) A sponsor makes a contribution in cash or in kind – which may or may not include services and expertise – to an activity which is in some measure a leisure pursuit, either sport or within the broad definition of the Arts.</p> <p>(2) The sponsored activity does not form part of the main commercial function of the sponsoring body (otherwise it becomes straightforward promotion, rather than sponsorship).</p> <p>(3) The sponsor expects a return in terms of publicity."</p>	Meenaghan (1983, p.9)
1982	International Events Group	"A cash and/or in-kind fee paid to a property (typically a sports, entertainment, non-profit event or organization) in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with that property."	Ukman (2004, p.154); IEG (2012b, para.58)
1983	John A. Meenaghan ¹	"[S]ponsorship can be regarded as the provision of assistance either financial or in kind to an activity by a commercial organisation for the purpose of achieving commercial objectives."	Meenaghan (1983, p.9)
1986	Manfred Bruhn	"Planning, organization, execution and controlling of all activities that relate to the provision of means by companies for persons and institutions from the fields of sports or culture and the social sector to attain entrepreneurial marketing and communication goals." (translated by the author)	Bruhn (1986, p.3)
1987	Meryl P. Gardner and Philip J. Shuman	"Sponsorships can be defined as investments in causes or events to support corporate objectives (e.g., enhance company image) or marketing objectives (e.g., increase brand awareness), and are usually not made through traditional media-buying channels."	Gardner and Shuman (1987, p.11)
1988	Ton Otker	"Commercial sponsorship is (1) buying and (2) exploiting an association with an event, a team, a group, etc., for specific marketing (communications) purposes."	Otker (1988, p.77)
1989	Dennis M. Sandler and David Shani	"The provision of resources (e.g., money, people, equipment) by an organization directly to an event or activity in exchange for a direct association to the event or activity. The providing organization can then use this direct association to achieve either their corporate, marketing, or media objectives."	Sandler and Shani (1989, p.10)

¹ Tony Meenaghan published his seminal paper on commercial sponsorship under his full name of John Anthony Meenaghan in 1983 (see Meenaghan 1983). His subsequent work has been released under the name of Tony Meenaghan.

1991	Tony Meenaghan	"Sponsorship is an investment, in cash or kind, in an activity, in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with that activity."	Meenaghan (1991a, p.36)
1995	T. Bettina Cornwell	"[T]he orchestration and implementation of marketing activities for the purpose of building and communicating an association (link) to a sponsorship." (definition of sponsorship-linked marketing rather than sponsorship per se)	Cornwell (1995, p.15)

Table 1: Overview on sponsorship definitions.

There seems to be a minimum level of agreement on the fact that sponsorship entails an exchange between a sponsor and a sponsorship property and with regard to the objective of a communicative reward. However, the two basic differentiating characteristics of these definitions are the breadth and exact type of the means to be provided by a sponsor on the one hand, and the specific form of expected returns for a sponsor on the other hand (Woisetschläger 2006, p.24). Breadth and type of means provided by a sponsor ranges from purely monetary compensation to the provision of financial-, in-kind-, service-, and know-how resources. The form of expected returns – that is, the objectives pursued by the sponsors – spreads from enhancing awareness for the brand to reaching economic goals to attaining general corporate objectives.

The sponsorship definition applied for this thesis builds and extends on the definition provided by Lesa Ukman, co-founder of the International Events Group, as part of the first IEG Sponsorship Report published in 1982 (IEG 2012b, para.58; Ukman 2004, p.154). With regard to complementing the potential provisions of the sponsor one extension to Ukman's definition is undertaken by adding "service" as a resource potentially supplied to the property by a sponsor. For example, a telecommunications service provider might satisfy (a part of) the obligation it has towards a property by offering "voice over IP"-technology for members of the organizing body of an event. Another extension to the sponsorship definition as suggested by Ukman is attributed to the object of exploitable commercial potential. Commercial potential or commercial benefit is implemented into some of the definitions (see e.g., Meenaghan 1991a; Otter 1988; Meenaghan 1983; IEG 1982; Waite 1979; Acumen Marketing Group 1972) as the conceivable goal to be attained by sponsors from a business-oriented as opposed to from an altruistic-oriented engagement. Now, as all of the definitions offered so far exclusively relate to the bilateral relationship between a sponsor and a sponsored property the exploitable commercial potential is constrained to what the sponsor

can bring out from the property. In contrast to this view, the alliance perspective of the thesis at hand implies that a sponsor might also gain from brand attitude and personality traits innately tied to a co-sponsor. In effect, the sponsorship alliance rather than just the sponsorship property is introduced as the entity from which a sponsor might gain communicative reward. However, it is important to understand that the exploitable commercial potential to be obtained from a co-sponsor does not include utilization of the co-sponsor's brand name, logo, claim, or other brand related entities, since (usually) there is no contractual agreement to do so between brands concurrently sponsoring a property – the legal affiliation is still restricted to the relationship between the property and one brand at a time. Yet, as the co-sponsor's brand image in part might transcend to the focal sponsor, there is commercial potential residing within the co-sponsor to be tapped by the focal sponsor. Thus, building on the International Events Group's 1982 definition extended by "service" as an additional resource that might be provided to the property and fortified by the entire sponsorship alliance serving as the object to potentially gain commercial benefit from, the definition of sponsorship as applied for this study reads as follows:

Sponsorship is a business-oriented relationship between a sponsor and a sponsorship property that implies a cash settlement, an in-kind fee and/or a service provided by the sponsor to the property in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with the sponsorship alliance.

Apparently, there is a commercial distortion in this definition in the sense that the sponsorship property is appointed as the only beneficiary of cash-, in-kind-, or service-provisions, while the entire sponsorship alliance (that is, including the co-sponsors) is designated to be the provider of communicative benefit. This is done so deliberately. It points to the opportunity at a property manager's disposal to materialize on an attractive sponsorship roster (given an image transfer from one sponsor to another). In other words and as described in more detail in the concluding remarks on implications for property managers (see chapter 7.2.2, p.228f.), the management of e.g. an event might increase the cash-, in-kind-, or service-contributions of sponsors by selling the exploitable commercial potential of the entire sponsorship alliance instead of limiting its value proposition to what the event brings to the table on its own. An alternative definition of sponsorship will also be given in chapter 7.2.1 (see p.227). This definition will account for the distortion mentioned here and, thus, broadens

the "business-oriented relationship between a sponsor and a sponsorship property" to multiple sponsors and a sponsorship property with all of these entities benefitting from the "return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with the sponsorship alliance" of which they themselves are part of.

After having explained what sponsorship is and after offering a definition of sponsorship, a few words must be said about what sponsorship is not according to the understanding of the work at hand. Sponsorship must not be confounded with traditional corporate or private activities like patronage or charitable donation. In contrast to sponsorship, these activities are of a selfless, altruistic nature and the patron or donor holds no expectation of concrete benefit (Bruhn 2003, p.4; Javalgi et al. 1994, p.48). Often, patronage and charitable donation do not rely on any formal agreement between parties and the degree of conscious, systematic, and purposeful planning and execution is very low compared to sponsorship (Mira 2008, p.15). Meenaghan (1983, p.11) contends that essentially two factors distinguish sponsorship from patronage or charitable donations: first, the type of recipient activity and second, the motives for involvement – the latter seems to provide the more rigid criteria for distinction. While the recipient activity can come in various forms, commercial or non-commercial, the motives for involvement are of selfless nature with "no expectation of return other than the satisfaction that good is being done" (Diggle 1975, p.14). Thus, the litmus test for patronage and charitable donation is whether or not the support would be provided anonymously (Way 1980, as cited in Meenaghan 1983, p.11).

2.2.3 Sponsorship forms

Even though sponsorship is being researched as a discipline of marketing communications since the 1970s (Woisetschläger 2006, p.33) a consistent and generally accepted classification of sponsorship forms is still missing (Hermanns and Marwitz 2008, p.69). Efforts to implement a classification system have failed due to the incompatibility of the rigid nature of such structures with the dynamic sponsorship reality. As soon as new sponsorships evolve and establish in practice, the schemas existing to date would have to be complemented or altered. Every now and then a singular sponsorship phenomenon appears which cannot be readily allocated to one of the categories existing so far (see p.26 for the case of Chelsea FC sponsoring the Sauber Formula One racing team as an example). This results in a historically grown classification that tends to lag behind market reality. Nevertheless, a classification approach that covers four criteria of interest for this study is presented next. The four criteria

are: Sponsorship field, sponsorship initiator, number of sponsors, and level of sponsorship hierarchy.

Sponsorship field

The sponsorship field represents a superior or comprehensive differentiation criterion since the decision concerning this attribute is often one of the first a brand manager has to take when outlining the sponsorship strategy. The determination of a specific sponsorship field is strongly influenced by the objectives of an engagement. The effects of different sponsorship fields on communicative outcomes might vary substantially. For example, if a corporation intends to communicate their sense of responsibility towards the society they might select sponsorship of a social cause as the appropriate field, whereas the arts as a specific area of culture sponsorship might be the right choice for a corporation planning to position itself as innovative, creative, or sensual. Most researchers and practitioners agree upon the segmentation of sponsorships into five distinct fields (some variations are known in the Anglo-Saxon literature¹), with program sponsorship being added as a sixth, separate field by some authors (e.g., Woisetschläger 2006, p.30ff.; Bruhn 2003, p.296ff.). Accordingly, the following fields of sponsorship activity are distinguished here:

- Sports sponsorship
- Culture sponsorship
- Sponsorship for the social causes
- Science sponsorship
- Sponsorship for the environment/ecology sponsorship

As already mentioned, there is no consensus among researchers on the exact segmentation into sponsorship fields. Due to this, an overview on the most prominent divergences in understandings is presented next.

Sponsorship for the social causes, science sponsorship, and sponsorship for the environment/ecology sponsorship are sometimes merged into one single category called public sponsorship (see e.g., FASPO 2012). Bruhn (2003, p.211) omits the

¹ The North American sponsorship market is split-up into the following segments (again with some variations depending on the author): sports, entertainment tours/attractions, causes, arts, festivals/fairs/annual events, associations/membership organizations (see e.g., IEG 2012a). While sports, causes, and the arts are equally represented in the German literature, entertainment tours/attractions, festivals/fairs/annual events, and associations/membership organizations do not find a counterpart there. However, such a correspondence does not seem necessary since the latter three segments can be considered to be sub-categories within the sports, causes, and arts segments, respectively.

environment/ecology field from this cluster and creates an integrated field of social sponsorship comprising both sponsorship for the social causes and science sponsorship. Other authors accept the social causes, the sciences, and the environment/ecology field as three distinct categories (e.g., Hermanns and Marwitz 2008, p.69ff.; Glogger 1999, p.37). There is some ambiguity concerning the field of culture sponsorship too. The understanding adopted for this study follows the approach put forth by Bruhn (2003, p.150) who includes the following six areas: Visual arts, performing arts, music, literature, media, and culture care. This view does not comprise the sociological interpretation of culture in the sense of "a way of life" but rather follows the "arts and culture"-idea (Fischer 1989, p.20f.) and, thus, corresponds to the colloquial understanding of the term culture. Other authors (e.g., Hermanns and Marwitz 2008, p.88) emphasize that the arts is but one form of culture (Loock 1988, pp.21ff. and 40f.), just like sports which could be understood as a phenomenon of contemporary culture too (Grupe 1987, p.23).

The suggestion for adding program sponsorship as a sixth, separate field is neglected for the purpose of this thesis. Neither is a television or radio program a societal field (Hermanns and Marwitz 2008, p.69), nor is the expected commercial benefit linked in some way to the unique characteristics of TV- or radio-broadcasts. In fact, the decision for sponsoring a specific program depends on the content of that program which might be attributed to a societal field like sports or culture. Hence, in these exemplary cases, the promotional activity would be classified as sports and culture sponsorship, respectively.

Essentially, all sponsorship fields are suitable to allow their sponsors for taking additional communicative gain through embedment into a sponsorship alliance. The differential applicability of sponsorship fields with regard to enabling between-sponsors image effects might be attributed to their varied aptitude for presenting multiple sponsors. While, obviously, multiple sponsors are naturally accepted with most sponsorship fields pursuing sales motives (e.g., sports sponsorships), promotion of more than one brand in sponsorship fields that are typically associated with goodwill (e.g., sponsorship for the environment/ecology sponsorship) might dilute the benefits obtained from consumers inferring an altruistic motive (Ruth and Simonin 2006, likewise Meenaghan and Shipley 1999).

Sponsorship initiator

Most frequently, a sponsor brand will integrate into an existing sponsorship which is offered by an association, a team, an event, an individual or any other potential sponsorship property.

In most of the cases this goes along with purchasing predefined sponsorship-packages which legally determine what rights can be used and what duties must be fulfilled by each party. But usually, integrating into an existing sponsorship also goes along with buying into a predefined roster of co-sponsors. The scope for exerting influence on the sponsorship alliance composition is rather limited under these conditions (Carrillat et al. 2010, p.109) – unless a brand or firm is a key sponsor contributing a significant amount to a property's revenue. That is why more and more sponsors chose to design and operate their own property (e.g., through promotional activities like event marketing, for details see Nufer 2012 or Drengner 2006). This approach offers them the chance to customize the sponsorship to their exact needs: right content with optimal fit, right target group, right regional reach, and right type and number of co-sponsors. So, two types of sponsorship initiations can be distinguished (Bruhn 2003, p.18):

- Externally initiated sponsorship
- Internally initiated sponsorship

A sponsorship is said to be externally initiated when a sponsor has been approached for support from an external third party as the owner and provider of a property, while internally initiated means that the sponsor has created the sponsorship and, hence, is the rights holder. Internally initiated sponsorships are sometimes also referred to as sponsor-owned sponsorships (see e.g., Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2009, p.216f.).

The relevance of the distinction between external and internal initiation with regard to sponsorship alliances is straightforward. Externally initiated sponsorships operate with predefined sponsorship alliances which might bear the risk for a brand of being associated with a co-sponsor brand transmitting an unfavorable image. Of course, given an expedient alliance composition, these transfer effects can and should be exploited to a sponsor brand's advantage. However, there are currently no proven strategies at hand that allow for isolating the own brand from a potentially harmful co-sponsor. With internally initiated sponsorships, creating a beneficial alliance must no longer be left to a property's manager (which might act in his own rather than in the sponsor brand's interest) but determining the sponsor roster is exclusively up to the brand manager. She or he decides upon co-sponsors to be integrated into the alliance based on desirable brand image transfers effects.

Number of sponsors

Depending on the number of sponsors presented with a single sponsorship property, the individual position of a sponsor compared to the co-sponsors is determined. Either a sponsor

wants to accumulate the full attention of an audience on his appearance and therefore requires (a high level of) exclusivity, or the brand is willing to share the scene and to integrate into a sponsorship alliance with one or multiple co-sponsors. In co-sponsorships, brands are often presented conjointly through side-by-side brand signage (Carrillat et al. 2010, p.110). Occasionally, concurrent sponsorship has been attributed to reduced sponsorship effects (e.g., Hermanns and Marwitz 2008, p.212f.). This view is not shared here. Even though sponsorship clutter might be detrimental to sponsorship recall and recognition of actual sponsors (Pham and Johar 2001; Cornwell et al. 2000), co-sponsors can positively impact a brand's image (Wiedmann and Gross 2013; Carrillat et al. 2010; Schnittka et al. 2009; Carrillat and Harris 2002) and, thus, these partner brands can be beneficial if oversubscription of a property is avoided by sponsorship managers. An additional plus of co-sponsorships is the reduced financial load to be absorbed by any one sponsor, since the total sponsorship cost is divided among multiple contributors. Effectively, multiple brands simultaneously sponsoring a single property and vying for spectators' attention has become the norm (Nickell et al. 2011, p.577; Carrillat et al. 2010, p.109). For this study's purpose sponsorships are divided into two groups with regard to the number of sponsors:

- Solo sponsorship
- Multiple sponsorship

As implicitly suggested by using divergent terminology above, solo sponsorship is also known under the expression of exclusive sponsorship (see e.g., Bruhn 2010, p.21) or full sponsorship (see e.g., Hermanns and Marwitz 2008, p.212), while multiple sponsorship is often called co-sponsorship. Note that multiple sponsorship or co-sponsorship in the view as hold here is not synonymous with the term sponsorship alliance. As will be illustrated in some more detail below (see chapter 2.3, p.53ff.), a sponsorship alliance encompasses both the sponsorship property and two or more sponsor brands, whereas the term multiple sponsorship only applies to the presence of two or more sponsors without making reference to the property and without explicitly embracing the property as part of an entity. Yet, it goes without saying that image transfer effects in sponsorship alliances are only of relevance in the multiple sponsor setup.

Level of sponsorship hierarchy

When a sponsor is framed into a multiple sponsorship, it is not only the mere number of brands being presented that is likely to affect sponsorship recall and recognition or potential

image transfer. A significant role might also be attributed to the hierarchical arrangement of the sponsor brands. Title or anchor level sponsorships can offer superior visibility and enhanced linkage to the property, but tend to come with high price tags. Academic research into the effects of sponsorship level on efficiency and outcome is, however, scarce. To the knowledge of the author this issue has been addressed by only two substantial articles. A study conducted by Wakefield et al. (2007) found that recall accuracy was relatively low for both anchor sponsors and mid-tier sponsors and dropped to an even worse level for the low-tier sponsors. Investigating differential effects of "official sponsors" versus "official suppliers", Carrillat and d'Astous (2012) found that it is more beneficial for a brand to engage on either one of these sponsorship levels than to apply these two strategies simultaneously.

From a practitioner's perspective, some different forms of classification and various terminologies are used in "selling" these levels. For example, the sponsorship hierarchy implemented at the 2012 Olympic Games hosted in London encompasses Worldwide Olympic Partners, London Olympic Partners, Olympic Supporters, Olympic Providers and Suppliers, as well as Public Funders (LOCOG 2012). A rather generic but comprehensively applicable way to introduce sponsorship hierarchies is to adopt three levels:

- Anchor sponsor
- Mid-tier sponsor
- Low-tier sponsor

Anchor sponsors are at the top of the hierarchy and stick out of the mass through elevated prominence on all signage accompanying the property. A popular form to enhance prominence of an anchor sponsor is the title sponsorship. That is, the brand name of an anchor sponsor is incorporated into the name of the sponsorship property. Beneath these anchor sponsors there is usually a group of sponsors representing a second layer of official sponsors, followed by a group of low-tier supporters and suppliers (e.g., material suppliers) or partners (e.g., media partners).

For the purpose of this study it seems useful to restrict the investigation to a single sponsorship level. Implementing the sponsorship level as an additional factor (e.g., as a moderating variable on image transfer) would further complicate the research model. Due to practical considerations, the design of the present thesis is geared towards a sponsorship alliance with all sponsors being equally arranged on the anchor level. Nevertheless, it would be pertinent to examine how sponsorship level interacts with image transfer. The chapter

outlining some ideas for future research will add some more detail to this issue (see chapter 7.4, p.231ff.).

2.2.4 Sponsorship objectives

Sponsorship objectives are occasionally separated into psychological goals and economic goals (Bruhn 2010, p.50ff.). Mere economic goals like enhanced revenue and profit or increased market share are, of course, the ultimate objectives of any communicative activity. However, such hard-wired intentions are difficult to reach directly through the application of sponsorship and are of long-term- rather than short- or mid-term nature (Mira 2008, p.27). In fact, sponsorship may be more suitable to have an impact on cognitive and affective outcomes like raising brand awareness or positively contributing to a brand's perception and liking by consumers (Cornwell et al. 2005, p.29f.). Numerous statements (see e.g., Coppetti 2004, p.27f.; Gwinner 1997, p.145; Meerabeau et al. 1991) underscore what Walliser (2003) expressed by saying that "[o]verall, enhancing image and increasing awareness for brands [...] have traditionally been the most important sponsorship objectives" (p.11). As such, the separation into psychological versus economic goals suggested by Bruhn (2010) will not be applied here. Rigid classifications of sponsorship objectives (see also the target group-oriented segmentation suggested by Gardner and Shuman 1987) do generally not account for the fact that these goals frequently overlap and they neglect reality in that they do not account for sponsors aiming at achieving multiple objectives at once. There are six main objectives of sponsorships that are regularly put forth and that will be presented here in an enumerative-explicative manner with no further segmentation applied. In striking a blow for sponsorship it must be noted here that the instrument contributes to achieving these branding-related objectives in ways some of which might be unique in the marketing communications arsenal (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2009, p.203) and, beyond that, allows for aspiring to multiple of these objectives simultaneously. The objectives are presented here:

1 – Raising brand awareness

Increasing the awareness of a company and/or its brands is one of the main objectives pursued by managers through sponsorship (Quester and Thompson 2001; Quester 1997a). Rather than brand exposure to the on-site audience which often is miniscule compared to the off-site audience, it is mainly the media coverage on a sponsored property that allows for large scaling-effects with respect to the number of customer contacts realized. It is most appealing to brand managers that awareness strategies in sponsorship can be targeted towards

the desired market in a much more effective way than it can be done through advertising (Cliffe and Motion 2005, p.1072; Meenaghan 2001a).

Brand awareness is determined by the number and strength of associations linked to a brand and available for retrieval upon cueing. Since strengthening the relationship between a property and a sponsor brand can add or reinforce a linked association in the brand's associative network (see chapter 2.4.4, p.78ff.), it is not only important to raise brand awareness per se, but a key sponsorship objective is also to increase sponsor recall or recognition (Cornwell et al. 2006; Johar et al. 2006; Tripodi et al. 2003; Johar and Pham 1999). Sponsor recall indicates a consumer's ability to name a sponsor brand given the sponsored event as a cue or measures sponsor identification given a brand's product category in conjunction with sponsorship as a promotional activity (e.g., a consumer might be asked "when you think of soft drinks what sponsorships come to mind?"). In contrast, sponsor recognition is an attenuated measure of the sponsor/property linkage's strength and assesses whether or not a consumer can identify a true sponsor given a selection of actual and hypothetical sponsor brands.

2 – Forming, changing, or reinforcing brand image

While it is possible that sponsorship might work without creating new associations for the sponsor brand by simply raising awareness and, thus, gaining preference or liking from a mere exposure-based halo effect (Zajonc 1980; Zajonc 1968), it seems that most companies expect an image payoff from their sponsorship activities (Johar et al. 2006, p.185). Eventually, it has been proposed that brand image is of paramount importance in creating customer-based-brand equity (Esch and Andresen 1994; Keller 1993; Aaker 1991), a central indicator of brand performance. As outlined in the introductory part of this thesis, numerous empirical investigations have substantiated evidence in favor for a property-to-sponsor image transfer (see chapter 1.1, p.1ff. and Figure 1, p.6). It is up for exploration by the study at hand, whether or not a sponsor-to-sponsor image transfer can contribute to brand building in a sponsorship setting. No matter what the origin of image transfer is (i.e., the sponsorship property and/or a co-sponsor), forming, changing, or reinforcing a sponsor's brand image is of paramount import to many sponsorship settlements (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2009, p.213).

There is one snare to be mentioned in conjunction with brand image enhancement and sponsorship activities. A brand with no minimum level of associations established in consumers' minds will not be very successful in building-up its image through sponsorship,

even though a considerable magnitude of brand awareness might be attained. Devoid of any idea or feelings about the brand, a consumer will hardly link to the brand any attributes associated to the sponsorship property. In these cases, sponsors will end up with an empty brand. That is, consumers may have high sponsorship awareness levels but have no picture in mind what the sponsor brand stands for (Drees 1989; Bruhn 1986). Sponsorship, therefore, is more suitable for brands with a preexisting level of brand familiarity among the target group (see also the discussion on moderating effects of brand familiarity in chapter 6.9.2, p.215ff.).

3 – Cultivating customer relationships

In a recent survey, 33% of sponsorship decision-makers indicated that entertaining clients and prospects is an objective of utmost importance (IEG and Performance Research 2011, p.32). In fact, providing a unique, exceptional, and emotionally appealing event experience yields goodwill and eventually strengthens the customer relationship. Creating feelings of affiliation and belonging to a brand might be attained through offering an elaborate and vivid on-site experience (Coppetti 2004) or through more simple means such as conveying a sense of exclusivity by presenting non-purchasable and inimitable experiences to the most valuable customers (e.g., backstage access at a music festival). Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2009) note that "[a]n event-experience [...] can provide a customer with a unique opportunity to develop a link to a brand and its organization. [...] [A]n intense level of loyalty can be created." (p.205). On a more personal interaction level, the relaxed atmosphere at an event might facilitate a company's sales force's attempt to deepen their relationship with existing and prospective clients. Accordingly, a Vodafone sales manager is cited in a qualitative study as to state that "[w]e use sponsorship for sales and cementing relationships with our distribution partners" (Cliffe and Motion 2005, p.1071). Generally speaking, sponsorship is an attractive and cost-effective way of rewarding customers (Waite 1979, as cited in Meenaghan 1983, p.24) and reinforcing the brand-customer bond.

4 – Demonstrating product benefits

Demonstrating product benefits as an objective is very tightly linked to cultivating customer relationships. The main intentions here are to demonstrate a brand's ownership of a customer benefit and to exhibit the brand's innovativeness and customer orientation (Aaker and Joachimsthaler 2009, p.205) through providing a tangible brand experience. In doing so, customers get acquainted with the brand and may delve into a relationship. A sponsorship arrangement which allows for demonstrating product features is typically used to launch new

market offers. Introducing products and services at sponsored events enables the trial of these offerings in a relaxed atmosphere. Beyond delivering functional attributes, vivid product presentation and trial at sponsored events creates a thrilling ambiance for the masses through creating a sense of communality or peer recognition. Swisscom, the market-leading mobile communications provider in Switzerland, gives an example of this approach. The brand encouraged interactivity throughout the "Open Air St.Gallen" (a large music festival in Switzerland) by providing a new mobile phone application. Event-specific functionalities like GPS-based site navigation, a gallery for picture sharing, or provision of background information on live music acts not only had the effect of increasing usage but also tied the technology into a specific sponsorship experience and built relatedness around the brand offering (Swisscom Labs 2012). As a result, Swisscom has succeeded in demonstrating superior service quality and innovativeness while the brand may have gained acceptance in a relevant target group as a brand that cares about customer benefit and that makes social interaction possible.

5 – Developing employee loyalty

Much in the same spirit as illustrated in the case of cultivating customer relationships, sponsorships can be used to increase staff loyalty and raise morale. Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2009, p.204f.) claim that by commonly attending an event or other sponsorship property, the organization is mobilized for brand building. Employees might receive emotional benefits that result from pride in being associated with both the sponsored property and the company. The company might be rewarded for these emotional benefits through increased commitment and more sustainable bonds with employees (Cliffe and Motion 2005, p.1072). For example, one research study demonstrated that sponsorship activity can positively influence the perception of a brand in the eyes of corporate staff (Grimes and Meenaghan 1998). Specifically, the study investigated the Bank of Ireland's sponsorship of the Gaelic Football Championship as well as of the Bank of Ireland Proms (a classical music event). It was found that more than 80 percent of employees felt pride in the bank's football sponsorship and about 75% of internal staff audience said they were proud of the music sponsorship. Interestingly, however, the staff did not express compliance with the assumption that these activities contribute to the bank's desirability as a place to work. It should be emphasized here that on the one hand sponsorship is but one factor contributing to employee loyalty and that on the

other hand developing employee loyalty is rather a by-product of sponsorship than a main objective.

6 – Promoting sales

Sponsorships are also being used as sales and merchandising opportunities providing highly effective sales promotion vehicles (Meenaghan 1991b, p.8). Sales promotion in conjunction with a sponsored event is most common for brands that are closely linked to the sponsorship property. For example, sports brands do regularly sell their products on-site at events where their equipment is also utilized and showcased by the professional athletes. This approach is applied by the Swiss bicycle manufacturer Scott leveraging its official sponsorship by means of a sales presence in the exposition area of the Ironman Switzerland competition (Ironman Switzerland 2012). Event spectators that walk by Scott's showroom are invited to personally speak to professional athletes and to test-ride the latest products. More importantly, with regard to the sales aspect, Scott offers special event-related discount rates on regular prices in order to stimulate purchasing.

Beyond the six objectives outlined above, pursuing personal interests of corporate managers can be added to the list of goals as a non-official addendum. Even though it might have become standard practice in sponsorship to apply the instrument from a target-oriented, identity-based, brand strategy-driven perspective only, there is still room for ego trips of executives fueled by intuition and individual enthusiasm (Crimmins and Horn 1996). This "hobby motive" may be a stronger factor in sponsorship decision-making processes than is often conceded (Meenaghan 1983, p.25f.). Additionally, in correspondence to the understanding of sponsorship which was outlined to be distinct from patronage and charitable donations, philanthropic, community-focused activities and brand goodwill to be accrued from such activities (Cliffe and Motion 2005, p.1074) is not considered an objective of commercially oriented sponsorship as conceived here.

Types and relative importance of sponsorship objectives have been empirically assessed in standardized manners by different academic and commercial institutions. An overview that might serve as a representative example of such studies in that it comprises the objectives typically reviewed and in that the results are reflecting what has been found in comparable evaluations has been prepared by the International Events Group in collaboration with Performance Research (2011). The overview on these results is given in Figure 6. Note that the objectives that have been assessed for this report do not exactly match the six

objectives that are elaborated above. Figure 6 solely aims at giving a general impression on the relative importance of sponsorship objectives as perceived by corporate decision-makers.

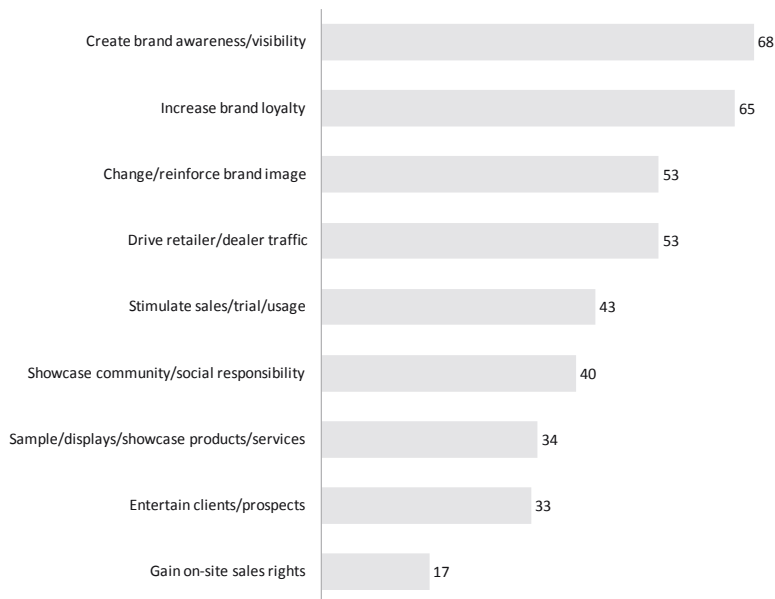


Figure 6: Overview on sponsorship objectives [% of respondents rating an objective in the top 9 and 10 boxes; 10-point scale anchored by: 1=not at all important, 10=extremely important]. Source: International Events Group and Performance Research (IEG and Performance Research 2011, p.31f.).

2.2.5 Role in the marketing communications mix

Given the manifold forms and the different objectives pursued through sponsorship as outlined in the preceding two chapters, sponsorship can be considered a very versatile communication instrument. While there is considerable agreement when it comes to distinguishing sponsorship from philanthropic patronage or charitable donation, conceptually and formally separating sponsorship from advertising, sales promotion, or public relations is more subtle (Walliser 2003, p.9) because in many instances sponsorship closely resembles these forms of communication. For example, a large brewery corporation may view its perimeter signage in a sports arena as an alternative form of advertising since the main aspiration would be to gain awareness for the brand, regardless of whether the communications instrument is called sponsorship or advertising. Or a sports equipment manufacturer sponsoring several teams that compete at a sports tournament of global reach

could perceive its engagement as a promotion activity instead targeted towards sales growth for replica jerseys, and, also, an international financial services provider might see its sponsorship of a local arts fair as a means to deepen its relationships with representatives of public authorities and other stakeholders. From these examples it becomes clear that the differences between sponsorship and other forms of marketing communications often obliterate because of commonalities in practical execution and/or objectives. It is because of such commonalities that sponsorship has often been construed as a form of advertising (Tripodi 2001, p.7f.). However, albeit some similarities do exist between sponsorship and advertising, managers should treat sponsorship as a unique component of the marketing communications mix (Tripodi 2001; Javalgi et al. 1994; Meenaghan 1991a). The distinctive characteristics of sponsorship will be worked out subsequently in an attempt to differentiate and legitimize the medium.

As a contrasting perspective on the factors that discriminate sponsorship from advertising, customer-based brand equity (Keller 1993) will then be presented as a construct that may represent a common denominator of sponsorship and advertising in terms of brand-building objectives. The concluding section of this chapter will argue for sponsorship as being just one utensil of an integrated marketing approach. Specifically, in order to fully understand the role of sponsorship within the marketing communications mix it is important to also recognize leverage and activation measures as success factors of sponsorship outcome.

As such, both the peculiarities of the sponsorship instrument will be extracted and its complementary role in branding and marketing communications is going to be highlighted throughout the following three sections.

Differentiating sponsorship from advertising

While academic circles have adopted the argument that sponsorship is yet another form of advertising for a long time (e.g., Witcher et al. 1991; Head 1981), some important differences between these instruments have given rise to the meanwhile widely accepted idea of sponsorship being an effective communications tool in its own right.

Five factors may differentiate sponsorship from advertising from a managerial perspective. First, unlike advertising, the message signaled to the consumers by means of sponsorship is strongly linked to the medium (Meenaghan 1996). This means that whether or not the various objectives are achieved through a specific engagement is, in part, dependant on the selected property's individual ability to convey the ideas, beliefs, or feelings as

intended by the manager of the sponsor brand. Beyond the communicative impact of employing sponsorship as a marketing instrument per se (e.g., being perceived as financially healthy because of a demonstrated ability to undertake sponsorship; see McDonald 1991, p.36), a sponsor brand's image tends to be directly influenced by situational aspects of sponsorship execution and performance. For example, the mental picture presumably transferred from an arts exhibition to a sponsor brand might be different if the exhibition is generally perceived an extraordinary success compared to when the public echo is abysmally bad. Second, but related to what has been said before, while in the case of advertising the brand manager has full control over message content and over how and when to deliver that message, in the case of sponsorship the message is imprecise to a large extent and not fully controllable (Javalgi et al. 1994; Hastings 1984). In this sense, sponsorship is a less direct means of message delivery (McDonald 1991, p.34f.) which involves a two-way relationship between a sponsor brand and a sponsorship property. In comparison to advertising where the message is direct and explicit, the message in sponsorship is of a much more implicit nature (Erdogan and Kitchen 1998, p.372). Third, with regard to the time of impact of sponsorship and advertising, respectively, it has been maintained that even more than advertising, sponsorship exerts its influence in the medium- to long-term (Coppetti 2004, p.32; see Rajaretnam 1994 for an empirical investigation on the long-term effects of sponsorship on brand image). A fourth difference between advertising and sponsorship is, obviously, the beneficiary of the fees paid. While in the advertising case the fees are paid to the owner of a certain media, cash-, in-kind-, or other types of compensation are due a property owner in the context of sponsorship. Fifth, additional expenditures will be necessary to leverage and activate the communications rights acquired by means of the mere sponsorship fees (e.g., through collateral advertisements), whereas this is not the case with advertising spending.

From a perspective of consumer perception rather than from a managerial perspective as outlined above, it has been purported that sponsorship differs from advertising due to its more subtle manner of communication. Meenaghan (2001b; 2001a) points out that advertising is seen by consumers as a selfish activity that is coercive and obtrusive. The halo of commercial intent and suspicion of self-interested motive resulting from such a perception leads to a defense mechanism brought into force against the persuasive aspiration. Contrary to that, sponsorship is judged more favorably as it does rarely occupy a "noisy" role within

the communication context but tends to occur more in the background. A halo of benefit and goodwill has been contended to yield lower levels of defense mechanism activation.

Building customer-based brand equity as an overlapping goal of sponsorship and advertising

Although, as set out above, sponsorship and advertising are distinct instruments of the marketing communications mix, their objectives often overlap (Walliser 2003, p.9). Most notably, both sponsorship and advertising contribute to the build-up of consumer brand knowledge which has been contended to be the source of brand equity in its behavioral conceptualization (see e.g., Hoeffler and Keller 2003; Keller 1993). As such, customer-based brand equity (Keller 1993) is understood here as a construct that represents a common denominator of sponsorship and advertising in terms of brand-building objectives. Being a key variable in the context of identity-based brand management (see chapter 2.1, p.19ff.), both sponsorship and advertising are asserted to positively influence brand equity. Specifically, it is both brand image and brand awareness, the two constituent components of customer-based brand equity (Keller 1993; see also the excursus on customer-based brand equity, p.89ff.), that are elevated and enhanced by means of advertising (see e.g., Aaker and Biel 1993; Kirmani and Zeithaml 1993) and sponsorship (see e.g., Carrillat et al. 2010; Pope et al. 2009; Cornwell 2008; Cornwell et al. 2001; Meenaghan 2001b; Gwinner and Eaton 1999; Pope and Voges 1999; Gwinner 1997; Stipp and Schiavone 1996; Javalgi et al. 1994; Shanklin and Kuzma 1992; McDonald 1991).

Note that customer-based brand equity per se will not be integrated into the research model of this study as a distinct outcome variable. Yet, due to the construct's essentiality for contemporary brand management (Cobb-Walgren et al. 1995, p.25) it will be instructive to present the multiple facets of customer-based brand equity later in an excursus on theorizing on the brand image construct (see p.89ff.). At this stage and with regard to the role sponsorship entails within the marketing communications mix it is important to emphasize that the objectives of sponsorship and advertising, that is, their claim in contributing to brand knowledge and, ultimately, to customer-based brand equity, often overlap but that each instrument aims at achieving these goals through different means (Nickell et al. 2011, p.580; Woisetschläger 2006, p.25).

Integration of sponsorship into the marketing communications mix

It has already been mentioned that in sponsorship additional expenditures will be necessary in order to leverage and activate the communications rights acquired by means of the mere

rights fees. If brand managers want to fully exploit the communicative potential of sponsorship, they should not only put a proper sponsorship strategy in place and execute the sponsorship rights well, but they must back and integrate these measures with other marketing activities (Otker 1988). Sponsors often face the challenge of not being recognized as a benefactor of a particular property by a large percentage of their target market. Even worse, customers may incorrectly associate a competitor that in fact is not a sponsor with the sponsorship of a given event (Johar et al. 2006; Pham and Johar 2001; Johar and Pham 1999; Crimmins and Horn 1996). "Educating" the customer with regard to the sponsorship of a brand through utilization of supplemental channels of communication can counter such detrimental outcome. As such, the interaction between sponsorship and collateral communication activities, particularly advertising, can be interpreted as a form of strategic symbiosis (Erdogan and Kitchen 1998, p.372f.) that may positively influence sponsorship effects. The key role played by accompanying marketing communication for the successful implementation of a sponsorship campaign has been emphasized repeatedly by scholars (Cornwell et al. 2001, p.43f.; Quester and Thompson 2001; Quester and Farrelly 1998, p.554; Farrelly et al. 1997). Alluding to the additional cost that will accrue through implementing exploitative measures, Crimmins and Horn (1996) coined the notion that "[i]f the brand cannot afford to spend to communicate its sponsorship, then the brand cannot afford sponsorship at all" (p.16). Even more so, as marketing communication measures thematically become increasingly linked to sponsorship engagements, Cornwell and colleagues (2005) commented that sponsorship spending for some firms is now the "tail that wags the dog" (p.21).

Also, it is important to say that sponsorship leverage and sponsorship activation are not to be confused as often done in literature. For the purpose of this thesis the understanding of Weeks et al. (2008, p.639) is adopted. Accordingly, sponsorship leverage is the use of collateral marketing communication in an attempt to exploit the commercial potential of sponsorship rights, while sponsorship activation relates to the sponsor's on-site activities and entails communication that promotes the engagement and personal involvement of the sponsorship audience with the sponsor brand in an interactive manner.

Keller (1996) advocates that marketers, in their attempt to integrate communication measures, should take salient visual and verbal information from one communications instrument and utilize this information in another medium. In sponsorship leverage, a link can be forged with collateral marketing communication by e.g. employing an event brand or

theme within the collateral advertising campaign for the sponsor brand, or by integrating a property's spokesperson into a sales promotion endeavor. Academic research has shown that, with brand managers, higher levels of leverage are associated with perceptions of a sponsorship succeeding in differentiating a brand and adding financial value to a brand (Cornwell et al. 2001, p.48; likewise Kuzma et al. 1992 and Hoek et al. 1993, p.63). Other studies revealed that measures of sponsorship effectiveness (i.e., change in attitudes towards a sponsor brand, awareness of sponsor brands, or extent of image transfer from sponsorship property to sponsor brand) are directly related to the extent to which the sponsors are willing to invest into communications surrounding an event (Grohs et al. 2004, p.133; Quester and Thompson 2001, p.43). In an earlier attempt to qualify the importance of sponsorship leverage, Crimmins and Horn (1996, p.15f.) found that sponsors who invested in additional advertising promoting their Olympic Games' sponsorship were more successful in creating a link with the Games than sponsors that did not make that investment. However, these findings of a positive effect of sponsorship leverage are not without refutation. For example, Lardinois and Derbaix (2001, p.187) found that the synergetic effect often assumed between sponsorship and television advertisement might not exist.

Pertaining to sponsorship activation a study conducted by Sneath et al. (2005) revealed that when attendees of a charitable sporting event sponsored by an automotive brand were invited to interact with the sponsor brand on-site through direct product experience and personal contact with brand representatives, they tended to find the brand more attractive and they expressed an elevated intention to purchase the sponsor's products and services.

The results of a survey among brand managers might serve to substantiate the growing relevance of integrating sponsorship with other instruments of the marketing-mix (IEG and Performance Research 2011). Specifically, in the year 2011 44% of sponsorship decision-makers expressed being inclined to further augment spending on leverage and activation measures (compared to 2010) – a value that has increased dramatically from 17% in 2009 (see Figure 7). Additionally, it becomes evident that traditional advertising and public relations are the instruments of choice for brand managers when leveraging and activating their sponsorships (see Figure 8).

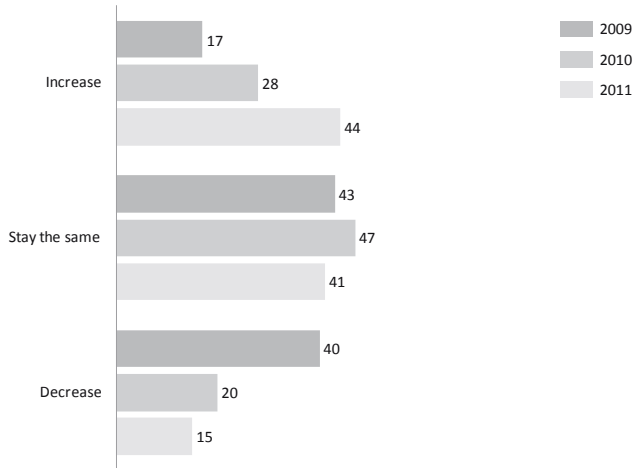


Figure 7: Likely direction of spending on leverage/activation measures as expressed by sponsorship decision-makers [% of respondents]. Source: International Events Group and Performance Research (IEG and Performance Research 2011, p.25).

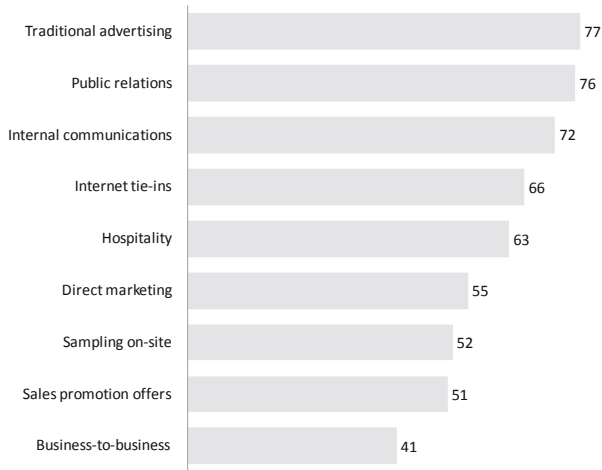


Figure 8: Types and utilization rate of sponsorship leverage/activation measures as indicated by sponsorship decision-makers in 2011 [% of respondents]. Source: International Events Group and Performance Research (IEG and Performance Research 2011, p.27f.).

2.3 Sponsorship alliance

Forming different types of alliances with partner brands has become a popular tool of marketing strategy used by many companies to achieve development and growth objectives ever since the 1960s and interest in brand alliances as a means to brand building has even increased in recent years (Bluemelhuber et al. 2007, p.427f.; Gammoh et al. 2006, p.465f.). For example, Nike has teamed-up with Apple to create a combined offer that builds on the innate combination of exercise and music (De Mesa 2006). The Nike+iPod sports combo entails a pair of running shoes with a small, built-in electronic sensor that transmits performance information to a receiver on the iPod Nano. The device displays and saves the data real-time and plays music from a personalized list of favorite songs. It is, however, not only the mere technical competencies of Nike and Apple in designing sports goods and developing music players, respectively, that are paired. To the same degree it is a combination of brands in the sense that the consumers' ideas, beliefs, attitudes, or associations are intended to tie-up over time. Both the Nike brand as well as the Apple brand might gain from this alliance in terms of mutually enhancing their images or with regard to gaining access to a new market segment formerly occupied by their partner brand only. There are innumerable examples of other brand alliances in almost every industry and across an individual's everyday consumption experience. In fact, pairing of brands has proliferated in such a way as to incite Kapferer (2012) to declare that "[t]he modern world is a world of alliances and partnerships between groups, companies, brands and so on" (p.146).

Academic research has investigated the effects of alliances in marketing strategies such as co-branding/brand alliance (e.g., Rao et al. 1999; Simonin and Ruth 1998; Park et al. 1996; Rao and Ruekert 1994), ingredient branding (e.g., Desai and Keller 2002; Vaidyanathan and Aggarwal 2000; Venkatesh and Mahajan 1997), dual branding (e.g., Levin 2002; Levin and Levin 2000), or advertising alliances (e.g., Samu et al. 1999) since the early 1990s. Rao et al. (1999) provided a widely accepted though considerably broad definition for a brand alliance as all circumstances in which "two or more brand names are presented jointly to the consumer" (p.259).

This understanding of a brand alliance corresponds to the situation found in sponsorship where multiple sponsor brands associate with a property brand (e.g., an event, a team, a celebrity) and, hence, an assemblage of brand names is collectively presented to the consumer. Surprisingly, in contrast to such an all-brands-embracing view, sponsorship so far has mainly been understood as the combination of one sponsor brand and a property only (e.g., Visa's sponsorship of the Olympic Games) and aspirations of practitioners as well as research efforts of scientists yielded at, respectively, exploiting and probing into the interaction between these two entities. The interplay between the sponsor brands themselves is not typically included into these deliberations even though the popular terminology of co-sponsorship insinuates the multiple-sponsor character of most sponsorship engagements (e.g., the co-sponsorship of Visa and McDonald's). Thus, the practical understanding referred to when sponsorship is meant (Visa/Olympic Games) does not correspond to what the widely used notion of co-sponsorship (Visa/McDonald's) actually reflects, while, in turn, this latter term fails to integrate the sponsorship property's brand as an element of the combined appearance. In other words, neither the term sponsorship nor the notion of co-sponsorship appropriately purports the condition of multiple sponsor brands affiliating with a single property in building a unified whole. Both terms can consequently be considered misnomers by application in practically relevant sponsorship settings.

In order to overcome this deficiency this thesis claims for the introduction of what is referred to as *the sponsorship alliance* – a concept that extends on the idea of a co-sponsorship by encompassing a sponsorship property brand as well as a focal sponsor brand (i.e., the sponsor brand to which image is presumably transferred) and a co-sponsor brand in its most parsimonious configuration. This notion is deemed suitable to both accurately delineate the scope of the majority of sponsorships, namely embracing multiple sponsor brands as well as a property brand, and to augment the pure sponsor/property interaction perspective by also alluding to the relevance of the sponsor/sponsor relationship. Concerning the existence of a commonly marked product as it might be expected for any sort of brand alliance but which is obviously lacking in the case of a sponsorship alliance, reference to Rao and colleagues' (1999) assertion holds that "[t]hese [brand] alliances range from multiple brands that are physically integrated in a product [...] to *multiple brands that simply are featured in joint promotions* [emphasis added]" (p.259).

From this perspective, beyond the physical co-occurrence of branded products as is the case with e.g. product bundling or co-advertising, the juxtaposition of symbols such as brand names, logos, and other proprietary brand assets is considered a brand alliance too (Simonin and Ruth 1998, p.30f.). Transferred to the context of sponsorship this means that consumers' perception of multiple sponsor brands being linked to the sponsorship property's brand through joint appearance results in the phenomenon termed sponsorship alliance here.

An additional argument for a sponsorship alliance extending on the customary co-sponsorship concept emerges from the volitional and target-oriented nature attributed to brand alliances. That is, a sponsorship alliance as conceptualized here is more than the fortuitous aggregation of brands where particularly the sponsor brands have little control over the entry of other sponsors (Carrillat et al. 2010, p.109). Instead, sponsorship alliance means a planned composition of brands that mutually complement on objectives such as raising brand awareness, enhancing brand image, or cultivating customer relationships. Some of the scenarios that might emerge from a deliberate collaboration between multiple sponsors and/or between a sponsor and the sponsorship property are outlined at the very end of this thesis in the chapter on implications for sponsorship practice – of course, considering the insights on image transfer in a sponsorship alliance gained up until that point (see chapter 7.2.1, p.224ff.).

Blackett and Boad (1999) have provided two criteria that may serve the classification of different types of brand alliances – these are: *duration of collaboration* and *degree to which common values are built and maintained*. Esch and Redler (Esch and Redler 2005; Redler 2003) complement this proposition by suggesting that the *number of brands involved* as well as the *hierarchical structure* established among the brands must be considered too¹. Applying these criteria and integrating the understanding as outlined above, the following definition of a sponsorship alliance is provided:

¹ Esch and Redler (Esch and Redler 2005; Redler 2003) also list legal ownership and economic level of the participating brands as two additional criteria for characterizing and distinguishing different types of brand alliances. These criteria, however, are disregarded for the purpose of providing a definition of a sponsorship alliance since legal ownership always remains with the sponsorship property owner and as the economic level of the participating brands is not of relevance in the sponsorship context.

A sponsorship alliance is the joint presentation of a sponsorship property brand and two or more sponsor brands to the consumer. Through a planned approach these brands enter into a medium- or long-term collaborative relationship and aim at attaining common goals as well as individual benefits. Except from their commitment to create and nurture the sponsorship alliance, the constituting brands do not necessarily share common values. While the sponsorship property's brand typically serves as a header brand to the alliance, the sponsor brands may or may not be on equal hierarchical levels of the sponsorship settlement.

With regard to the phenomenon of image transfer which stands at the center of attention in the thesis at hand, the most parsimonious configuration of a sponsorship alliance comprises three constituting components: the *focal sponsor brand* (i.e., the sponsor brand to which image is presumably transferred), the *co-sponsor brand*, and the *sponsorship property brand*. Here, the notations of "co-sponsor" and "focal sponsor", respectively, are simply used to semantically differentiate the sponsor brand that may serve as a source of image transfer (the co-sponsor) from the sponsor brand to which image is presumably transferred (the focal sponsor). In other words, in order to allow for outlining a research model that addresses the question of whether or not one sponsor's image may imbue another sponsor's image when paired in a sponsorship alliance, one of the predictor variables is chosen to be labeled as "co-sponsor brand image", while "focal sponsor brand image" is the term selected for naming the outcome variable of the model (see also chapter 3.4.1, p.121f.).

2.4 Brand image

Owing to the central role brand image is assigned to by the research attempt of this thesis the construct will be elaborated with some scrutiny in the following chapters (chapters 2.4.1 through 2.4.5). In order to comply with the prerequisites for proper development of the research framework and the research model, respectively, conceptualization of the brand image construct as presented subsequently will expound the understanding as adopted for the purpose of this study and, later, will guide operationalization of the construct as well as selection of an appropriate measurement approach.

The first part of this chapter will provide a brief historical background on the image construct in marketing research (2.4.1). The etymological traces of the image term will be presented and the construct's first appearance in marketing literature is portrayed. In the

following chapter the prevailing characteristics of the brand image concept will be outlined and their relevance for this study is going to be indicated (2.4.2). To do so, an overview of vanguard definitions, past and present, is provided and the key features of the construct are carved out by exploring these definitions' common threads. Conclusively, the definition of brand image as employed throughout this investigation is going to be presented. The two subsequent chapters are devoted to the development and consideration of two theoretical perspectives on brand image (2.4.3 and 2.4.4). Specifically, these views embrace brand image from an attitude-based perspective and from an associative network-based perspective. With regard to the subject of image transfer, it is the distinction of a conceptualization relying on the sole conveyance of brand attitudes compared to a conceptualization that relates to the spillover of single brand personality traits that contributes to the present study's extension on comparable research endeavors. As such, development of the conceptual framework on image transfer in a sponsorship alliance (see chapter 3.4, p.120ff.) critically hinges upon the two differential concepts of the brand image construct as provided in these chapters. In the concluding chapter the functions of brand image for, respectively, companies and consumers will be discussed (2.4.5). As the significance of brand image for a company is strongly related to the concept of customer-based brand equity (Keller 1993), yet the concept is not an integral part of the empirical investigation by itself, an excursus will be dedicated to the presentation of its nature and some configurational facets. Note, however, that it is only the brand image component of the brand-equity conceptualization that will finally be introduced into the research model.

2.4.1 Historical roots of brand image in marketing

Immersing into the etymological traces of the word image provides insights on some of the very early comprehensions of the term. According to Johannsen (1971, p.18ff.) different roots and basic meanings can be identified. Specifically, the range of terms proposed as antecedents of the modern word image goes from the Greek "eikon" or "ikon" to the Latin word "imago", on to the French expression "l'image" and, finally, to the commonly used "image" in American English as well as British English. When reducing the etymological examination with reference to identifying common denominators that may underlie some prevalent understandings, two distinct perspectives emerge (Johannsen 1971, p.21). On the one hand, image refers to the effigy of an object of the real world and has the meaning of a concrete, representational, visible, and real picture (e.g., a statue of a person or a painting of a

god or a saint). On the other hand, image stands for the mental idea of an object like the picture of a person, thing, place, belief, concept, or alike as created in mind and as based on an individual's imagination and fantasy. Stern et al. (2001, p.205) propose a quite similar classification of etymological meanings of the word image and suggest that some of the interpretations refer to the external world and mean the copy of an object, others contend image to be the symbol of an object and, thus, refer to the representational world, while still others hinge on the mental idea or picture of an object that corresponds to the internal world. As will be seen later, the meaning encompassing a mental idea or an imaginative representation of a concrete or abstract object in mind come closest to what is accepted as the brand image for marketing purposes today.

Before finding its way into the literature of consumer behavior and marketing, the image term has taken some "etymological detours" via multidisciplinary sources including poetics, semiotics, linguistics, philosophy, biology, sociology, and psychology (Stern et al. 2001, p.204; Johannsen 1971, p.22; Däumling 1960, p.106). When Walter Lippmann (1922) coined the notion of a subjective, stereotype-like interpretation of reality that resonated in politics-lingo at that time and when Kenneth Boulding (1956) meant a general, subjective view of the world when referring to the image as a key to understanding society and human behavior, they both touched upon the idea of images in persons' minds and a very universal representation of reality (Lilli 1983, p.413). The image concept as developed and adopted for the purpose of marketing research and practice builds on these ideas and employs them to the elements of consumer markets such as products, firms, stores, or entire industries. Furthermore, as marketed offers began to shift from tangible objects to intangible services, customers' decisions have become less related to physical attributes and product functionalities but rather to symbolic meanings, expressiveness (Swan and Combs 1976), psychosocial aspects (Liechty and Churchill 1979), and mental associations (Hirschman 1980). Spiegel and Nowak (1974, p.972) highlight that the idea of image as applied today did already play a role in the 1920s under the notion of brand personality while it was not until the 1950s that the term became known in the narrower sense of contemporary marketing. The credential of having introduced the image term in marketing literature has been assigned to different authors. For example, Lilli (1983, p.415) provides testimonial to Ernest Dichter (1961/1939) as probably being the first to use image with reference to a product (see also Domizlaff 1939) and Stern et al. (2001) endorse Martineau (1958) as the originator of image

as far as the term's corporate locus is concerned. Nevertheless, there is a good level of agreement today that the publication titled "The Product and the Brand", written by Burleigh Gardner and Sidney Levy (1955), introduced the construct of image to marketing literature (Glogger 1999, p.47; Keller 1993, p.3; Roth 1992, p.25; Dobni and Zinkhan 1990, p.110; Park et al. 1986, p.135; Kleining 1979, p.358; Johannsen 1974, col.809; Johannsen 1971, p.23). Back then, the two authors criticized that research in the field of consumer behavior that aimed at shedding light on phenomena such as brand preference or brand loyalty did not get beyond the overt, tangible, functions-related attributes of a product in its conceptualization of brand image. As Gardner and Levy (1955) posit, this information "leaves a great deal untouched and hence can be misleading" (p.33). Consequently, they proposed a new conception and orientation that accounted for the social and psychological nature of products. Specifically, they stated that a brand name is more than the label attached to a product in order to differentiate among manufacturers, but rather is it a complex symbol that encompasses a body of associations, built up and acquired over a period of time. This way, a public image can be created "that may be more important for the over-all status (and sales) of the brand than many technical facts about the product" (ibid., p.35). In the German academic literature authors like Bergler (1978; 1963; 1960), Berth (1960), Johannsen (1974; 1971; 1967), and Spiegel (1961) made considerable contributions to early insights and developments of the image construct in marketing.

2.4.2 Characteristics and definition of the brand image concept

As briefly outlined in the preceding chapter, the brand image term has enjoyed a history of intensive academic discourse and development reaching back to the 1950s. Despite researchers' agreement on the importance of image, the past scientific efforts on examining the construct in the context of marketing did not resolve definitional ambiguity and was unable to overcome controversy. There is still a considerable amount of disagreement regarding conceptualization of the construct and no consistent theory of brand image has been provided so far (Stern et al. 2001, p.202; Dobni and Zinkhan 1990, p.110; Poiesz 1989, p.457). However, despite a lack of "formal language system" that would be based on a set of "nominal definitions or rules of replacement" (Hunt 1991b, p.153), five distinct peculiarities or threads may be extracted from the analysis of a number of key definitions in the field (see Table 2). Note that the definitions that have been selected here for representing past and current deliberation on the (brand) image construct do not necessarily correspond to each

other in terms of what the specific claim on a particular thread is (e.g., the multidimensionality of the image construct may or may not be affirmed), nor is either of them exhaustive in addressing all of the five threads examined. Yet, the overview will prove to be expedient in making the case for the five peculiarities and, thus, in providing the basis for an own definition.

In order to furnish an own definition of the image construct (see p.71) with the key facets of past and current deliberation, the threads will be discussed in some more detail subsequent to the following presentation of definitions.

Assessment of common threads

Year	Author/s	Definition	Source	Multidimensionality	Overall picture / composite nature	Subjective and perceptual nature	Group-oriented (GRP) versus individual (IND) phenomenon	Behavioral relevance
1955	Burleigh B. Gardner and Sidney J. Levy	"[S]ocial and psychological nature of 'products' – whether brands, media, companies, institutional figures, services, industries, or ideas" "[A] complex symbol that represents a variety of ideas and attributes. It tells the consumers many things [...] via the body of associations it has built up and acquired as a public object over a period of time" "The net result is a public image, a character that may be more important for the overall status (and sales) of the brand than many technical facts about the product" "[T]he attitudes and feelings which make up the image of a product and a brand"	Gardner and Levy (1955, p.34f.)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

1957	Joseph W. Newman	"A brand can be viewed as a composite image of everything people associate with it. These impressions determine how a prospective buyer feels about it and influence his selection. Brand images may have several dimensions: functional, economic, social, psychological [...]. The limits are set by the brand image built through styling and advertisements as well as other product attributes"	Newman (1957, p.101)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
1958	Pierre Martineau	"The product or brand image is a symbol of buyer's personality [...] the total set of attitudes, the halo of psychological meanings, the association of feeling, the indelibly written aesthetic messages over and above the bare physical qualities."	Stern et al. (2001, p.209)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
1961	Bernt Spiegel	"[T]he image is not only important but rather decisive in determining an individual's behavior in the social field from a socio-psychological point of view. An individual does not align its decisions according to how a subject really is but rather in line with its beliefs about the subject." "Ideally, image is an entirety of beliefs [...]" (translated by the author)	Spiegel (1961, p.29)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

1963	Reinhold Bergler	"[W]e would like to understand corporate image as a holistic, yet multidimensional consolidated, psychological system with the character of typicality, which is created from the confrontation of an individual person (and his/her biography), the society, and a firm [...]". (translated by the author)	Bergler (1963, p.18)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	IND
1963	Herta Herzog	"Brand image is the sum total of impressions the consumer receives from many sources [...]. All these impressions amount to a sort of brand personality, which is similar for the consuming public at large although different consumer groups may have different attitudes toward it."	Herzog (1963, p.82)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	GRP
1965	William H. Reynolds	"An image [...] is the mental construct developed by the consumer on the basis of a few selected impressions among the flood of total impressions; it comes into being through a creative process in which these selected impressions are elaborated, embellished, and ordered." "Images are not isolated empirical beliefs about a product or brand but are systems of inferences, which may have only tenuous and indirect relationship to fact." "Images are ordered wholes built by consumers from scraps of significant detail to illumine complex totalities."	Reynolds (1965, p.69)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	

1971	Uwe Johannsen	<p>"Image is a complex, in the beginning more dynamic and later on consolidating (in a stereotypical manner) – tending more and more towards stability and inflexibility – but always manipulable multidimensional system, the underlying structure of which is not always fully conscious to the person that keeps it in mind."</p> <p>"[Image is an] entirety of [...] objective and subjective, [...] in part strongly emotional views, ideas, attitudes, feelings, experiences and knowledge a person or a group of persons holds of a subject." (translated by the author)</p>	Johannsen (1974, p.811; 1971, p.35)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	GRP or IND	
1974	Bernt Spiegel and Horst Nowak	<p>"(1) Image goes beyond a "picture", imagination from a visual perspective does not suffice either. Image is pervasive, determining experience to a high degree and, thus, controlling behavior.</p> <p>(2) Image irradiates (resonates, rubs off) onto an object, in such a way as to generate a new entity from the object and the image. [...]</p> <p>(3) Within a group images are remarkably homogenous across individuals.</p> <p>(4) Necessarily, the consumer does not adjust behavior towards and object (a product, a service) according to what the object is, but rather according to what the consumer beliefs the object to be.</p> <p>(5) Images represent an ideal aid to orientation." (translated by the author)</p>	Spiegel and Nowak (1974, p.965f)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	GRP	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	

1978	Reinhold Bergler	"Images are the personally understandable, comprehensible, and simplified psychological realities of people." (translated by the author)	Bergler (1978, p.115)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
1979	Gerhard Kleining	"In a general sense image is the dynamic, meaningful, more or less structured entirety of perceptions, views, ideas and feelings of a subject as hold by one person or a multitude of persons." (translated by the author)	Kleining (1979, p.357)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	GRP or IND	
1984	Thomas J. Reynolds and Jonathan Gutman	"[T]he set of meanings and associations that serve to differentiate a product or service from its competition." "The real key to understanding image lies in understanding linkages or connections between the levels that define the perceptual lens through which the consumer views the world and subsequently develops preferences for products. Effective linkages can be established for products only when we can gain a perspective on how the product relates to the personal value systems of consumers. By viewing means and chains as entities, we can achieve this perspective."	Reynolds and Gutman (1984, pp.145 and 160)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>		

1985	Ernest Dichter	"The concept of 'image' can be applied to a political candidate, a product, a country. It describes not individual traits or qualities, but the total impression an entity makes on the minds of others." "An image is not anchored in just objective data and details. It is the configuration of the whole field of the object, the advertising, and, most important, the customer's disposition and the attitudinal screen through which he observes."	Dichter (1985, p.75)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		
1987	Anneliese Mayer and Ralf Ulrich Mayer	"Image means the picture of an object as kept in mind. As such, image reflects the subjective views and beliefs one holds about an object." (translated by the author)	Mayer and Mayer (1987, p.13)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		
1991	David A. Aaker	"A brand image is a <i>set</i> of associations, usually organized in some meaningful way."	Aaker (1991, p.109f.)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		
1993	Bernd Huber	"The image construct is defined as the multidimensional and holistic structure of attitudes of a target group towards the object." (translated by the author)	Huber (1993, p.27)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	GRP	
1993	Kevin L. Keller	" <i>Brand image</i> is defined here as perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory. Brand associations are the [...] informational brand nodes linked to the brand node in memory and contain the meaning of the brand for consumers."	Keller (1993, p.3)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		

1995	Günter Schweiger	"Image is the overall picture a person holds of an object, whereas the mental examination of the object under evaluation is a rather affective one." (translated by the author)	Schweiger (1995, col.915)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	IND	
1995	Ingo Balderjahn	"Image is the picture someone creates about an object. It is defined as a multidimensional attitude [...]" (translated by the author)	Balderjahn (1995, col.544)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	IND	
1995	Egon F. Salcher	"Conclusively, image will be defined as: The imagined picture of an object or a person in the form of a complex that consists of feelings, attitudes, positions and expectations, which, in their entirety, shape the individual's behavior towards the object." (translated by the author)	Salcher (1995, p.132)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	IND	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
1997	Robert Nieschlag, Erwin Dichtl, and Hans Hörschgen,	"Image is often defined as the entirety of all attitudes, knowledge, wishes and feelings that are linked to an object of opinion." (translated by the author)	Nieschlag et al. (1997, p.456)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		
1999	Anton Glogger	"The image of an object of opinion is a multidimensional construct. It represents the entirety of all uncorrelated [...] associations that are, according to the perception of a group of persons, related to that object." "The [...] associations constituting the image of an object of opinion can be of either a denotative [...] or a connotative [...] nature." (translated by the author)	Glogger (1999, p.55)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	GRP	

2002	Wilhelm Drgala and Georg-Friedrich Distler	"Image is the subjective, personal picture consciously or unconsciously created by humans – single persons or groups – on a person, a thing, a country, an ideology, or any other object of opinion."	"Image is not only determined on the basis of knowledge, experience, and credible information, but also on the basis of emotions [...] as well as influences of the social environment (group belonging, life-style, ideology ...). Therewith, image must not solely be understood as a pictorial, visual imagination, it is multidimensional." (translated by the author)	Drgala and Distler (2002, p.185f)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	GPR or IND
2003	Carola Essig, Dominique Soulas de Russel, and Marcela Semanakova	"Image is the entirety of conscious and unconscious feelings, attitudes, experiences, and opinions on a subject as created by a person or a group of persons." (translated by the author)		Essig et al. (2003, p.21)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>			GPR or IND
2005	Heribert Meffert and Christoph Burmann	"Brand image is the result of the individual, subjective perception and decoding of all signals transmitted by a brand."	"As a multidimensional attitude-construct it specifies the totality of subjective views a person holds of a brand [...]."	Meffert and Burmann (2005, pp.53 & 65)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		IND

2008	Jean-Noël Kapferer	"The image refers to the way in which certain groups decode all of the signals emanating from the products, services and communication covered by the brand. Image is both the result and interpretation of the brand's meaning, aim and self-image."	Kapferer (2012, p.151; 2008, p.174)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	GRP
2009	Volker Trommsdorff	"We define image as the multidimensional, cognitive and emotionally determined sub-structure of an attitude – as a differentiated, but holistic 'picture' of the attitude object." "In marketing the image construct is hardly discussed on the individual level any more, but rather on an aggregated, market-segment level."	Trommsdorff (2009, pp.146 & 156)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	GRP

Table 2: Overview on (brand) image definitions including identification of common threads.

As mentioned before, the threads commonly addressed by some of the most prevalent image definitions will now be briefly discussed. First, by some definitions image is considered a *multidimensional construct* composed of associations that may refer to ideas, beliefs, or feelings while at the same time going beyond the mere addition of attributes (see e.g., Johannsen 1971, p.35; Newman 1957, p.101). That is, second, image is also understood as an *overall picture* or a summary evaluation where single associations coalesce and contribute to an aggregate impression that represents more than the sum of its parts. Apparently, as can be seen from Table 2, the composite nature of image emphasizing the aspects of complexity and entirety is widely accepted among researchers, while the construct's multidimensionality is affirmed by only a minority of the authors cited here. Interestingly, only three authors advance the multidimensional facets as being characteristic for brand image without highlighting the construct's composite nature at the same time (see Keller 1993, p.3; Aaker 1991, p.109f.; Reynolds and Gutman 1984, p.145). In fact, the majority of definitions contends brand image to build on single associations of some sort and, simultaneously, adheres to the idea of holism. This dyadic understanding will be accepted for the purpose of this thesis too. As will be illustrated in more detail below, the fragmented conceptualization building on single associations yields the associative network-based perspective on image, while the holistic understanding gives rise to the attitude-based perspective on the construct. Third, image is often understood as a *subjective and perceptual phenomenon* (see e.g., Drgala and Distler 2002, p.185f.; Bergler 1978, p.115; Spiegel and Nowak 1974, p.965f.) in a way that psychological reality (i.e., what someone thinks a brand is or offers) is considered to be more important than objective reality (i.e., what the brand in fact is or offers) (Dobni and Zinkhan 1990). The research model proposed and tested in the course of this study accounts for this specification by focusing on the transfer of brand associations as subjectively perceived by a consumer rather than considering brand attributes that may be measured objectively. As will be outlined, the transfer effects anticipated by means of the hypotheses of this thesis exclusively encompass the subjective, symbolic, and intangible associations with a brand, while objective, utilitarian, or tangible traits of a brand are not taken into account (see chapter 3.4.2, p.122ff.). Fourth, while single associations or a holistic picture are representations that exist in the minds of individual consumers, brand image can still be interpreted as the *common picture a group of persons holds* about an object. A considerable level of interpersonal consistency concerning brand perceptions can be assumed for a

majority of brands. In fact, accepting brand image as a group phenomenon (in contrast to a phenomenon attributed to single persons) is important in order to account for the prevalence of customer segments (as opposed to individual customers) in sponsor firms' typical determination of target audiences for sponsorship activities. In other words, a sponsorship message is usually targeted towards a group of persons and aims at creating a new or refining and reinforcing an existing group-wide brand image. The fifth thread put forth by some of the most fundamental brand image definitions embraces the idea of *behavioral relevance*. However, this contention is not going to be included into the brand image definition as put forth here. For one thing, inclusion would presuppose response to be consistent with the image in a way that calls for image-behavior consistency by the very definition (see Fazio 2007, p.601 for a similar argumentation in the case of attitudes). For another thing, there is no need to contend a linear image-behavior consistency as the research endeavor pursued throughout this thesis does not cover the assessment of overt behavior or behavioral intentions of customers (see chapter 3.4.2, p.122ff.). Furthermore, the discussion on whether or not a brand's image can influence consumer behavior or, at least, does elicit behavioral intentions, is still a quite vivid one with radically opposing positions and ambiguous insights from empirical research (Faircloth et al. 2001, p.64). Some more details on the discussion pertaining to the behavioral relevance of images as well as a clarification of the author's standpoint towards this issue will also be provided in the chapter elaborating on the attitude-based perspective on brand image (see chapter 2.4.3, p.72ff.).

Inferring from the above discussion and integrating the author's position towards the four threads (excluding the "behavioral relevance" thread), the following definition of brand image is embraced for the purpose of this study:

Brand image is defined as the overall, subjective picture of a brand as hold in mind by a group of persons. As a multidimensional construct it represents the entirety of symbolic and utilitarian associations linked to the brand. In this sense, the summary evaluation results from abstraction and generalization of the construct's multifaceted structure.

Next, both the attitude-based perspective and the associative network-based perspective on brand image are going to be described in more detail.

2.4.3 Attitude-based perspective on brand image

Today, the predominant approach to understand and academically investigate brand image is by way of interpreting the construct as the attitude toward a brand (Drengner 2006, p.75; Nufer 2002, p.145; Glogger 1999, p.49; Haedrich 1993, p.252). Marketing and consumer research borrow heavily from social psychology, the most important source of theory on attitude. In fact, it is the attitude-based perspective by which marketing gained access to the image construct.

The question of whether or not image and attitude are constructs that are distinguishable from one another is an issue of constant and vigorous debate. Some authors call for applying the image construct interchangeably with the attitude construct or, in an even more rigorous approach, claim for complete elimination of the image term in favor of attitude (see e.g., Kroeber-Riel et al. 2009, p.210f.). In contrast, other authors argue that the two constructs are conceptually interrelated with image as the multidimensional structure underlying attitude which, in this sense, represents a rough aggregation of the image construct on a one-dimensional scale (see e.g., Trommsdorff 2009, p.146). For the purpose of this thesis, attitude is conceived a discrete theoretical perspective on the image construct (see also Drengner 2006, p.76ff.) tantamount to the associative network-based view to be outlined in chapter 2.4.4 (p.78ff.). Subsequently, some of the main aspects of the attitude concept as maintained in social psychology will be presented. A particular emphasis is put on models explicating the attitude-behavior consistency.

Attitude has been defined as "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor" (Eagly and Chaiken 1993, p.1) and has only recently been pleaded to be "the bedrock of social psychology and a pervasive concept throughout the social sciences" (Petty et al. 2007, p.657; likewise Allport 1935, p.798). The evaluative response addressed in Eagly and Chaiken's (1993) definition is a common thread shared by many attitude models and, hence, plays a significant role in the conceptualization of the construct (Gawronski 2007, p.579). Evaluation is directed towards an entity or "thing", i.e. the attitude object, that can be of concrete (e.g., a Smartphone) or abstract (e.g., religious fundamentalism) as well as of individual (e.g., Barack Obama) or collective (e.g., the European nations) nature (Eagly and Chaiken 2007, p.583). Fazio and colleagues (1982) argued that attitudes are associations between a given object and a summary evaluation of that object. In accordance with Zanna and Rempel (1988, p.319f.),

this formulation holds that the unitary evaluations linked to an object are potentially stemming from cognitions, affect and/or information on past behavior or behavioral intentions. From this standpoint, attitude may be gained on the basis of collective appraisal and mental generalization of the elementary associations and attributes (Eagly and Chaiken 2007, p.596). In other words, the evaluative response towards an object or a concept builds on a multitude of informational qualities or attributes that have been collected in the past. Relating to this, the expectancy-value framework suggested by Fishbein and Ajzen (Ajzen and Fishbein 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen 1975) has been proposed to be the most influential multi-attribute model (Keller 2008, p.384f.) that accounts for the aggregated nature of attitudes. The model contends that the summary evaluation, which forms the attitude, can be assessed through adding-up the products of consumers' strength of belief that an object possesses a certain attribute and the rating of favorability for this particular attribute across all attributes relevant for a given object. In this regard, attitude can be portrayed as building on the subordinate attribute level. Correspondingly, attitude toward a brand may be understood as the meaning of a brand in the sense of an overall, unitary assessment of the brand's multifarious representation in the mind of a consumer. This notion corresponds well with the first part of the brand image definition provided above (see p.71), stating that brand image is more than the bare sum of associations, but also means an overall, subjective picture of a brand as hold in mind by a group of persons.

With regard to the underlying structural bases of attitudes, much research has been (and is still) devoted to the concepts of attitude strength, ambivalence, and the construct's cognitive, affective, and behavioral components (Petty et al. 1997, p.611ff.). Attitude strength is defined as the extent to which attitudes are durable and to which the object-evaluation association can resist change. Also, attitude strength alludes to the degree to which attitudes impact judgments and behavior (Krosnick and Petty 1995). The strength of an object-evaluation association can be approximated by means of the accessibility of an evaluation from memory (Fazio 1995, p.249ff.; Petty et al. 1995, p.119ff.) often measured by assessing the duration between object presentation and a person's report of his or her attitude (Visser et al. 2006, p.3). That is, the easier (i.e., more effortless) and quicker the evaluative knowledge pertaining to an object comes to mind upon perception of that object or upon sensing of a cue related to that object, the stronger the attitude is supposed to be. The relevance of attitude strength for marketing purposes relates to the enhanced attention

attracted by more attitude-evoking objects (see e.g., Roskos-Ewoldsen and Fazio 1992b), the increased temporal stability and resistance to counter-attitudinal information (see e.g., Bassili 1996; Zanna et al. 1994; Bassili and Fletcher 1991; Fazio and Williams 1986), and to the greater attitude-behavior correspondence (see e.g., Fazio and Petty 2007; Priester et al. 2004; Petty et al. 1995; Berger and Mitchell 1989; Fazio et al. 1989; Fazio et al. 1982). Ambivalence, another structural property of attitudes, taps into the extent to which information linked to an attitude object is evaluatively inconsistent. Thus, ambivalence refers to the ratio of positive and negative evaluations that might concurrently make up the attitude. It has been argued that ambivalence is perceived when favorable and unfavorable responses are both salient (Newby-Clark et al. 2002) with maximum strength of conflicting associations resulting in maximum amplitude of ambivalence (Thompson and Zanna 1995). However, as pointed out above, the essence of attitude formation is the integration of conflicting information into a summary evaluation. Once that summary evaluation has been built and is established, it serves as a surrogate that will be retrieved from memory each time the attitude object is perceived. This way, the elaboration of conflicting associations is obviated in future encounters. It is important to note that most attitude models contend the idea of the summary evaluation which is purportedly associated with an object as not being created on the spot but rather as being formed once through integration of the available information¹. This means that the attitude built at a certain point of time remains unchanged until an individual is both sufficiently motivated and has the opportunity to revisit the attribute level (Fabrigar et al. 2006, p.558; Sanbonmatsu and Fazio 1990, p.615) and may, if deemed necessary, modify the

¹ This type of attitude model can be assigned to the category of connectionist models (Gawronski 2007, p.577f.). Connectionist models are characterized by the idea that attitudes build on some form of connected network, loosely resembling a biological brain with linked-up information nodes (Smith 1996). More specifically, Thorpe (1995; see also Touretzky 1995) distinguishes between localist and distributed representations of connectionist models. While the former portrays attitudes as rather static "things" that are stored in memory and in which every node or unit has a distinct meaning such as "war" or "evil", the latter sees attitudes as time-dependent states of the system where distinct patterns are representative for specific semantic meanings (Conrey and Smith 2007, p.718f.). Localist and distributed representations of connectionist models share the notion of attitudes as being retrievable information continuously built-up over time and stored in memory. Due to its repository-character, the localist approach is sometimes also referred to as the "file-drawer"-approach (Gawronski 2007, p.578). A radically different approach to attitudes is taken by constructivist models. As opposed to connectionist models, constructivist models abstain from the idea of stored evaluations or information nodes in memory. Rather, attitudes are thought to be formed on the spot upon encounter of the attitude object and based on currently salient beliefs, feelings, and behaviors. Consequently, this approach entails the view that different contexts result in different object evaluations due to varieties in accessible knowledge across these contexts (Petty et al. 2007, p.661, for examples see e.g., Schwarz 2007, Schwarz and Bohner 2001, Bettman et al. 1998, or Feldman and Lynch 1988). However, evidence for long-term stability of attitudes is repugnant to the constructivist approach (Eagly and Chaiken 2007, p.588).

summary evaluation. The tripartite model, which represents the third and last structural property of attitudes discussed here, describes attitudes as being formed or expressed through cognitive, affective, and behavioral processes (Zanna and Rempel 1988, p.319f.; Breckler 1984; Rosenberg and Hovland 1960). The cognitive component of attitude refers to the beliefs or elaborated thoughts a person has in regard to an evaluation target, whereas the affective component reflects the feelings or emotions that are associated with that target. The behavioral component indicates that attitudes both have an impact on behavior and are themselves influenced by an individual's past behavior. It is important to note that the components of attitude are not just the antecedents in the sense that cognitive, affective, and behavioral information are the building blocks that bring attitudes into being, but that attitudes are conceived to be expressed by way of the components of this tripartite model¹. In that sense, cognition, affect, and behavior or behavioral intent are regarded as expressions of the evaluative response to an attitude object just as much as they are seen as an attitude's constituent elements (Eagly and Chaiken 2007, p.591) – they are consequences and determinants at the same time. From the tripartite model, it is the impact on overt behavior or on intent to act that will be outlined as a last important characteristic of the attitude construct in some more detail. Throughout the relevant literature of social psychology, this relationship is discussed under the notion of attitude-behavior consistency.

Even though neither the conceptual framework (see chapter 3, p.115ff.) nor the research model (see chapter 4, p.139ff.) introduced later in this work will span the assessment of a co-sponsor's influence on consumer behavior as pertinent to the focal sponsor or the behavioral intent evoked toward the focal sponsor, discussing the relationship between attitude and behavior is still considered important here. Eventually, it is overt or covert behavioral outcomes like brand preference, brand loyalty, purchase intention, manifest purchase activity or likelihood to recommend a brand that are of central import to marketing managers. Thus, if transfer of brand image as conceived from an attitude-based perspective is to be investigated here, this is done so with a strong reference to the notion that brand attitudes will guide consumer behavior. This notion is outlined subsequently.

¹ Note that the term cognitive and cognition, respectively, will be used slightly different later in this work (see p.125f.). However, as large parts of academic literature on attitude adheres to the tripartite model and advances the differentiation between cognitive, affective, and conative elements, this notion is adopted in the present chapter.

Until the 1960s, the assumption of a one-to-one relationship between attitude and behavior was predominant, going so far as to include the attitude-behavior link in contemporary definitions of attitude (see e.g., Allport 1935). Confronted with ambiguous results concerning the relationship between attitude and behavior (for a critical, contemporary appraisal see e.g., Wicker 1971; Wicker 1969), researchers began to focus their efforts on attitudinal qualities as well as personal and situational conditions that might foster or alleviate a direct correspondence (see e.g., Zanna and Fazio 1982; Fazio and Zanna 1981, p.165). Even though the correspondence continues to be discussed controversially, a behavioral relevance of attitudes can be assumed today by the restrictive qualifications of "under certain conditions"¹ (Fazio 2007, p.605; likewise Kroeber-Riel 1992, p.164) or "sometimes" (Fazio 1986, p.206). Substantial research efforts have shed light on numerous attitude-dependent, personal, or situational moderators of the relationship. For example, one attitudinal quality that has been researched with great attention is the manner of attitude formation (see Fazio and Zanna 1981 for a review). It has been shown repeatedly that behavior is more consistent to the corresponding attitude in case the attitude has been formed through direct behavioral experience with the object rather than through indirect, non-behavioral experience (Fazio 1986, p.218; Regan and Fazio 1977, p.31ff.). With regard to moderators of the attitude-behavior correspondence related to personal qualities, some studies endorse the quantity of knowledge an individual holds about an object and on which that individual bases the attitude to be associated with greater attitude-behavior consistency (see e.g., Biek et al. 1996). Another personal dimension researched with intense interest regarding the attitude-behavior link is self-monitoring. There is evidence that high self-monitoring subjects tend to tailor their behavior according to appropriateness to a given (external) situation and, hence, express low attitude-behavior consistency, while low self-monitoring subjects are relatively unlikely to deviate from behavior predetermined by their attitudes, whatever the situational parameters (Klein et al. 2004; Snyder 1987). Finally, situational conditions that moderate the relationship between attitude and behavior have been integrated into two largely established process models of human behavior. First, Fishbein and Ajzen's (1980; 1975) theory of reasoned action was "[b]orn largely out of frustration with traditional attitude-behavior research, much of which found weak correlations between attitude

¹ For a list of potential reasons that might contribute to the explanation of the lack of correspondence between attitude and behavior see Balderjahn (1995, col. 545).

measures and performance of volitional behaviors" (Hale et al. 2002, p.259). The theory assumes that an individual's intention to act may serve as the immediate, most proximal antecedent of corresponding behavior. Furthermore, the theory determines attitude toward the behavior (individual influence) as well as subjective norms (normative influence) as the factors forming behavioral intentions. Subjective norms, for their part, encompass both a person's belief about what others think he or she should do and that person's motivation to comply with these expectations. The theory was complemented later to include the effect of a subject's belief of his or her ability to actively influence behavior. This more sophisticated version of the theory of reasoned action became known under the name of theory of planned behavior (Ajzen 1985, see also Madden et al. 1992 and Ajzen 1991). While theory of reasoned action and theory of planned behavior rely to the assumption that attitudes guide behavior through conscious consideration of attitudes and situational factors, Fazio's (Fazio 1986; Fazio et al. 1983) attitude-to-behavior model suggests that attitudes can guide behavior even when the person does not actively and deliberately reflect on attitudes and the given situational conditions.

The conclusion of this vein of research in social psychology, namely that "[a]ttitudes can guide behavior" (Fazio and Roskos-Ewoldsen 2005, p.58), has been utilized in sponsorship research as to build and test hypotheses on the instrument's behavioral impact. For example, in a study on event sponsorship, Huber et al. (2008) found a positive effect of attitude toward a sponsor brand on purchase intentions for that brand. Thereby, attitude towards the sponsor brand was influenced by the (functional-related and image-related) fit between the sponsor and the event as well as by the perceived credibility of the brand to engage as a sponsor of that particular event. Likewise, Speed and Thompson (2000) demonstrated a positive effect of attitude toward the sponsor brand on sponsorship outcome variables like favorability toward the sponsor and the subjects' willingness to consider the sponsor's product for use.

Summing up the preceding chapter, the attitude-based perspective has been introduced as one discrete view on the image construct. In line with Fazio and colleagues' (1982) conceptualization, attitude is understood as a summary evaluation of an object. Such evaluative response builds on and is generated by the aggregation of all relevant information a person has stored about an object by means of direct and indirect experience with that object. Concerning the ultimate objective of a sponsorship engagement, namely to positively

influence customers' purchase behavior, it has been highlighted that attitudes may guide behavior "under certain conditions". Thus, assessing transfer of brand image as conceived from an attitude-based perspective is a vital contribution to a brand manager's aim to positively contribute to an antecedent of central importance for consumer purchase behavior. Once again, note that neither overt behavior nor behavioral intent will be included into the conceptual framework or the research model proposed later (see chapter 3, p.115ff. and chapter 4, p.139ff.). However, it is important to underline the potential behavioral relevance of a sponsor's brand image and, hence, of brand image transfer within a sponsorship alliance.

2.4.4 Associative network-based perspective on brand image

The associative network-based perspective on brand image borrows from the considerations on information representation in human memory as put forth by cognitive psychologists (in contrast to the image construct as perceived from an attitude-based perspective that has been outlined above as relying on basic concepts stemming from social psychology). In this field of research, it is commonly held that consumers store information in memory in the form of networks (Anderson and Bower 1973, see also Srull and Wyer 1989; Anderson 1983; Anderson and Bower 1980). That is, the structure of knowledge about literally every concept imaginable¹, concrete or abstract, individual or collective, is represented in mind in the form of intersected pieces of ideas. Consequently, brand image concepts relying on brand names furnished in some way with different types of informative traits are envisioned to be represented in memory as a series of associations (Lynch and Srull 1982) organized in the form of a network. This associative network representation of brands has been discussed in marketing as it relates to brand knowledge and, accordingly, to the behavioral conceptualization of brand equity (Keller 1993, see also Esch 2008; Keller 2008; Aaker 1996, 1991; Krishnan 1996; Farquhar and Herr 1993). For brand managers, knowing about a brand's associations and being enabled to exert influence on such personality traits (instead of just managing a brand through steering customer perceived attitudes), allows for brand differentiation and competitive positioning (Chien et al. 2011, p.142f.) much in the sense of the identity-based brand management approach (see also chapter 2.1, p.19ff.).

¹ Note that the conceptualization of human associative memory (HAM), which today is accepted as the intellectual foundation of a large quantity of subsequent associative network models, was originally only concerned with memory on sentential materials (Anderson and Bower 1973).

The human associative memory (HAM) model as developed and proposed by Anderson and Bower (1980; 1973) holds that knowledge is represented as networks of associations and that these structures are a composite of conceptual nodes (e.g., a *dog*) or individual nodes (e.g., my dog *Chicco*) sitting at the center with a variety of propositional or informational nodes¹ (e.g., *Chicco is strong*) endowing the centerpiece with features and traits. From a content-based perspective, a node is a basic element which constitutes a piece of information stored in a person's mind (Keller 2008, p.51). These pieces of information stem from multimodal encounters with an object, whereas these encounters can be of direct (e.g., usage) or indirect (e.g., word-of-mouth) nature. It is advocated that the number of experiences with or the number of exposures to a specific link is related to that link's strength. Furthermore, the informational nodes are not only connected to the central node (that reflects the subject on which knowledge is stored) but the informational nodes are also interconnected among themselves to form a mental network of ideas, or a knowledge structure. The extent of interconnectedness or the intensity of embedment of a node within the associative network has also been contended to be a determinant of a link's strength (Henderson et al. 1998, p.308). By adaptation of this model of general knowledge representation to the construct of brand knowledge Keller (1993) notes that "brand knowledge is conceptualized as consisting of a node in memory to which a variety of associations are linked" (p.3).

With reference to the theoretical explanation on the transfer of brand image among the brands constituting a sponsorship alliance (see chapter 2.5, p.93ff.), it is necessary to reflect on the mechanism of how knowledge stored about a brand is evoked and brought into working memory. The concept of spreading activation (Anderson 1983b; Collins and Loftus 1975; Collins and Quillian 1972, p.326, likewise Ratcliff and McKoon 1988; Raajimakers and Shiffrin 1981) is of pivotal importance in this regard. It suggests that a node can become a source of activation for associated nodes upon sensation, perception, and attention to an external cue, or through motivation-based retrieval from long-term memory. In other words, when a single node of an associative network is activated through either an external or an internal stimulus, that node is elevated from a state of rest to a state of activity and, thus, is recalled and will reveal its content to working memory. Subsequently, activation spreads out from this source node to adjacent nodes with the degree of spreading dependent upon that

¹ The term "proposition" as understood here is synonymous with the notion of a "unit/piece of information" that provides a link between two concepts and describes these concepts' relationship (Zimbardo and Gerrig 2008, p.290).

adjacent node's distance from the initial node. A node is activated as soon as the compound level of incoming firing from linked nodes exceeds a certain threshold. Collins and Loftus (1975) formulated these processing assumptions as follows: "When a concept is processed (or stimulated), activation spreads out along the paths of the network in a decreasing gradient. The decrease is inversely proportional to the accessibility or strength of the links in the path. Thus, activation is like a signal from a source that is attenuated as it travels outward" (p.411). This mechanism might be juxtaposed to the neurological activation of "thoughts" or "ideas" in the brain, where multimodal information is retrieved through the firing of synapses to activate neurons from different yet interconnected brain areas (Teichert and Schöntag 2010, p.372). Hence, spreading activation means the mental activity of accessing and retrieving information from an interconnected network of associations (Ashcraft and Radvansky 2010, p.232).

In the case of consumer knowledge about a brand, the associative network formulation means that a brand is represented by an central individual node (e.g., the RedBull node) in memory that will be associated with a variety of propositional nodes that carry the relevant associations for the brand (e.g., aggressive, bold, dynamic). All types of nodes may be linked to the central brand node, directly or indirectly via neighboring nodes, to make up the brand associations in memory (Hoeffler and Keller 2003, p.422). The process of spreading activation brings about the elicitation of brand attributes that are linked to the brand node and for which the summated firing of neighboring nodes is potent enough to exceed activation threshold (Henderson et al. 1998, p.308). Because links can be built and maintained in a bidirectional fashion, triggering of a central brand node can also be the outcome (rather than the source) of activating a propositional node. This is of import when sales of a certain brand rely heavily on top of mind awareness. For example, when the "soft drink"-node is retrieved from memory through the internal stimulus of thirst, the accordant elicitation of e.g. the "Sinalco"-brand node can be decisive for inducing a positive purchase decision for that brand. The manner in which favorability, strength, and uniqueness of brand associations exert behavioral relevance and provide for competitive advantage will be outlined in the excursus on customer-based brand equity (Keller 1993) in the following chapter (see p.89ff.).

Reviewing what has been said about the associative network-based perspective on brand image, this view does not question or even falsify the attitude-based perspective presented above (see chapter 2.4.3, p.72ff.). Rather, the standpoints of social psychology

(attitude-based perspective) and of cognitive psychology (the associative network-based perspective) are mutually supportive – at last, the definition of brand image as provided above embraces both views when it contends that "[b]rand image is defined as the overall, subjective picture of a brand as hold in mind by a group of persons" and that "[a]s a multidimensional construct it represents the entirety of symbolic and utilitarian associations linked to the brand" (p.71).

2.4.5 Functions of brand image

The identity-based approach to brand management has been determined as the guiding paradigm by which a brand is maintained and nurtured (see chapter 2.1, p.19ff.). It was made clear that brand identity differs from brand image in that the former constitutes the characteristic traits of a brand as deliberately devised and communicated by internal stakeholders (e.g., brand managers) and the latter represents the subjective picture as hold in mind by external stakeholders (e.g., customers, suppliers). Albeit this distinction, it is without dispute that it is the brand image from which both customers and firms are able to reap benefits – an outstanding brand identity with no corresponding brand image would be destined to remaining a "toothless tiger". In this sense, the elucidation on the different functions of brand image will be grouped into those functions that are expedient for the customers and those functions that serve the brand-leading firm. As the meaning of brand images for a firm are dependent on the functions the construct fulfills at the customers' benefit, specifically on the behavioral relevance emerging from the customer-oriented functions (Glogger 1999, p.62) the firm's angle on the issue will be presented subsequent to the customer's angle.

Functions beneficial to the customer

Classical functional theory on attitudes assumes that customers (or, in general, individuals) hold attitudes because these are utilitarian in that they serve psychological needs and motives (Shavitt 1989, p.300). Consequently, on a motivational basis, Katz (1960) suggested four functions that attitudes might perform for the individual. These include the knowledge condensation and complementation function, the value-expressive function, the ego-defense function, as well as the adjustment or utilitarian function (see Figure 9, p.84 for an overview). Since attitude has been put forth as a discrete theoretical perspective on the image construct, the same customer-oriented functions may legitimately be embraced for the brand image construct as understood here.

Brand image has been conceptualized above as an overall picture of a product or service with the subjective and psychological reality being of more import than the factual world. In line with this, images are assumed to serve as a substitute or a compound idea of reality (Fichter 2008, p.13; Drengner 2006, p.83; Essig et al. 2003, p.35f.; Glogger 1999, p.60). In the face of the vast quantity and complexity of market offerings imposed upon a consumer, sensing and perceiving, paying attention to, retrieving, and encoding the totality of relevant information at any encounter with a product or service is not efficient or even impossible. Here, images can serve as auxiliary tools which allow for complementing knowledge gaps and provide an aggregate overall impression of an object (Mayer and Mayer 1987, p.14). People form images in order to structure and summarize large amounts of information about an object (Grewal et al. 2004, p.102) and "to give meaning to what would otherwise be an unorganized chaotic universe" (Katz 1960, p.175). In addition to the structuring component, an image may help to deal with information gaps in that information on unknown facets of an object or concept may be inferred from mentally consolidated associations (e.g., from an established association of Andy Warhol and spectacles one might infer that Warhol has been an intelligent person, enriching the associative network around the Warhol-node by the association between spectacles and intelligence). These properties of images fulfill the *knowledge condensation and complementation* function. The aspects of simplifying and standardizing are also featured in an expression used by Kleining (1979) stating that images help evaluating a product "without much thinking" (p.358). Because of past experience with the product or the service customers create a mental image that serves as a shorthand device for purchase decisions. That is, through the knowledge function of brand images customers can cope with their bewildering market environment and may gain guidance and orientation (Drengner 2006, p.83; Glogger 1999, p.60; Mayer and Mayer 1987, p.13).

Another function of brand image that redounds to the customer's advantage is the *value-expressive* function. In this regard, an image serves as a means of self-expression with an individual seeking to send signals concerning his or her central values and to inform the environment about the type of person he or she aims to be. Through purchase and (public) utilization of brands which best reflect that person's self-image, these brands can serve as symbolic devices (Keller 2008, p.8) to communicate preferences and cherished beliefs (Shavitt 1990, p.301; Katz 1960, p.173). Thus, from a perspective of interpersonal

communication, the value-expressive function is outward bound and implies the assumption of brand-specific personality attributes being transferred to the owner or user of the branded good. Value expression is often linked to an individual's wish for self-expression (Solomon et al. 2010, p.150ff.; Glogger 1999, p.61) and raised social recognition (Mayer and Mayer 1987, p.15f.).

Very much related to the value-expressive function is the *ego-defensive* function. In contrast to the former, the ego-defensive function is inward bound and represents a mechanism by which an individual protects his or her ego from personal insufficiencies or from threatening external forces (Katz 1960, p.172). This type of psychological safeguarding can be established by consuming brands that foster the creation of a positive self-image and, thus, contribute to the reduction of inner tensions arising from discrepancies between actual self-image and ideal self-image (Hogg et al. 2000; Hong and Zinkhan 1995). Accordingly, it has been suggested that customers tend to select or hold in high esteem those brands for which the brand image is perceived to be congruent to the ideal self-image (see e.g., Graeff 1996; Sirgy 1982; Dolich 1969). Along this line, Pulitzer Prize winner Daniel Boorstein claims that brands may be a contemporary elixir that help people define who they are (Keller 2008, p.8) and Susan Fournier (1998, as cited in Keller 2008, p.8) notes that relationships with brands can appease the "empty selves" of people left behind by society's abandonment of community and provide a "safe haven" in an otherwise rugged world.

Furthermore, images may help individuals to conform to norms of the community and to expectations of others, "so that social interaction runs smoothly and efficiently" (Argyriou and Melewar 2011, p.433). Nevertheless, the *adjustment* function does not stand in contrast to the value-expressive function but rather implies value expression by adjusting to a specific social group or tribe. Adjustment can be interpreted as a means to gain reward or avoid punishment through adaptation and, thus, the adjustment function has also been named *utilitarian* or instrumental function in correspondence to its general purpose of increasing an individual's utility by means of maximizing rewards or minimizing penalties (Katz 1960, p.170f.). Social adjustment as described here refers to the pursuit of conformation with others through adapting their attitudes and behaviors in order to reach a desired goal (e.g., social acceptance) or avoid an undesirable one (e.g., social exclusion). For example, the pursuit of social acceptance can be observed in the field of luxury brands (Wiedmann et al. 2009; Essig et al. 2003, p.39).

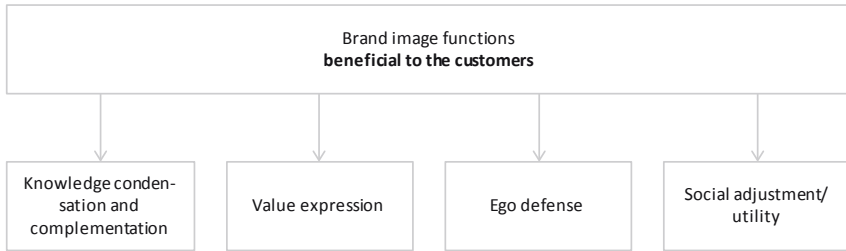


Figure 9: Functions of brand image from the customers' perspective. Source: Own illustration (adopted from Glogger 1999, p.61; Katz 1960).

Three issues are worth noting with regard to the customer-oriented functions of brand images as discussed above. First, in order to evoke one of the underlying motivations, a branded product must emphasize its contribution to the fulfillment of the corresponding function. That is, marketers need to present the offerings in a functionally congruent way (Shavitt 1989). For example, Shavitt (1990) shows that ads relevant to the predominant function of a product elicited more favorable responses compared to ads that convey function-irrelevant information. Specifically, ads emphasizing utilitarian functions result in less favorable responses compared to ads highlighting value-expressive functions for products that fulfill customers' value-expressive needs. Correspondingly, the use of value-expressive ads results in less favorable responses compared to ads drawing attention to utilitarian functions for products that serve a utilitarian purpose. Second, it is recognized that brand images and attitudes can offer more than one benefit and, hence, may serve multiple functions (Shavitt 1989). A sweater with a university logo, for instance, can serve both a utilitarian (i.e., protecting from cold weather) and a social adjustment (i.e., belonging to a group) function (Schlosser 2003, p.104). Third, the functions discussed above do not only pertain to customers and the benefits they may gain from brand images, but those are also valid for other stakeholders (Glogger 1999, p.62). In the case of these non-customer stakeholders, it must be pointed out that the enterprise brand image might prevail over the product or service brand images as the entity being evaluated. For suppliers or shareholders for example, the corporate image might serve a knowledge function and allow for a condensed impression to base future collaboration and investment activities upon, while for prospect employees a certain degree of value-expressive or social-adjustive capacity might play a role in their reflections on future tenure.

Functions beneficial to the brand-leading firm

In accordance to the gains customers might attain from the image of branded products and the surmised response pattern to marketing activities for products that offer such gains, it seems most suitable to elucidate the benefits that might arise from brand images to a firm from a perspective of customer behavior. Actually, behavioral relevance of attitudes has already been declared above (see chapter 2.4.3, p.72ff.) by providing support to the view of an attitude-behavior consistency "under certain conditions". The focus of this section will be on a firm's benefits from brand images as they may arise from the crucial contribution of favorable, strong, and unique brand associations to differential response of customers to the marketing of the brand (Keller 1993). This behavioral conceptualization of brand equity as well as its application to sponsorship management will be outlined in more detail in the excursus provided below (see p.89ff.).

Brands have been recognized as key intangible value drivers for firms (Esch 2008, p.57f.), often contributing a considerable amount to the total of corporate value (Sattler 2005b, p.8; Barwise 1993, p.99; Simon and Sullivan 1993; Farquhar et al. 1992; Kamakura and Russell 1991). As the enhancement of corporate value has become a fundamental principle of contemporary (mainly shareholder-driven) management practice (Hahn and Hungenberg 2001), brand equity advanced to become one of the most intensely debated areas in strategic marketing and marketing research (Lassar et al. 1995, p.11). In fact, brand equity was selected to be the top-tier research priority by the Marketing Science Institute for the period from 2004 to 2006¹ (MSI 2004). Since brand image is the generally accepted and fundamental base of the value of a brand (see e.g., Mackay 2001; Sattler 1997 and 2005b; Agarwal and Rao 1996; Esch and Andresen 1994; Bergler 1960), its ultimate function is to supply both the brand and, eventually, the entire firm with value².

In view of the prominence and significance of brand equity the question arises from what source the supposed value might emanate. What is the essence of a brand's preciousness? From what advantages can companies in possession of strong brands with

¹ The top-tier research priority for the two consecutive periods from 2008 to 2010 and from 2010 to 2012 as appointed by the Marketing Science Institute is "customer behavior" (MSI 2010; MSI 2008), a topic directly related to brand equity.

² Note that in contradiction to researchers highlighting the predominant role of brand image as a determinant of a brand's value, Srinivasan et al. (2005) found that "[a]mong the three sources of brand equity, brand awareness contributes to brand equity the largest, followed by non-attribute preference and enhanced attribute perceptions" (p.21). This result does, however, not dilute the importance of brand image in brand equity.

appealing images benefit? As a matter of fact, the answer to these questions depends on the operationalization of the brand equity construct which usually follows the line of either of two groups: those involving customer perceptions (e.g., brand image, brand awareness) and, implicitly, customer behavior and those involving economic determinants (e.g., price premium, enhanced sales volumes)¹. Because these two views will be discussed separately, with a brief synopsis on the economic standpoint presented subsequently and an outline on the perceptual/behavioral perspective given in the excursus below, it must be emphasized that a causal relationship between these positions is affirmed: economic goals (see Figure 10, p.89) are attainable through the realization of perceptual and behavioral goals only (see Figure 11, p.93) (Esch 2008, p.57). Accordingly, Keller (1993) says that "[t]hrough the eventual goal of any marketing program is to increase sales, it is first necessary to establish knowledge structures for the brand so that consumers respond favorably to marketing activity for the brand" (p.8) and Biel (1992) notes on the causal relationship from perception to behavior and ultimately to the economic outcome: "Any expectation of the cash flow *premium* enjoyed by a successful brand ultimately depends upon consumer behavior. And consumer behavior is, at root, driven by perceptions of a brand" (p.RC-7). Because different measures of customer behavior may be understood as intermediary constructs linking brand perceptions and economic brand value, and the behavioral constructs investigated differ substantially between studies with no terminal "perception-behavior-economic brand value" effects-chain established (see e.g., Chang and Liu 2009; Esch et al. 2006; Esch et al. 2002; Chaudhuri and Holbrook 2001; Cobb-Walgren et al. 1995), some of the most referenced customer responses (e.g., propensity to buy, purchase loyalty, positive word-of-mouth) are introduced into the framework of brand image functions in an enumerative, albeit non-exhaustive, fashion with only brief explanation on the causal interdependencies of perceptual and behavioral constructs.

As announced above, the economic standpoint on brand equity is outlined first. On economic bases it is argued that a brand comprises equity because a company can capitalize

¹ The separation into these two groups is apparent in the differential claims of prevalent brand equity definitions. While some of them emphasize the perceptual/behavioral underpinning of brand equity (e.g., François and MacLachlan 1995; Lassar et al. 1995; Park and Srinivasan 1994; Keller 1993), others highlight the economic foundation of the construct (e.g., Srinivasan et al. 2005; Simon and Sullivan 1993; Biel 1992; Kaas 1990). Still other definitions contain both the perceptual/behavioral and the economic claims (e.g., Kapferer 2008; Leuthesser 1988) while in a fourth group no clear claim can be recognized as to whether the perceptual/behavioral or the economic view is embraced (e.g., Sattler 2005a; Kamakura and Russell 1993; Aaker 1991; Farquhar 1990). For an overview on definitions of brand equity see Frahm (2004, p.48ff.).

on the name of the brand (Esch 2008, p.10; Aaker 1991) through increasing revenue and/or reducing cost and, hence, attaining higher margins or cash flows (Simon and Sullivan 1993; Farquhar 1990, p.RC-7; Kaas 1990, p.48). Along this line, it is argued that an auspicious brand image as a key constituent of positive brand equity will benefit a brand-leading firm on four grounds (see Figure 10, p.89 for an overview): Command of a price premium and attenuation of price elasticity of demand, augmentation of sales volumes, reduction of cost, and supplementary positive bottom-line effects. These four benefits will be elucidated next. First, the most commonly mentioned performance effect of brands in the marketplace is that firms are able to *command a price premium* for strong brands the consumers hold in high regard (see e.g., Sethuraman and Cole 1999; Agarwal and Rao 1996; Swait et al. 1993; Starr and Rubinson 1978). For example, building on their preference-based brand equity model, Park and Srinivasan (1994, p.284f.) showed that several firms were able to charge a price surplus of between 1.6% (Colgate mouthwash) and 20.1% (Crest toothpaste) over objectively identical store brands for their branded products of toothpaste and mouthwash. Furthermore, the *price elasticity of demand is said to be attenuated* in high equity brands compared to low equity brands (François and MacLachlan 1995, p.322; Keller 1993, p.9). An empirical analysis found the relationship between brand loyalty, a behavioral determinant of brand equity, and price elasticity to be such that the loyal customers adjust buying quantities by reason of price variation to a lesser extent than the non-loyal customers do. Hence, increased brand loyalty results in attenuated price elasticity of demand (Krishnamurthi and Raj 1991). Second, strong brands with appealing associations and a reputation for high quality are able to stimulate brand choice (Day and Deutscher 1982) and *augment sales volumes* by providing a reason-to-buy or by serving as a platform for extensions and licensing activities (Aaker 1996, p.9; Keller 1993, p.9). Rangaswamy et al. (1993, p.61) found that brands should try to enhance characteristics associated with the brand name such as quality, style, durability and non-product-related reputation in order to maximize future extendibility. Similarly, other researchers have shown that positively evaluated symbolic brand associations can be the basis of favorable extension evaluations (Broniarczyk and Alba 1994; Reddy et al. 1994; Park et al. 1991). However, with reference to a firm's advantage arising from a strong brand mentioned so far, in a study integrating both price benefits and volume benefits, Ailawadi and colleagues (2003) revealed that neither the price premium nor the volume premium, as single measures, do satisfy the characteristics of an ideal measure of brand equity. They propose the combined

revenue premium to be attained as the more appropriate approach because, for example, while a branded product might well be able to command a prize premium over a private label product, it may not be capable to get a positive volume premium at the same time, or it may even lose sales volumes compared to the unbranded competitor. For these cases¹ the authors note that "[c]onsideration of only price premium charged paints a relatively rosy picture of the brands, but their revenue premium [...] is mostly negative" (Ailawadi et al. 2003, p.8). Third, brand associations, if rated favorably, can also *reduce cost* by means of their leveraging potential in brand extensions. Specifically, developing and implementing brand extensions can limit marketing cost that may accrue for establishing a new brand with comparable features in the marketplace (Smith 1991). It has also been explained that brand loyalty among customers and retailers results in lower promotional expenses (Farquhar 1990, p.RC-8). Much in the same sense, familiar brands seem to be more resilient toward competitive advertising (Kent and Allen 1994), enjoy stronger response to advertising (Sawyer 1981), and, in effect, achieve improved communicative results over less strong or less familiar brands at an equal level of marketing investment (Keller 1993; Stewart and Furse 1986). An additional source of cost reduction inherent to strong brands resides in improved negotiation power over suppliers and retailers. Firms that own and manage highly valued brands can achieve advantageous purchasing conditions or expect more attractive slotting allowances in retailers' shelves (Farquhar 1990, p.RC-8). Forth and lastly, brands for which an auspicious image is hold might generate *supplementary positive bottom-line effects* based on rather indirect grounds. For example, the cost of financing might be lowered due to preferential loans granted by banks or the expenses for recruiting and retention of employees may be reduced as a result of a firm's attractive corporate or brand image (Sattler 2005a, p.6).

Following this overview on the economic benefits that might accrue to the brand-leading firm from an attractive brand image, the prospective gains in terms of mental perceptions and differential behavior are discussed throughout the excursus on the conceptualization of customer-based brand equity.

¹ The case with branded products commanding a price premium while simultaneously facing a negative volume premium over private label products is one out of four scenarios tested by Ailawadi et al. (2003, p.5). The other three scenarios are (phrased in the sense of the branded product relating to the private label product): price premium and volume premium; negative price premium and volume premium, negative price premium and negative volume premium.

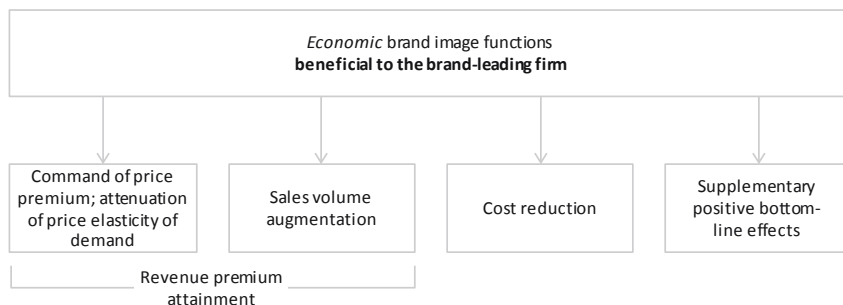


Figure 10: Economic functions of brand image from a firm's perspective. Source: Own illustration.

Excursus: Conceptualization of customer-based brand equity. The conceptualization of brand equity as proposed by Keller (1993) offers a causal link between customers' perceptual structures as hold for a brand and the differential behavioral effects of these mental associations on marketing activities for the brand. As it captures the knowledge about a brand it is well suited for brand steering and controlling (Esch 2008, p.63; Frahm 2004, p.50). For example, Kapferer (1992, p.291) recognizes the managerial significance of the perceptual/behavioral perspective as compared to the economic approach to brand equity by saying that an evaluative measure in Euro is too rough a guidance for marketing measures to be applied properly. From a marketing perspective it is not so much the economic value of a brand one is interested in but rather the manner of getting to that valuation, i.e. the understanding of the brand's functioning, its development, and its value increases or losses (likewise Kaas 1990, p.49). Here, the excursus on customer-based brand equity serves the substantiation of brand image as a key ingredient to brand management (even though, as previously mentioned, the research model proposed later will not cover brand equity in its entirety, but rather focus on its brand image component).

Pursuant to Keller's (1993) conceptualization¹, a brand is posited to have positive (negative) customer-based brand equity if customers react more (less) favorably to a marketing activity for that brand than they do to the same marketing activity when it is attributed to an unbranded, yet equally functional, product or service. The differential effect is said to be based on the customers' knowledge about a brand because content and structure of brand knowledge determine what information will be retrieved from memory upon the

¹ If not otherwise indicated, the following section on customer-based brand equity is based on Keller's (2008; 1993) work.

perception of a brand – e.g., in response to a marketing activity. Following the idea of an associative network memory model (see also chapter 2.4.4, p.78ff.), brand knowledge is understood as consisting of a central brand node (e.g., the RedBull node) with a variety of associations linked to it in the form of propositional nodes (e.g., aggressive, bold, dynamic). The firmness of the links between brand node and propositional nodes is related to brand awareness (i.e., a customer's ability to identify the brand under different conditions [Rossiter and Percy 1987]), whereas the associations linked to the brand node are referred to as the brand's image. Consequently, brand awareness and brand image are the two components of brand knowledge that constitute customer-based brand equity. As the focus here is on the beneficial functions of brand image (but not of brand awareness) for a firm, it must be clarified how the associations linked to a brand result in favorable customer reactions. Keller (1993) claims that favorability, strength, and uniqueness of brand associations induce behavior that may be advantageous for the brand. Hence, favorability, strength, and uniqueness of brand associations embody the perceptual layer of a benefits hierarchy as they represent what customers think and feel about a brand, while the induced reactions embody the behavioral layer of brand image functions as they represent what customers do about a brand (Keller and Lehmann 2006, p.753f., likewise Srivastava and Shocker 1991, para.2). The chain of effects from customer perception to customer behavior naturally grows into concepts of economic brand performance some of which have been presented in Figure 10 (see p.89). In an article on the role of brand loyalty Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001) exemplify the effects chain in saying that "[i]n summary, superior brand performance outcomes such as greater market share and a premium price (relative to the leading competitor) may result from greater customer loyalty. This loyalty, in turn, may be determined by trust in the brand and by feelings or affect elicited by the brand" (p.81). As will be seen, the perceptual layer can be outlined sharply due to its reference to a single concept of customer-based brand equity (i.e., Keller's 1993 concept), while the behavioral layer lists potential customer responses in an enumerative rather than conceptually cohesive manner. With due regard to the lack of exhaustiveness within the behavioral layer, Figure 11 (p.93) provides an overview on perceptual and behavioral brand image functions beneficial to a brand-leading firm and indicates the relevance of these two dimensions for the dimension of economic benefit.

The first characteristic of brand associations to be addressed is its favorability. *Favorability of brand associations* taps into the customers' believe that a brand possesses attributes that satisfy their needs and wants. Higher perceived utility should, then, lead to higher levels of brand preference and *increased propensity to buy*. *Strength of a brand association* relates to the accessibility of an attribute and the level of ease with which it can be retrieved by spreading activation (see the discussion on spreading activation in chapter 2.4.4, p.78ff.). Easier retrieval of relevant brand attributes upon brand cueing should result in increased marketing efficiency since the marketing stimulus required to evoke a response can be of diminished intensity (e.g., shorter/smaller ads, reduced number of ad repetitions). Furthermore, it has been proposed that for consumers that entertain a high brand-self connection and for whom associations on a brand can be easily retrieved and, thus, are of prominent nature, are more likely to engage in relationship-sustaining behaviors than those for whom both brand-self connection and retrieval capabilities for associations are low (Park et al. 2010, p.2). As the image congruence hypothesis holds that consumers tend to favorably judge a brand that they perceive to have a similar image to their own self-image (Graeff 1996, p.482), favorability of brand associations may be postulated to resonate with a strong brand-self connection. Consequently, both favorability and strength of brand associations may elicit relationship-sustaining behavior of consumers such as *loyal purchasing, lessened levels of switching behavior, positive word-of-mouth, or brand defense behavior* (Park et al. 2010, pp.2 and 15). *Unique brand associations* give customers a convincing reason for buying a specific brand (Aaker and Shansby 1982; Ries and Trout 1979) and can signal superiority over comparable offers. As such, unique associations should also be able to contribute to such consumer reaction as an increased propensity to buy or higher loyalty levels.

Much in the same way as Keller (1993) draws on favorability, strength, and uniqueness of brand associations, alternative concepts of customer-based brand equity proclaim related facets like perceived quality, general associations, and other proprietary brand assets (Aaker 1991, p.15ff.) or appeal of the internal brand image, clarity of the internal brand image, and uniqueness of the brand's appearance (Andresen and Esch 2001) to be the constituent factors of brand image.

The consideration of customer-based brand equity in the context of sponsorship research is worth a concluding word. While branding strategies like co-branding or brand

alliances have been examined upon their effect on the brand equity of constituent brands (for exemplary studies on co-branding and brand equity see e.g., Walchli 2007; Motion et al. 2003; Washburn et al. 2000, for studies on brand alliances and brand equity see e.g., Washburn et al. 2004; Vaidyanathan and Aggarwal 2000), the role of brand equity has scarcely been researched explicitly in the context of sponsorship (for two exceptions see Becker-Olsen and Hill 2006; Becker-Olsen and Simmons 2002). This is all the more surprising as both brand image and brand awareness, the two defining elements of customer-based brand equity, are generally accepted as the main outcome variables of sponsorship engagements in a way that "the objectives of sponsorship overlap extensively with commonly agreed-upon elements of brand equity" (Cornwell et al. 2001, p.41).

The following figure depicts the functions of brand image as they may arise to the benefit of brand-leading firms by integrating three layers of brand image consequences: What customers think and feel about a brand, what customers do about a brand, and how the brand-leading firm may gain financially (Keller and Lehmann 2006, p.753). The causal relationship between the perceptual representation of an auspicious brand image as claimed by the customer-based conceptualization of brand equity, its behavioral outcomes, as well as the impact on marketplace performance as discussed above are depicted in this framework.

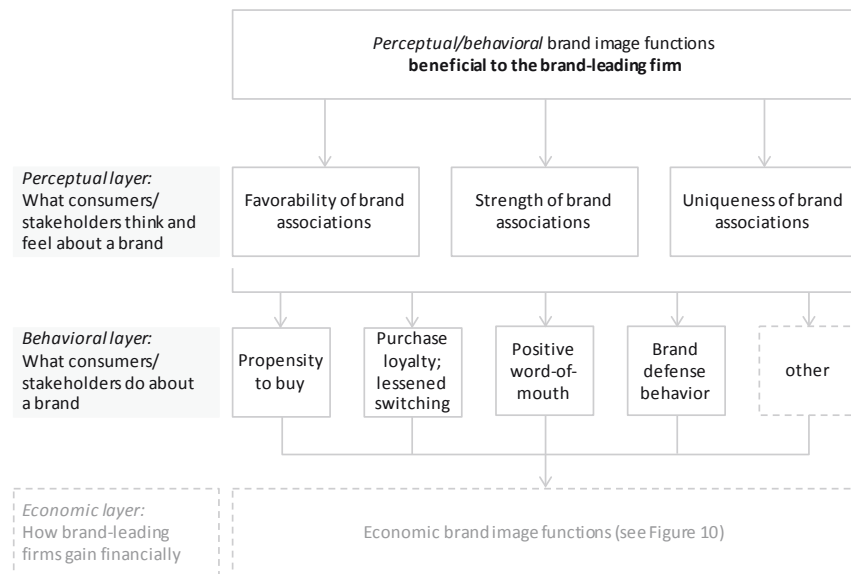


Figure 11: Perceptual/behavioral functions of brand image from a firm's perspective. Source: Own illustration.

2.5 Theoretical perspectives on image transfer

Research on sponsorship effects is rich in studies that investigate how one brand of the sponsorship arrangement may imbue another brand of the arrangement with either positive or negative image (see Figure 1, p.6 for a selection of conceptual work and empirical studies on image transfer in sponsorship arrangements). However, many of these attempts lack a theoretical explanation of how sponsorship works in the mind of the consumer (Cornwell et al. 2005, p.21). Two of the most widely applied theoretical concepts elucidating image transfer in sponsorship are the group of theories on cognitive consistency on the one hand and associative learning theory on the other hand (Woisetschlager 2006, p.62f.). While cognitive consistency explains attitude change building on the idea that individuals strive for cognitive harmony upon perception of paired objects and reconcile existing attitudes if required, associative learning provides an explanation of how parts of two brands' associative networks might interact and exchange if these brands co-occur. Specifically, theories of cognitive consistency provide three distinct but conceptually related approaches (i.e., balance theory, congruity theory, and dissonance theory) out of which congruity theory will prove most instructive for understanding image transfer in case images are understood from an

attitude-based perspective. Associative learning theory will be applied to the explanation of image transfer between two brands that are conceptualized as associative networks with a variety of personality traits mentally linked to each of the central brand nodes. Hence, corresponding to conceptualizing the image construct from both an attitude-based and an associative network-based perspective (as described before), congruity theory and associative learning theory, respectively, are applied as two frameworks from which brand image transfer in a sponsorship alliance will be investigated¹. These theories are explained subsequently in some more detail.

Because the mental activity that supposedly takes place when brand associations are transferred between two entities is embedded into the larger context of human information processing, a model frequently used in cognitive psychology will be introduced prior to the discussion on associative learning. The multi-store model of memory proposed by Atkinson and Shiffrin (1971; 1968) and utilized in theoretical and empirical investigation of image transfer in sponsorship (e.g., Glogger 1999) or event-marketing (e.g., Nitschke 2006) will provide an overarching structure for the process to be expected. Specifically, it offers guidance for the associative learning sequence along a series of stages such as sensation, perception, attention, elaboration, as well as encoding into, that is storing in long-term memory for future retrieval. Later, the multi-store model of memory is to be integrated into the broader context of the conceptual framework of this research. As will be seen, the model is useful as it provides the inner configuration of the realm of "organism" within the S-O-R framework as far as the transfer of brand images from the associative network-based perspective is concerned (see chapter 3.5, p.135ff. and Figure 17 therein).

2.5.1 Congruity theory

Congruity theory has been proposed by Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955) and is one out of three major theories that embrace the principle of cognitive consistency maintained in social psychology. The other two are balance theory developed by Heider (1958) and the theory of cognitive dissonance advocated by Festinger (1957). This chapter will serve to briefly outline the basic tenets of the three approaches and to describe their respective implications for the conception of image transfer between two objects or concepts. Moreover, congruity theory

¹ The theoretical foundations required for explaining the direct and moderating effects of image fit between brands of the sponsorship alliance as well as the moderating effect of focal sponsor brand familiarity – two constructs that are going to be introduced into the research model later – will be provided in the corresponding chapters on research hypotheses development (see chapters 4.4, p.143ff. and 4.5, p.151ff.).

will be determined to be the most suitable approach to explain attitude transfer as required for the purpose of this thesis.

All of the theories hold that "individuals seek to maintain consistency or internal harmony among their attitudes, values, and opinions" (Levin et al. 1996, p.297). Specifically, the framework of cognitive consistency conjectures that when an individual holds two or more objects or concepts that are relevant to each other in some way but inconsistent with one another, a state of imbalance and discomfort is created. Such an unpleasant state or inner arousal will motivate an individual to alter the attitude toward some or all of the entities in an attempt to attenuate the felt discrepancy. For example, if an individual holds Barack Obama in high regard but learns that the US President expresses sympathy for the National Rifle Association (NRA), an entity that the individual might be opposed to, the resulting tension and discomfort can be resolved by changing or attenuating the attitudes toward Obama, toward the NRA, or toward both. Also, finding an alternative explication for the relation or alleviating or neglecting the mental tension altogether are psychological strategies purportedly used to escape the discomfort. The notion of objects or concepts being "relevant to each other" mentioned above means that they are paired in some way. In balance theory as well as in congruity theory the pairing of objects or concepts is conceived as the relationship created between a source of communication (e.g., Barack Obama) and an object or concept on which the source makes an assertion (e.g., the NRA). Assertions may be explicit linguistic statements on the part of the source or implicit behavioral and situational statements (e.g., a picture showing Obama to shake hands with the President of the NRA) (Osgood and Tannenbaum 1955, p.44). By nature, this relationship can either be of positive or negative valence, depending on the valence of the testimony given by the source on the object or concept (e.g., Obama may express favor or disfavor for the NRA). In contrast to balance theory and congruity theory, dissonance theory tries to explain and predict attitude change considering the pairing of one cognition with a focal cognition that is usually related to a behavior (more on that point will be presented later) (Harmon-Jones and Harmon-Jones 2007, p.8). However, when applying either of these three theories of cognitive consistency to the pairing of two brands (as in co-branding or as in a sponsorship alliance) in order to theorize on potential attitude change, the relationship is a) always positive because the two brands are usually paired deliberately and benevolently, and b) established between two objects rather than between a source of communication and an object/concept or between two cognitions.

With regard to the suitability of congruity theory in sponsorship research Meenaghan (2001b) affirms that "[a]lthough the principle of congruence is most often articulated in terms of source and message [...], it was felt that a sufficient degree of parallel application existed in the case of commercial sponsorship to merit investigation" (p.104). This credo is adopted here. That is, even though balance theory, congruity theory, and dissonance theory do not explicitly address attitude change that occurs upon the pairing of two objects, their underlying principles will be adopted for elucidating attitude transfer between two brands. Next, a brief overview will be given on the three theories representing the framework of cognitive consistency. This will help to substantiate argumentation in favor of the principles of congruity (to the detriment of balance theory and cognitive dissonance theory) as the theoretical approach applied here to explain image transfer effects in a sponsorship alliance.

Heider's (1958) *balance theory* posits, in agreement with the other cognitive consistency theories, that people, in general, aspire at balance, order, and harmony in their lives. The consistencies Heider was interested in were those to be found in people evaluating their relations with other people or with an impersonal entity "which may be a situation, an event, an idea, or a thing, etc." (Heider 1946, p.107). That is, Heider was concerned with the way individuals cognitively experience their relations to other people and to objects or concepts (Zajonc 1960, p.282). Therefore, the theory was limited to a triad encompassing the individual maintaining and potentially changing attitudes (P), some other person (O), and an impersonal object (X). The aim of the analysis was to discover how the relations between P, O, and X are organized in P's cognitive structure. Relations are separated into two types. On the one hand, sentiment relations represent the positive or negative attitude a person (either P or O) holds about the other person or about the impersonal entity (X), respectively. As to this, in case of a positive attitude, a person might approve of, admire, or be in favor of someone else or something. Such a positive sentiment is denoted by the generic symbol L (for liking). In the case of a negative attitude a person might condemn or disapprove someone else or something, which leads to labeling the sentiment relation with DL (for dislike). On the other hand, unit relations epitomize a factual, non-attitudinal tie that links two elements of the triad each (Heider 1958, p.202ff.). Such a tie may be constituted as an association in terms of proximity, similarity, ownership, or common fate (Dean 2002, p.79). In other words, the relationship between a personal and an impersonal entity or between two personal entities may be either a sentiment relation (e.g., O likes X) or a unit relation (e.g., O is in close

proximity to X), while in each case the relationship can be of positive (e.g., to like or being in close proximity) or negative (e.g., to dislike or being in large distance) valence. This way, eight patterns representing triadic relationships in person P's cognitive structure are conceivable – four of which are "balanced" and four of which are "unbalanced" (see Figure 12, p.98 for an overview on balanced and unbalanced states). In particular, a balanced state exists if all three relations are positive, or if two are negative and one is positive. An unbalanced state is present if two relations are positive and one is negative, or if all relations are negative (Heider 1958, p.202f.). Balanced states are perceived as pleasant and harmonious. However, the fundamental hypothesis of balance theory is that unbalanced states produce tensions that call for reconfiguration of the relations toward balance through either attitude change or actions. Heider (1946) claimed: "If no balanced state exists, then forces towards this state will arise. Either the dynamic characters will change, or the unit relation will be changed through action or through cognitive reorganization" (p.107). For example, this means that an uncomfortable inner tension resulting from a positive versus a negative attitude towards a person and an concept, respectively, with that non-self person being perceived as holding the concept in high regard, might be attenuated through changing the attitude toward the disliked concept in a way that yields favorableness for it (see Figure 12; change from unbalanced triad -VII- to balanced triad -I-). Alternatively, the positive attitude toward the other person might be perverted into personal aversion while keeping the initial attitude toward the concept in low esteem (change from unbalanced triad -VII- to balanced triad -II-).

The implication of balance theory for image transfer is straightforward under the presumption that what has been introduced as another (non-self) person (O) in the original theory can be interpreted as just another impersonal entity similar to X. Now, if these two entities maintain a positive unit relation¹ meaning that they are paired or associated in some way (rather than segregated), while the sentiment relation between the evaluating person and the two entities² differs in terms of valence (i.e., one positive and one negative), an

¹ Sentiment relations are not considered to be established between two impersonal entities.

² In order to explain image transfer between two entities no unit relations are assumed to be in place between the evaluating person and either one of the two entities. First, image transfer as analyzed here relies on change of attitudes toward the entities triggered by unbalanced states, with attitudes being reflected by sentiments in Heider's (1958; 1946) theory. Second, it seems unlikely (or is even irrelevant) in the typical case of image transfer that the evaluating person maintains a unit relationship with one of the entities, meaning that he or she would e.g. be in possession of an entity.

unbalanced state is perceived resulting in unease and tension (triads -VII- and -VIII-; note that these two triads are identical, yet mirrored, under the premise that both O and X are impersonal entities). This brings about a process of reconciliation and generates forces to restore balance. Specifically, the person could reevaluate the sentiment or attitude toward the negatively rated entity and make it positive (resulting in triad -I-) or the person could invert the judgment of the positively rated entity and make it negative (resulting in triad -II-). Both efforts would result in a tension-free, balanced state and it can be noted that the attitude of one entity had been assimilated to the attitude of the other entity – hence, it transferred. A statement given by Dalakas and Levin (2005) illustrates nicely the key premise of balance theory. They say that "individuals will tend to like whatever is associated with what they already like and will tend to dislike whatever is associated with what they already dislike; otherwise there will be no balance" (p.91).

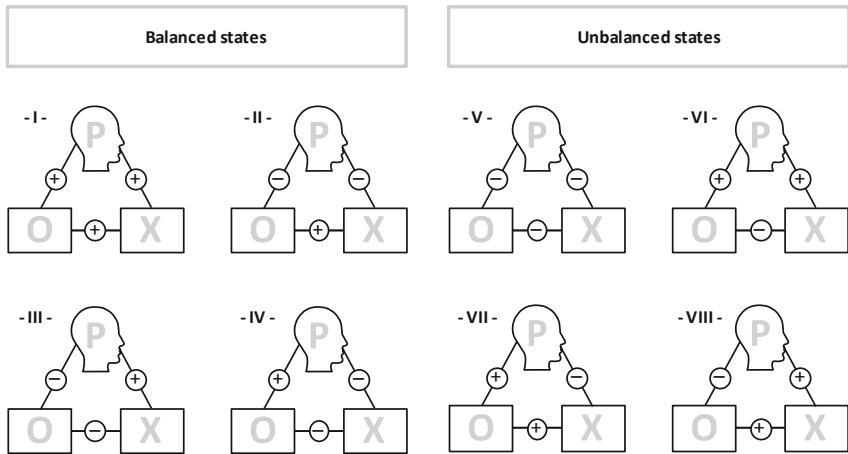


Figure 12: Balanced and unbalanced states according to Heider's (1958; 1946) balance theory. Source: Own illustration (adopted from Zajonc 1960, p.283).

Two drawbacks of balance theory with regard to its explanatory power for image transfer are the theory's restriction on only one sentiment relation or attitude to be changed at a time as well as its disregard of gradual (as opposed to the all-or-none) attitude change (Woisetschläger 2006, p.67).

Congruity theory, as put forth by Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955), is an extension of balance theory and predicts both direction and degree of attitude change. It is concerned with how attitudes change when a person is exposed to an implicit or explicit message sent by a

message source. Hence, congruity theory is specifically oriented toward communication and persuasion¹. The basic triadic framework is similar to that proposed in balance theory (even though Osgood and Tannenbaum did not use the triangular graphic depiction) and comprises a focal individual, the source of a message (S) which may or may not be another person, and an object or concept (C) that might be of concrete or abstract nature. The paradigm of congruity relates to the dis-/harmony perceived by an individual who is confronted with an assertion on an object or a concept about which he or she feels in a certain way, made by a message source toward which he or she also has an attitude (Zajonc 1960, p.287). Valence and strength of the attitudes are indicated by, respectively, a positive or negative (algebraic) sign and an integer. The valence of the assertion is denoted by a positive or negative sign only. Hence, attitudes are measured on a scale ranging from strongly unfavorable (-3) through neutral (0) to strongly favorable (+3), whereas the assertions made are specified as negative or dissociative (-) and positive or associative (+). In lieu of formally defining four possible states of harmony and four possible states of disharmony as done so in balance theory (see Figure 12, p.98), congruity theory builds on the idea of available pressure toward congruity (P). Pressure toward congruity mainly results from the difference, in attitude scale units, between the initial attitude values of each of the entities of judgment and depends on the valence of the assertion. The pressure toward congruity is higher if a source makes a positive remark about a concept with the attitude toward the source being strongly positive and the attitude toward the concept being moderately negative, compared to a situation with the attitude toward the concept being slightly positive and the other values remaining unchanged. To provide a concrete context, the pressure toward congruity as perceived by a certain person may be high if Barack Obama (+3) makes a positive assertion about the National Rifle Association NRA (-2; here P amounts to a value of -5 for Obama and a value of +5 for the NRA; see Figure 13, Example I). On the other hand, the pressure toward congruity may be comparably lower if Barack Obama (+3) expresses goodwill toward the united auto workers labor union (UAW) (+2; P = -1 for Obama and P = +1 for the UAW; see Figure 13, Example II). As with balance theory, attitude change occurs into the direction of

¹ Charles E. Osgood and Percy H. Tannenbaum conducted their research on attitude theory and measurement at the Institute of Communications Research at the University of Illinois. They denoted their suggestions with regard to the principles of attitude change culminating in congruity theory as an "outgrowth of continuing research on experimental semantics, particularly the development of objective methods for measuring meaning" (Osgood and Tannenbaum 1955, p.42).

increased congruity within the subject's cognitive schema. Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955) note that "changes in evaluation are always in the direction of increased congruity with the existing frame of reference [emphasis in original]" (p.43). Unlike balance theory, however, attitudes are theorized to adapt in a gradual manner and the presence of incongruity can prompt a change in attitude toward both of the objects simultaneously (Dean 2002, p.79). In terms of the examples, congruity is aspired by reducing pressure through gradually altering the two of the attitudes involved in an example each (the +3 attitude toward Barack Obama may decrease in both examples while the -2 and the +2 attitudes toward the NRA and the UAW, respectively, should rise). With regard to the degree of change to which each of the attitudes will be subject to, Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955) hypothesize that "the total pressure toward congruity is distributed between the objects of judgment associated by an assertion in inverse proportion to their separate degrees of polarization [i.e., distance from neutral position]" (p.46). That is, the +3 attitude will consume less of the total pressure toward congruity compared to the -2/+2 attitudes because more extreme attitudes are hypothesized to be less susceptible to change. In the NRA example, including corrections for incredulity¹, the +3 attitude would be changed (reduced) by -0.5 and end up in the +2.5 position, while the -2 attitude would be changed (raised) by +1.5 and come into the -0.5 position. In the UAW example, the +3 attitude would be changed (reduced) by -0.4 and end up in the +2.6 position, the +2 attitude would be changed (raised) by +0.6 and come into the +2.6 position, too. Consequently, in each of the examples, a balanced state would have been reached that way. Note that the UAW example created a perfectly balanced state free of inner tensions (both attitudes end up in the +2.6 position), while in the NRA example the tension has only attenuated with pressure toward congruity (P) of -3.0 and +3.0 for Obama and the NRA, respectively, remaining. If Obama continued to positively qualify the NRA and, thus, would repeatedly make positive assertions on the NRA, the reconciliatory process between the attitude toward Obama and the attitude toward the NRA is supposed to go on until a perfectly balanced state is reached.

¹ Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955) posit that complete credulity of a message or assertion for the part of the receiver is a rare condition, especially when confronted with incongruous messages. For example, it might be incredulous to a certain degree that Barack Obama comments positively on the NRA. Hence, congruity theory corrects for incredulity by "a positively accelerated function of the amount of incongruity which exists and operates to decrease attitude change, completely eliminating change when maximal" (Osgood and Tannenbaum 1955, p.47).

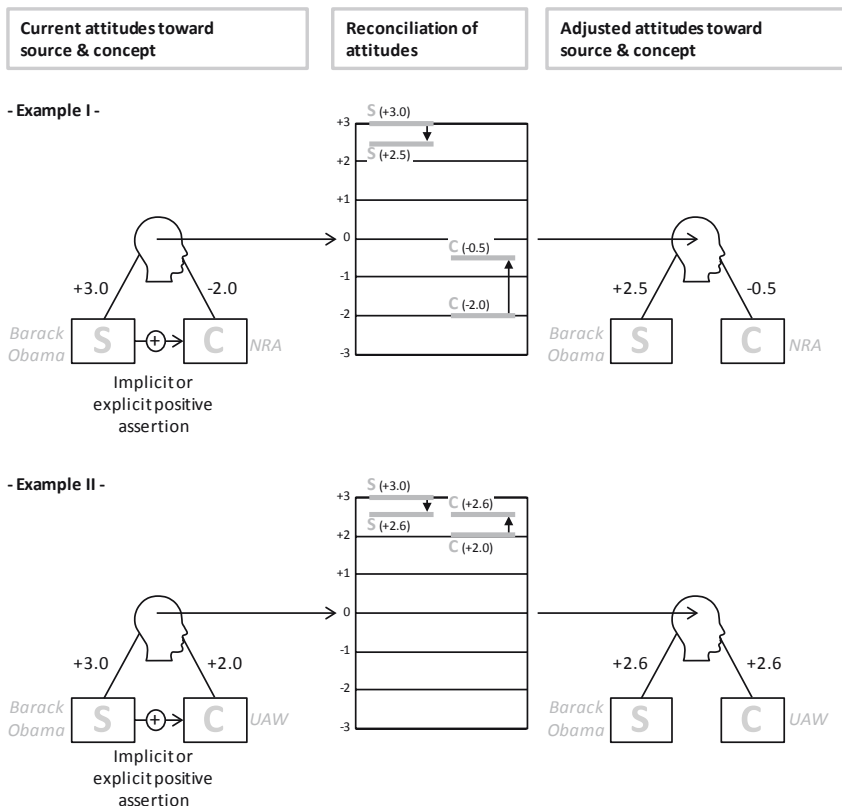


Figure 13: Two examples on reconciliation of attitudes according to Osgood and Tannenbaum's (1955) congruity theory. The figure also illustrates the differential strength of effect resulting from high (Example I) versus low (Example II) pressure toward congruity. Source: Own illustration (adopted from Osgood and Tannenbaum 1955).

The implication of congruity theory for the transfer of images between two entities is given succinctly. Again (as with balance theory) it is presumed that what has been introduced to be the source of the assertion (S) in the original congruity theory can be interpreted as just another impersonal entity similar to C. So, if one entity makes an (implicit¹) positive assertion about another entity through pairing/being paired, a certain level of pressure toward congruity will be perceived by an evaluating person as long as the attitudes this person holds toward the entities are not in accord with each other. As a remedy to this tension, forces are

¹ Explicit assertions are not considered to be made between two impersonal entities.

engendered that induce gradual attitudinal changes pertaining to both of the entities. These changes result in the convergence¹ of attitudes – a process that may be labeled image transfer (see e.g., Carrillat et al. 2010, p.114; Gwinner and Eaton 1999, p.52f.). In this sense, the beliefs and attitudes related to two paired objects or concepts are reciprocally causative (Gresham and Shimp 1985, p.11²). Since it is generally accepted that attitudes towards brands can be changed in gradual rather than absolute form when being paired in a sponsorship alliance and because it is very likely that the attitudes toward multiple brands might change simultaneously in a given alliance, congruity theory is more suitable for the explanation of the proposed image transfer effects in a sponsorship alliance compared to balance theory.

Dissonance theory by Festinger (1957) also maintains the idea that if a person holds two cognitions that are psychologically inconsistent with one another, he or she experiences discomfort and tension. Despite continued and contrasting discourse that dissonance theory has been abandoned ahead of time (e.g., Berkowitz and Devine 1989) or should be withdrawn sooner better than later (e.g., Schlenker 1992), Festinger would be astonished to find his theory to be one of the most long-lived and inspiring research paths of the cognitive consistency rubric (Kroeber-Riel et al. 2009, p.231; Crano and Prislin 2006, p.350; Petty et al. 1997, p.619; Olson and Zanna 1993, p.134). Comparable to what balance theory or congruity theory suggest this theory also holds that change of attitudes is a way to overcome psychological discomfort and reduce dissonance. However, change of attitudes towards one or both of the cognitions is but one option to soothe feelings of dissonance. In fact, alternative ways are to either acquire new information that will increase existing consonance and, thus, cause the total dissonance to be attenuated, to subtract dissonant cognitions which may also result in reduced dissonance, to increase the importance of consonant cognitions, or to forget or mitigate the importance of cognitions that are in dissonant relationship (Harmon-Jones and Harmon-Jones 2007, p.8; Frey et al. 2005, p.57f.). Other than balance theory and, especially, different from the principles of congruity, dissonance theory is not geared toward resolving

¹ Note that the notion of convergence upon attitudinal tension is only true for the case of positive assertions in congruity theory. Negative assertions may result in divergence.

² Gresham and Shimp (1985) originally referred to "reciprocal causation" in an attempt to explain the effects of balance theory. However, as reciprocity relies on the mutual influence of two entities, it seems eligible to cite this notion in the context of congruity theory (in fact, it might even be more appropriate since balance theory predicts the attitude toward only one object or concept to change upon imbalance, while congruity theory considers degree and direction of attitude change pertinent to both objects or concepts and, thus, may even better reflect the basic idea of "reciprocity").

attitudinal imbalances in the context of persuasive communication. Rather than addressing perceptual inconsistencies between attitudes toward other persons or message sources and impersonal objects or concepts, dissonant and consonant cognitions are defined in relation to a focal or generative cognition (Beauvois and Joule 1999; Mills 1999; Beauvois and Joule 1996) which usually becomes manifest in the form of a behavior (Harmon-Jones and Harmon-Jones 2007, p.8). For example, an inconsistency may arise from the irreconcilability of holding a negative attitude toward smoking ("smoking is bad because it can cause lung cancer") while being a smoker oneself ("I smoke"). In such a situation, dissonance occurs because there is a cognition that is inconsistent with the chosen course of action. Attitude change toward smoking ("Smoking may hurt others but I eat a lot of healthy food and smoking gives me pleasure anyway") might be a resort of mental relief in this situation. The action-based model of dissonance proposed by Harmon-Jones (2000; 1999) suggests that "attitude change produced by dissonance is the result of following through with the commitment to behavior"(Harmon-Jones and Harmon-Jones 2007, p.11). In other words, attitude change is viewed as a process that alleviates the execution of formerly counter-attitudinal and conflicted action. However, as a mental conflict between two cognitions with one of them being understood as overt behavior does not translate easily to the context of image transfer as sought after here, dissonance theory will not be considered an approach that is able to shed light on this issue.

Summing up the sections on the three theories of cognitive consistency, the principle of congruity as proposed by Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955) is most appropriate to explain image transfer as perceived from an attitude-based perspective. Its specific orientation toward communication and persuasion as well as its ability to predict both degree and direction of attitude change pertinent to two paired objects or concepts vest congruity theory with the qualities required for the thesis at hand and distinguish the approach from both balance theory and dissonance theory.

2.5.2 Multi-store model of memory

The multi-store model of memory (often called the modal model) initially developed by Atkinson and Shiffrin (1971; 1968) will serve as an overarching structure for organizing the sequence of mental steps taking place during associative learning. On these grounds it will be introduced prior to the chapter in which associative learning per se is explained theoretically. The multi-store model of memory holds that information processing is a cognitive procedure

that runs through three distinct memory compartments with stages connecting sensory memory with short-term memory (also referred to as working memory, see below) and short-term memory with long-term memory (see Figure 14, p.105). *Sensory memory* takes up environmental stimuli and typically holds auditory, gustatory, olfactory, tactile, and visual impressions for a maximum of a few seconds (Ashcraft and Radvansky 2010, pp.73ff. and 104ff.). That is, the mental impression persists for some time beyond the duration of the actual physical input, which allows it to be screened for importance by working memory (Zimbardo et al. 2012, p.177). In the words of Loftus and Irwin (1998) "[t]wo empirical facts are clear [...]. First, something that *looks like* the physical stimulus continues to be present for a brief time following stimulus offset. Second, *information can be acquired from the stimulus* for a brief period following stimulus offset in much the same way as it can be acquired while the stimulus is physically present" (p.136). This means that over and above the sensory memory's feature of stimulus sensation there is, in fact, a memory component immanent to sensory memory. With regard to its structure, sensory memory is pictured as being split-up into separate sensory registers, with each register accounting for one sense modality (e.g., iconic memory for visual impressions, echoic memory for acoustic impressions; see Neisser 1967 on the nomenclature of sensory registers). Furthermore, the multi-store model holds that short-term memory serves as the gateway through which information arriving from sensory memory must pass in order to ultimately be laid down in long-term memory. In this sense, short-term memory provides a means of controlling and enhancing information that will make it into long-term memory (Smith and Kosslyn 2006, p.247). Yet today, in reference to a role more dynamic than just passive storage and forwarding of information, the short-term store is usually called *working memory*. Elaborative processes such as rehearsing, coding, decision-making, evaluating, or generating retrieval strategies are accredited to that memory compartment. Thus, the notion of working memory is better able to capture the functions attributed to that specific part of the memory system, namely to be a useful workplace for complex cognitive activities (Ashcraft and Radvansky 2010, p.148) like the integrative processing of information coming from sensory memory and information being retrieved from long-term memory (Jonides et al. 2005, p.4f.) alongside with producing a response. Being in charge of such elaborate mental processes, working memory holds information for about 20-30 seconds. The concept of an active and dynamic working memory is, in fact, the principal idea of the Baddeley-Hitch model

(Baddeley 1992a; Baddeley 1992b; Baddeley and Hitch 1974). In that regard, working memory is thought of as a system comprising a central executive (i.e., a control system) and three short-term stores (i.e., phonological loop, visuospatial scratchpad, and an auxiliary system called episodic buffer) (Baddeley 2000). Finally, *long-term memory* is conceived as the relatively permanent storage vault of knowledge, experiences, skills, associations, etc. (for a widely applied taxonomy of long-term memory see Squire 1993 and 1986). Mental models of a person's environment stored in long-term memory are essential for information processing as they facilitate creation of meaning, recognition and interpretation, identification, comprehension, and further elaboration (Kroeber-Riel et al. 2009, p.277).

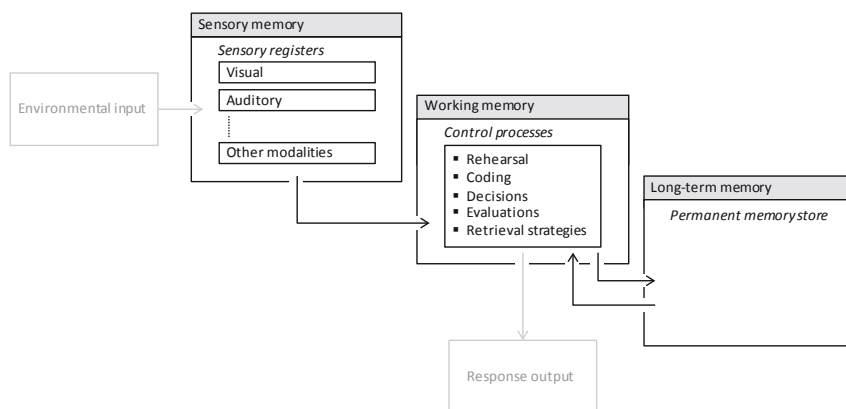


Figure 14: Information flow according to the multi-store model of memory. Source: Own illustration (adopted from Ashcraft and Radvansky 2010, p.38; Atkinson and Shiffrin 1971, p.3b; Atkinson and Shiffrin 1968, p.17).

Even though the sequential-stages three-store model by Atkinson and Shiffrin (1971; 1968) did receive considerable advancement¹ and contradiction² and the tasks of short-term memory were shown – by means of neuropsychological data – to not be of a purely controlling and transmitting (that is intermediary) nature³, it is still suitable to outline and structure human memory and information processing (Trommsdorff 2009, p.231f.) as required for discussing

¹ See e.g., the working memory refinement by Baddeley and Hitch (1974), the triangular, interactive scheme (i.e., the perceptual cycle) inspired by Neisser (1976), or the "search of associative memory"-model (SAM-model) suggested by Raaijmakers and Shiffrin (1981).

² See e.g., the "levels-of-processing"-model proposed by Craik and Lockhart (1972).

³ See e.g., Shallice and Warrington (1970) who demonstrated that after drastically impairing short-term store, patients were still able to memorize new information in long-term store in a fashion comparable to neurologically healthy people.

associative learning and for contributing to a conceptual framework like the one proposed later in this work (see chapter 3.4, p.120ff.). Thus, the three-compartment model of memory and information processing outlined before and depicted in Figure 14 is understood in the spirit of Atkinson and Shiffrin (1971; 1968) with some adaptations made where necessary (e.g., dynamic working memory instead of passive short-term memory).

2.5.3 Associative learning theory

Sponsorship is considered a learning task for the consumer (Coppetti 2004, p.49ff.; Smith 2004; Esch 2001, p.79; Glogger 1999, p.107). Referring to the cross-referential influence associative networks of multiple objects jointly appearing in a sponsorship setting may have, Cornwell (2008, p.47) has noted that, generally, understanding interactions between linked entities and other possible information nodes is paramount. With regard to the image transfer sought after by managers of sponsor brands the essential aim is to create, to refine, or to reinforce the associative network as hold in mind by customers¹ (Drengner 2006, p.85f.; Coppetti 2004, p.48). In the quest for an explanation on how an attribute cognitively linked to an object may become tied to a paired object, associative learning has been applied as a theoretical approach in adjacent veins of research like celebrity endorsement (e.g., Till and Shimp 1998), brand extensions (e.g., Broniarczyk and Alba 1994; Aaker and Keller 1990), brand alliances (e.g., Washburn et al. 2004), and advertising (e.g., Samu et al. 1999; Shimp et al. 1991; Allen and Janiszewski 1989; Kellaris and Cox 1989; Stuart et al. 1987).

Within the context of behavioral science, change is a constituent facet of learning processes. In accordance with the notion of psychological dispositions or behavioral potentials being the subject of change in learning² (Edelmann and Wittmann 2012, p.206f.; Walker 1996, p.4), learning of brand associations implies a modification of the potential behavioral outcome that inherently resides within the image of a brand in the form of an

¹ Huber (1993, p.38ff.) complements creation, refinement, and reinforcement of brand image (as conducted with the aim of positioning the brand in the marketplace) with "image forgetting" as a process through which customers may "erase" existing associative networks. Notwithstanding, this aspect is not considered as an eligible effect of associative learning here, since prompting consumers to forget about a brand image is not typically an objective sought after by brand managers but rather "just happens" due to the absence of image-building efforts. Apart from that, it is not clear if forgetting really means a loss of information from memory. There is evidence that forgetting refers to situations in which there is difficulty remembering, e.g. through failure of retrieval (see e.g., Anderson et al. 2000; MacLeod 1988; Loftus and Loftus 1980).

² Psychological dispositions or behavioral potentials can also be influenced and changed by processes other than learning: e.g. maturing, growing, aging, getting hurt/getting sick, or by medical treatment (Lefrancois 1994, p.3f.).

intentional component. Foxall and Goldsmith (1998) more directly relate to the modification of an associative network by declaring that learning is the "changes that take place within the content or organization of long-term memory" (p.76). It is important to recognize that learning does not exclusively imply a change for the better but may also mean a change for the worse (Schermer 2006, p.9f.) or, in a neutral sense, just a change compared to the given situation with no evaluative tag added to the change's direction. In the case of associative learning of brand information traits this means that a brand image may not only be affected for the better but may also be hurt if the marketing-mix and its execution are misguided (see e.g., Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran 1998; John et al. 1998; Shocker 1995; Loken and John 1993 for examples of brand image dilution through brand extension or co-branding strategies), or may just be altered.

Learning theories are typically separated into two schools of thought ideologically opposing the idea of an animalistic, automated, and behavioristic process versus the belief in a human, reasoned, and cognitive process (Trommsdorff 2009, p.241; Foxall et al. 1998, p.75ff.). In other words, behavioral theories conceptualize learning as largely unconscious, mechanistic changes in "psychological dispositions" or mental content, which are subject to low levels of cognitive control (De Houwer et al. 2003; De Houwer et al. 2001). A direct relationship between a stimulus and the response is posited for these learning models, going largely without active mental participation (the direct relationship gives rise to the assignment of this understanding to the domain of stimulus-response theories or S-R theories; see also chapter 3.2, p.116ff.). Conversely, cognitive theories view learning as mainly a conscious mental activity and emphasize deliberate mental construction of knowledge (Mayer 1996, p.153f.). An indirect effect from a stimulus onto a response is posited for these learning models, including active mental participation and processing within the organism (the indirect relationship via intervening variables inside the organism gives rise to the assignment of this understanding to the domain of stimulus-organism-response theories or S-O-R theories¹; see also chapter 3.3, p.119f.). However, a strict partitioning of behavioral and cognitive learning theories is not supported these days. In retrospect, variations in learning theories have been developed and advanced building on preceding theories (Behrens 1991, p.251), with frequent conceptual overlap resulting in a lack of separation accuracy. Equal

¹ On the assignment of the behavioral understanding of learning to the domain of S-R theories and the assignment of the cognitive understanding of learning to the domain of S-O-R theories see Andres (2003, p.101ff.) and Glogger (1999, p.110ff.).

empirical findings can often be explained using alternative theoretical approaches. This suggests a considerable degree of commonality between the behavioral and cognitive theories of learning (Kroeber-Riel et al. 2009, p.376). One peculiarity relating to this coalescence of paradigms is the acceptance of (supplemental doses) of cognitive processing as elements of learning types that have initially been labeled purely behavioral or nonconscious (Glogger 1999, p.112; Lynch and Srull 1982). This is of import with regard to the recognition of cognitive elaboration of sponsorship stimuli occurring alongside affective processing. Typically, sponsorship stimuli sensation, perception, attention, elaboration, and encoding are expected to be low involvement tasks for the regular audience (Chien et al. 2011, p.143; Fleck and Quester 2007, p.979; Cornwell et al. 2005, p.23ff.; McDaniel 1999, p.172), yielding an affective learning process on a peripheral (rather than central) route in accordance with the behavioral paradigm (Petty et al. 1983). Yet, it has been argued repeatedly that consumers being little involved with the message may be pursued on the cognitive route supplemental to the affective route (and, of course, highly involved consumers may be pursued on the affective route supplemental to the cognitive route) (Kroeber-Riel and Weinberg 1999, p.596ff.). In effect, the potential interlacing of affective and cognitive learning processes is accepted for the purpose of this thesis. This means that associative learning theory as applied here is not understood in a purely behavioral sense as it has been traditionally, owing to its conceptual relationship with classical conditioning (Till 1998, p.406), but that the learning process is assigned to the S-O-R paradigm through the acquiescence of cognitive components. Shimp et al. (1991) support this view and advocate the idea that "[a] modern, fully cognitive perspective treats classical conditioning as cognitive associative learning – that is, the learning of relations among events in the environment – and supplants the historical view that conditioning is simply reflexive, simple-minded learning" (p.1, likewise Shimp 1991, p.166). Years ago, Hare (1964) noted with regard to image transfer in a similar sense that "[i]n general, the present results suggest that it may be more appropriate to consider transfer of meanings as involving cognitive processes rather than classical conditioning in the traditional sense" (p.205).

Before outlining the process of image transfer as well as its mental representation as understood from the theory of associative learning, it is deemed appropriate to provide a brief rationale for the selection of this theory in the context of image transfer in sponsorship. First and as already mentioned above, associative learning has been successfully applied in

adjacent veins of research like celebrity endorsement, brand extensions, brand alliances, and advertising. Building on the comparability of scientific aims, namely to elucidate if and how latent variables like image, meaning, belief, or feelings may be transferred from one entity to the other (e.g., from the celebrity to the endorsed product), appropriateness of associative learning as the theoretical underpinning of image transfer in sponsorship can be presumed. Second, image transfer in sponsorship is often understood as the transfer of associations attributed to the sponsored activity onto the sponsor brand (Schnitka 2010, p.125; Huber et al. 2008, p.75; Gwinner 1997) or, as for the context of a sponsorship alliance, the transfer of associations between two brands concurrently sponsoring the same property. It is commonly held that such a rub-off from one entity to another entity can be accomplished by closely linking the sponsor brand to the property (Grohs et al. 2004, p.123f.) or to another sponsor brand the recipient values highly. The basic principle coming into effect here, namely the mental connection between a stimulus (e.g., a sponsor brand) and a response (e.g., a favorable valuation building on positive attributes) through simultaneous presentation of two entities (e.g., two sponsor brands) can unambiguously be attributed to associative learning (Glogger 1999, p.113).

Subsequently, associative learning will be explained by reference to classical (Pavlovian) conditioning (Pavlov 1927) which has been appointed a representative example of basic associative learning (Till 1998, p.406). Classical conditioning relies on the principle of an external link-up between a stimulus and an overt reaction. The essential idea of classical conditioning is that a stimulus (conditioned stimulus) can become linked to an overt outcome such as a physiological reflex (unconditioned response) which has been, at first, the exclusive reaction to another stimulus (unconditioned stimulus). If the two stimuli are repeatedly presented together, the conditioned stimulus develops predictive qualities for the unconditioned stimulus and may come to elicit the response (conditioned response) when presented alone (McSweeney and Bierley 1984, p.619). Thus, learning occurs if the conditioned stimulus reliably and predictably signals the occurrence of the unconditioned stimulus (Smith and Kosslyn 2006, p.235). In terms of image transfer between two entities this means that if entity A becomes predictive of entity B with which it is repeatedly paired, information traits exclusively linked to the associative network of entity B at first may become integrated into the associative network of entity A.

The basic principle of associative learning as prevalent in a model assuming that customers are merely creating links between co-occurring cues (and are not explicitly motivated to learn about a specific cue-outcome relation¹) has been simplified in the sense of Hebbian learning (Hebb 1961; Hebb 1949) as "what fires together, wires together"² (van Osselaer and Janiszewski 2001, p.205). That is, all elements being simultaneously retrieved from memory are cross-referenced by establishing simple associations that are strengthened each time the two elements appear together (Carrillat et al. 2005, p.52; van Osselaer and Janiszewski 2001, p.205). Glogger (1999, p.111) argues that the creation of a mental path between two or more cognitive elements through associative learning is related to classical conditioning in that the two processes build on comparable psychological mechanisms. While in classical conditioning a connection between a neutral stimulus (i.e., the conditioned stimulus) and an overt reaction or a reflex (i.e., the conditioned reaction) is built through transfer of the predictive meaning from an established stimulus (i.e., the unconditioned stimulus), associative learning contends that such a transfer takes place between two stimuli with regard to the cognitive content retrieved from an individual's mind upon perception of these stimuli. In other words, associative learning builds on a comparable psychological mechanism as classical conditioning does, yet substitutes an internal link-up between a stimulus and a non-overt, mental response for the external link-up to an overt reaction or reflex. Akin to classical conditioning, the mechanism of associative learning is reliant on close proximity of the cues in space and time (i.e., spatio-temporal contiguity) (Rydell and Jones 2009; Schermer 2006, p.25ff.; see also Rescorla 1988 for a critical discussion on the role of contiguity).

In correspondence to the multi-store model of memory (see chapter 2.5.2, p.103ff.) and inferring from the theory of spreading activation as outlined above (see chapter 2.4.4, p.78ff.), the mental representation of transfer of cognitive content from one entity to another entity is portrayed to proceed as follows (unless indicated otherwise the following description

¹ A model of learning with interaction of cues (e.g., the price of a product) used to predict specific outcomes (e.g., the quality of a product) was coined "adaptive learning" by Van Osselaer and Janiszewski (2001). A feedback mechanism from the actually perceived outcome to the predictive cues is established in order to adapt the predictive power of these cues with regard to the actual outcome.

² This saying was originally coined by Carla Shatz, Professor of Biology and Neurobiology at Stanford University, in a neuroscientific context as "cells that fire together, wire together". This means that groups of neurons that have (repeatedly) been activated together through some external or internal cue may lay down such activation patterns in the form of neural connections in the brain which, in effect, fosters future joint activation of neurons grouped that way.

relies on Glogger 1999, p.125ff. as well as Zimbardo et al. 2012, Ashcraft and Radvansky 2010, and Smith and Kosslyn 2007). Initially, in the course of *sensation* and *perception* the physical stimulus emitted from one entity (e.g., a picture or a musical instrument) is taken up into the accordant register of *sensory memory* (e.g., visual register, auditory register) where some sort of temporary buffer holds that information for a very short period of time¹. Of course, it is rather the neural representation of the stimulus than the actual (physical) stimulus that forms this lasting sensory impression. During this very short time-period the brain's perceptual machinery is about to attach meaning to the incoming sensory information, that is, preliminary tasks are conducted in an attempt to recognize and interpret the perceived entity (e.g., recognition of visual or auditory patterns). If the piece of information elaborated so far is selected for further processing, it is transferred into *working memory*. This forwarding task is governed by the process of *attention*. If no attention is attributed to the piece of information it will be filtered out and fades away². Attention means that mental resources are allocated to a distinct stimulus, which allows for the identification of the entity, be it a simple sensual impression, an idea, or a complex concept. Concentration of mental resources as understood here encompasses such activities as focusing attention on and driving "the mental event of remembering, searching for information stored in memory, and attempting to comprehend" (Ashcraft and Radvansky 2010, p.113). Sensation, perception and subsequent attention to an entity have lifted this entity's central node and some very tightly attached propositional nodes (e.g., nodes that help categorized the entity) from a state of rest to a state of activity³ – that is, upon cueing the main information required for recognition, interpretation, identification and comprehension are *retrieved* from long-term memory to working memory in order to be processed. As suggested by the process of spreading activation (see p.79f.) the initial activation spreads along the network links to adjacent propositional nodes and, by doing so, elicits the informational content of these nodes to the working memory system too. Retrieval from long-term memory carries on until no additional nodes are triggered and lifted to

¹ See Averbach and Sperling (1961, Sperling 1960) and Crowder and Morton (1969), respectively, for three examples of classical studies on the persistence of visual and auditory information in sensory memory.

² See Broadbent (1958) and Treisman (1964; 1960), respectively, for filter models of selective attention that do not (Broadbent) and do accept (Treisman) the idea of unattended stimuli being able to "slip through" the selective filter and be identified. See Lachter et al. (2004) for a review and empirical testing on these opposing positions.

³ Associative network memory theory suggests that the relationship strength between nodes is indicative for the magnitude of spreading activation (Chien et al. 2011, p.143).

working memory because the total of their (individual) incoming excitement does not exceed the threshold required for activation or the capacity limit of working memory has been reached¹. That way, spreading activation may bring back to working memory a host of details about an earlier encounter with the entity. As the mental picture that evolves is collaboratively generated from retrieved elements directly attributable to the perceived physical world as well as from non-perceived parts recalled from long-term memory through spreading activation, this retrieval process yields the completion of mental patterns (Nakazawa et al. 2002; McClelland et al. 1995, p.40f.). In research on cognition, the hypothesis of pattern completion has led to the assumption of recapitulation, that is, the pattern of activation that has emerged during encoding into long-term memory is suggested to be reproduced during the retrieval process. In fact, striking similarity in activation patterns for encoding and retrieval of pictures or sounds have been observed in neuroimaging studies (Nyberg et al. 2000; Wheeler et al. 2000). Now, with the subjective mental picture of the first entity activated, an equivalent cascade of processes elicits (parts of) the associative network for a second entity that is sensed, perceived and attended to concurrently with the first entity. Eventually, the associative networks or parts of the associative networks of two entities simultaneously "light up" in working memory. As a result of repetitive simultaneous activation of these two entities' informational nodes in working memory as well as the accordant joint *elaboration* on these juxtaposed information parcels, new links can be established. These new links possibly will connect the two central nodes of the entities, but could also be established between the central node of one entity and one or multiple content nodes of the other entity, or may directly bridge the gap between formerly unconnected content nodes. Finally, the modified associative networks of the two entities become stored, that is, they are *encoded into long-term memory*. The introduction of novel attributes into an associative network either yields a newly created image (which may be a rare case) or causes refinement within an existing image. If no novel attributes are linked to a network but the transferred information trait rather amplifies what a person already knows or feels about an entity, the modification brings about a reinforcement of an existing association. In other words, the transfer of associations from one entity to another may result in creation, refinement, or reinforcement of images. Stabilization of the modified mental representations

¹ George A. Miller stated this capacity limit aptly in his famous 1956 article: "The Magical Number Seven, Plus or Minus Two: Some Limits on Our Capacity for Processing Information".

of the entities in question is called *consolidation* – that is, the fixing of memory on these entities in the neural architecture. Figuratively spoken, this means that the associative networks of two distinct entities are knitted together.

Essentially, the image of each one of the paired entities may be created, refined, or reinforced by attaching propositional nodes of the respective other entity. The mechanism of mutual spill-over and attachment of propositional nodes as outlined before underscores the reciprocity assumed for the image transfer process (Glogger 1999, p.69) from the perspective of associative learning. With regard to image transfer relations in a sponsorship alliance the reciprocity of the process is of major significance because, as will be purported by means of the research model, the "classic" transfer direction emanating from the sponsorship property and ending at the sponsor brand (see Figure 18, p.155; hypothesis H5) will be complemented by the vice versa image spillover flowing from the sponsor brands to the sponsorship property (see hypotheses H2 and H4).

A brief summary of the two theoretical approaches from which image transfer is explained here reads as follows. *First, associative learning*, a theoretical approach that has experienced impetus from cognitive psychology, provides an explanation for image transfer building on the argument of exchange of associations or propositional nodes. Such cross-referencing may take place upon concurrent activation and joint elaboration of associative networks pertaining to two (or more) entities in short-term memory. Eventually, new links between central and propositional nodes are established and stored in long-term memory. As such, associative learning theory gives a rationale for how the personality of one branded element may imbue a paired element. *Second, congruity theory* as springing from social psychology relies on a mechanism that yields reduction of mental discomfort and tension resulting from perceived dissonance between two entities paired in some way. The manner in which mental harmony between incongruous entities is established is through reconciliation and assimilation of attitudes. The principle of congruity is the most suitable approach from the group of cognitive consistency theories because it is specifically oriented toward communication and persuasion, predicts both degree and direction of attitude change, and anticipates such outcome individually for both of the entities involved (e.g., the focal sponsor and the co-sponsor or the focal sponsor and the sponsorship property).

3 Conceptual Framework

In the following chapter a conceptual framework of image transfer in a sponsorship alliance is going to be developed with the objective to both present the key variables under investigation and portray preliminary assumptions regarding the relationships between these variables. The framework builds on the stimulus-organism-response (S-O-R) paradigm and incorporates the principles of congruity as well as the multi-store model of memory and associative learning. As a terminal outcome it will provide a graphical illustration of cause-effect relations assumed to represent the interplay between environmental stimuli, organismic processes, and a customer's response occurring upon a person's encounter of a sponsorship alliance. Hence, the conceptual framework prepares the ground for the development of the research model on image transfer in a sponsorship alliance that will then be presented in the subsequent chapter (see chapter 4, p.139ff.).

3.1 Objectives and guiding principles of a conceptual framework

According to Kubicek (1977, p.17) any scientific endeavor is in need of a conceptual framework in order to illustrate the researcher's preconception on the issue under scrutiny and for providing a specific perspective that will facilitate mental and linguistic recognition of the problem. The preconception that guides framework development is usually ascribed to the school of thought in academia internalized and approved by the researcher himself or herself as well as to the professional and private socialization he or she went through and experienced.

A conceptual framework can be understood as a preliminary or intermediate theory that is used to present a preferred approach towards an idea or thought and to surmise on potential interdependencies among theoretical concepts and dimensions (for a comprehensive overview on objectives and guiding principles of framework development see e.g., Kirsch 1984; Kubicek 1977; Wollnik 1977). Thereby the framework serves a structuring purpose and supports reduction of complexity that may arise from the plethora of theories and empirical insights in a specific field of research. Furthermore, it alleviates scientific communication with regard to the conduct of research as well as concerning the findings. As a precursor to the research model a conceptual framework encompasses theoretical constructs that are considered to be included in empirical inquiry or theory development and, thus, provides a regime for subsequent hypothesis development. Consequently, a framework also

makes an implicit assertion on which constructs are omitted from further analysis. The standards concerning consistency in logic as well as accuracy in operationalization are less stringent than the requirements imposed onto a system of hypotheses.

Formally a conceptual framework can be represented as a diagram consisting of boxes as well as arrows and simple lines connecting the boxes (Kubicek 1977, p.18). The boxes represent the concepts and dimensions deemed relevant for the research attempt. Assumptions regarding cause-effect relations, temporal dependencies, functional processes, or any other supposition on relatedness and connection between concepts and dimensions are graphically depicted through arrows and lines. The entirety of such a sketch defines the theoretical perspective and can act like a map that gives coherence to the inquiry.

In compliance with a central requisite concerning the construction of a conceptual framework as suggested by Kubicek (1977, p.22f.), the paradigm that will govern the development of the framework as well as an alternative theoretical standpoint are going to be presented next. Specifically, the S-R paradigm that is mainly inspired by behavioristic thought and the S-O-R paradigm that extends on the former by allowing for mental processes to intervene between environmental stimuli and consumer response will be discussed. Glogger (1999, p.95) emphasizes that the selection of one of these paradigms is decisive for the development of a research framework because it defines the general approach to problem solving for a study grounded in the behavioral sciences. As will be pointed out, the S-O-R paradigm is the framework of choice for the purpose of this research endeavor because it overcomes the most critical shortcomings of an S-R approach.

3.2 The behaviorist S-R paradigm

Behaviorism was an immensely popular research paradigm or methodological commitment among scholars from about the second decade of the 20th century through its middle decade, at least until the advent of cognitive psychology (Bechtel and Graham 1998, p.15ff.). Behaviorism as a school of psychology (Amsel 1989) is confined to the assessment, analysis, and interpretation of overt behavior that result from the impingement of environmental stimuli upon animals¹ (Kroeber-Riel et al. 2009, p.34). In a radical sense² behaviorists

¹ The specification of the term animals as understood here is from a purely biological perspective and, hence, includes human beings.

² Radical behaviorism has most prominently been represented by B. F. Skinner (see e.g., Skinner 1977; Skinner 1974).

contended that psychology is the science of behavior only but not the science of mind. It was claimed that any behavior "can be described and explained without making ultimate reference to mental events or to internal psychological processes. The sources of behavior are external (in the environment), not internal (in the mind, in the head)" (Graham 2010, p.2). This doctrine-like point of view implies a purely functional input-output type of relationship between sensual impressions and accordant overt reactions. The science of consumer behavior did refer to this mechanistic mode of operation as the stimulus-response (S-R) paradigm. Equal stimuli are proposed to result in equal responses (*ceteris paribus*), independent from individual factors. The significance of mental processes and, accordingly, interindividual differences are minimized to the point of irrelevancy. Essentially, consumer behavior is conceptualized as the reaction "to external stimuli much as cue balls react to the angle and speed of the impact of a cue stick" (Jacoby 2002, p.51). This means that consumer research inspired by the S-R paradigm accepts instruments of the marketing-mix like an advertising campaign, a package design, or the combination of distribution channels, be they deliberately selected and created or may they vary by nature, taking the role of independent variables that exert a direct impact on overt consumer reaction like choice, purchase activity, or consumption (Glogger 1999, p.96; see also Figure 15).



Figure 15: The behaviorist S-R paradigm as applied in research on consumer behavior. Source: Own illustration (adopted from Glogger 1999, p.97).

With regard to the "black-box" (Meffert et al. 2012, p.103) interposed between stimulus and response it is, however, not the case that behaviorism denies the existence of the mental dimension as it has erroneously been contended by some authors (see e.g., Moore 2008). Rather do behaviorists perceive the mind as something that cannot be demonstrated to exist (Zimbardo et al. 2012, p.16f.; Baum 2011, p.124). Allowance for mental dimensions may be documented by theoretical concepts such as "cognitive maps" and "habit strength" being introduced as a consequence of behavioristic studies conducted by researchers like Edward C. Tolman (see e.g., Tolman 1948; Tolman and Honzik 1930) and Clark L. Hull (see e.g., Hull 1943), respectively. These concepts are reminiscent of the notion of intervening

variables that have been suggested by neobehaviorists as an extension to the behaviorists' pure input-output model. In contrast to the contention of specifying the S-O-R paradigm as neobehavioristic put forth by some consumer behavior theorists (e.g., Kroeber-Riel et al. 2009, p.34; Trommsdorff 2009, p.152) as well as applied researchers in the field of sponsorship and event-marketing (e.g., Nitschke 2006, p.67ff.; Glogger 1999, p.97ff.), the S-O-R framework as understood here is much more in the spirit of cognitive psychology¹ (see subsequent chapter 3.3). The underlying reason is the focus of the work at hand on the cognitive, mental, hence organismic, dimension of sponsorship effects (i.e., the transfer of brand attitudes and brand associations in consumers' minds), while neobehaviorism is still mainly oriented towards observable stimuli and overt behavior. In this context Suppes (1975) assigns a rather complementary than focal role to internal processes in neobehaviorism by declaring that "[f]or the present, I want to make the essential behavioral feature of neobehaviorism the retention of stimuli and responses as central on the one hand, and the introduction of unobservable internal structures as the 'neo' component on the other" (p.270). Since cognitive activity plays an important part for scrutiny and explanation of image transfer effects for this work's purpose, the ideas and concepts of neobehaviorism are too narrowly considered – let alone the ambit of behaviorism.

The major shortcoming of the S-R paradigm as to its application in consumer behavior research emerges from the assumed functional relationship of stimuli and responses. In the context of human behavior this assumption is rarely fulfilled. In fact, equal stimuli might elicit non-equal reactions. This implies that one and the same stimulus can result in dissimilar reactions of, respectively, two persons or one person at different points of time. Furthermore, different stimuli might be cognitively processed in ways that result in equal ultimate behavior – an outcome that would hardly be alleageable through inferring output from input only. Thus, human behavior is apparently not exclusively determined by exogenous stimuli but also by mental processes (Kroeber-Riel et al. 2009, p.34). In accordance with the idea put forth by Kubicek (1977, p.17) that the researcher's academic school of thought guides framework development, it is the deep belief of the natural sciences-bred author in the existence and detectability of mental events (if not to say brain processes) intervening with impinging stimuli that leads to accepting the S-O-R paradigm and, consequently, rejecting the S-R

¹ As a matter of fact, Meffert et al. (2012, p.103) classify neobehavioristic research as one approach within the broader category of cognitive research approaches.

paradigm for the course of this work. For reasons pointed out above, the notion of neobehaviorism is renounced here, even though the phrase "neobehaviorist S-O-R paradigm" is still a common one (see e.g., Kroeber-Riel et al. 2009, p.17). Instead, in an attempt to emphasize mental processing, the framework this study builds on is referred to as the "cognitivist S-O-R paradigm". It will be outlined in the following chapter.

3.3 The cognitivist S-O-R paradigm

Influenced by an abundance of relevant findings in the social sciences, particularly in psychology, a second generation of consumer behavior models emerged in the mid 1960s (Jacoby 2002, p.51). Work on information processing gave rise to what later became known as the "cognitive revolution" (Hoffman and Deffenbacher 1992, p.22). Psychologists became accustomed to the relevance of mental processes and developed an interest in talking about and doing research on things that go on "inside the head" (Simon and Newell 1971, p.147). This research and theorizing fit well with the new information-processing viewpoint on human problem solving.

Consequently, the cognitivist S-O-R paradigm acknowledges the mediating role of mental processes and inserts the realm of organism as a linking element between input (i.e., stimulus) and output (i.e., response). This link is conceptualized in the sense of hypothetical intermediary processes called intervening variables (Kroeber-Riel et al. 2009, p.34). Intervening variables are proposed to either allow for explaining interindividual or intertemporal differences in reactions to identical stimuli or give rise to understanding equal reactions upon encounter of different stimuli. Depending on the complexity of intervening variables comprehensive models of consumer behavior are distinguished from partial models. Comprehensive models aim at capturing all of the intervening variables pertaining to the realm of organism (see Howard and Sheth 1969 and Engel, Kollat and Blackwell 1968 for examples) while partial models are limited to the constructs deemed relevant for the specificities of the context at hand. Due to its focus on a narrow selection of cognitive processes (i.e., congruity assessment/attitude reconciliation and associative learning) the framework for the thesis at hand is considered to be a partial model.

Extending on the depiction of the S-R paradigm, the basic principle of the S-O-R paradigm as conceptualized for consumer behavior research is given in Figure 16. Obviously, the realm of organism representing the cognitive processes has been inserted here.

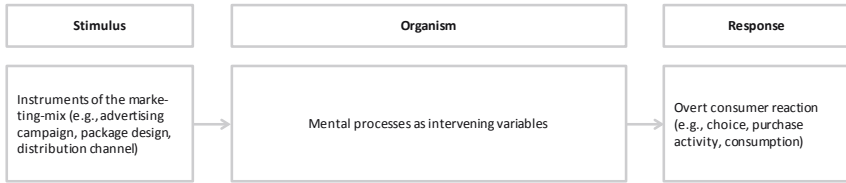


Figure 16: The cognitivist S-O-R paradigm as applied in research on consumer behavior. Source: Own illustration (adopted from Glogger 1999, p.98).

Next, the cognitivist S-O-R paradigm will be applied for developing the conceptual framework of image transfer in a sponsorship alliance. Thereby a particular emphasis is placed on the organismic process of image transfer among the brands making up the alliance.

3.4 Application of the cognitivist S-O-R paradigm on image transfer in a sponsorship alliance

Building this investigation on the foundation provided by the S-O-R paradigm requires identification and elucidation of the central constructs and dimensions in each of the three realms that constitute the framework. Furthermore, a preliminary view onto assumptions regarding cause-effect relations, temporal dependencies, functional processes, or any other type of relatedness must be depicted graphically. However, it should be noted that the assignment of constructs and dimensions to the realms of stimulus, organism, or response is an ambiguous task. Jacoby (2002) provides some very illustrative examples on how models of consumer behavior remain vague and indefinite in delineating the realms and in assigning variables to one of them. Accordingly, he notes that "it sometimes becomes difficult to determine whether certain constructs belong to the stimulus realm, the response realm, or the realm of the organism" (p.52) and that a related limitation of S-O-R frameworks that conjures up confusion is "the failure to grasp or accommodate for the fact that certain phenomena may be both stimuli and responses" (p.52). As will be seen in the course of this discussion, allocation of the brand image construct to the realm of response rather than to the realm of organism is affected by this type of equivocality.

The order of the realms' exposition as outlined subsequently is set by explanatory convenience as felt by the author. First, the realm of stimulus as it presents itself in the distinct context of a sponsorship property being tied to two sponsor brands is briefly exhibited. Second, and as brought up above, throughout the discussion on the realm of response the center of attention will be on advocating for a non-overt construct (i.e., brand

image) to serve as a variable representing consumer reaction. Third, illumination of structure and processes pertaining to the realm of organism will provide the chain link between stimulus and response. The process of image transfer in a sponsorship alliance as suggested by, respectively, the principles of congruity and associative learning theory are going to be outlined. Additionally, the role of brand image fit, brand familiarity, and awareness of the stimulus will be highlighted as organismic constructs. Subsequent to the chapters outlining the three realms, a synthesis is drawn with an illustration of the conceptual framework of image transfer in a sponsorship alliance (see chapter 3.5, p.135ff.).

3.4.1 The realm of stimulus

In a framework of consumer behavior the stimulus is an element of the marketing-mix or any other environmental input external to the person that rouses or incites physiological and/or mental activity (Jacoby 2002, p.54; Sherman et al. 1997, p.365; Bagozzi 1986, p.46). It comes quite naturally that within the given context of this thesis the sponsorship alliance represents the stimulus that impinges upon consumers. For the purpose of this study, a sponsorship alliance has been characterized as the joint presentation of a sponsorship property brand and two or more sponsor brands through side-by-side signage or concurrent presentation in media. This implies that the most parsimonious sponsorship alliance comprises three constituting components: the focal sponsor brand (i.e., the sponsor brand to which image is presumably transferred), the co-sponsor brand, and the sponsorship property brand (see chapter 2.3, p.53ff.). Remember that the notations of focal sponsor and co-sponsor, respectively, are only used to semantically differentiate the sponsor brand to which image is presumably transferred (the focal sponsor) from the sponsor brand that may serve as a source of image transfer in the model (the co-sponsor). In terms of the conceptual framework to be developed here this means that "focal sponsor brand image" is the phrasing selected for naming the outcome or response variable, while "co-sponsor brand image" is the term chosen to label one of the predictor variables (see also chapter 2.3, p.53ff.).

The message conveyed to the consumers entails the brand identities of each of these constituting brands. In accordance with the identity-based approach to brand management (see chapter 2.1, p.19ff.), the image of a brand is what happens to be created inside the consumers' heads while the identity represents the features and characteristics that have been deliberately planned by a brand manager to be emanated by the branded product or service in order for that image creation to take place. Above, these two angles have been discussed as

the delineation of the internal dimension (i.e., brand manager/identity) versus the external dimension (i.e., consumer/image) (see p.19). It is important to adhere to that discrimination at this point. Consequentially the realm of stimulus as it occurs in a sponsorship alliance is composed by the particular identities of the focal sponsor brand, the co-sponsor brand, and the sponsorship property brand. Figure 17 (p.137) illustrates the sponsorship alliance stimulus by visualizing the distinct identities that have been created for each of the three constituting brands in the form of solid, black, and bold typeface letters F (focal sponsor brand), C (co-sponsor brand), and P (sponsorship property brand). It is these three brand identities the consumer is touched by – either on-site or off-site via a variety of media.

3.4.2 The realm of response

With regard to the conceptualization of the realm of response it is important to understand that conventional S-O-R models usually regard observable consumer behavior as the ultimate response (Kroeber-Riel et al. 2009, p.17). For example, the final behavioral reaction to a promotional activity like instore-sampling of goods might be enhanced purchasing activity (which obviously is an observable and measurable outcome). Facilitation of consumer purchasing activity could be considered an ultimate behavioral response to a sponsorship engagement too, as far as the customer- and sales-oriented objectives of sponsorship are concerned (see chapter 2.2.4, p.41ff.). Nevertheless, due to the complexities and high efforts in measuring changes in final observable consumer behavior and paying tribute to the improbability of such alterations to take place within the time span of the investigation (Nitschke 2006, p.81), real consumer purchasing activity is abandoned from the range of measured constructs in the realm of response. Instead, the mentally consolidated brand image of the focal sponsor brand is included into the framework as a construct of enduring nature. That is, brand image is substituted for overt behavioral reaction as the pertinent response variable. The two following arguments support this attempt. First, a causal relationship between brand image and actual purchase activity can be assumed as was accentuated above through elaborating on the widely accepted belief of social psychologists that attitudes can guide behavior (see chapter 2.4.3, p.72ff.). Moreover, the manner in which favorability, strength, and uniqueness of brand associations exert behavioral relevance and provide for competitive advantage has been outlined in the excursus on customer-based brand equity (see p.89ff.). In general, the importance of brand knowledge in memory for consumer decision-making or for developing behavioral predispositions and intentions is well

documented from both a theoretical (see e.g., Erdem et al. 1999; Alba et al. 1991) and an empirical (see e.g., Faircloth et al. 2001; Yoo et al. 2000; Cobb-Walgren et al. 1995; Krishnan and Chakravarti 1993) perspective. Second, numerous authors hold the view that not only final purchase behavior is of relevance as a variable of consumer reaction but also its mental precursors (Schweiger and Schrattenecker 2005, p.20; see Jacoby 2002, p.55 for an example). For example, in their comprehensive model on consumer behavior Howard and Sheth (1969) account for the attitude construct to be both internal to the organism as well as representing some form of response. Likewise, Glogger (1999, p.101) introduces brand image as an internal response variable – labeled "R" with the quotation marks signifying a response character different from its meaning as a truly overt reaction – in the suggested framework on image transfer in sponsorship. This adjustment to the fundamental concept of the S-O-R paradigm has been adopted for several studies in the fields of sponsorship/event-marketing or co-branding (see e.g., Drengner 2006, p.135f.; Nitschke 2006, pp.68f. and 81; Woisetschläger 2006, p.80ff.; Huber 2005, p.62; Andres 2003, p.46). The study at hand adheres to the two arguments put forth here by introducing the non-overt construct of brand image as the outcome variable. It must be noted that the notion of brand image as applied here is restricted to the symbolic (as opposed to utilitarian) associations linked to a brand. In contrast to classical advertising, transferred content in sponsorship is mainly attributable to the symbolic or connotative dimension, while utilitarian or denotative characteristics of a brand are rather unlikely to be of much import (Gierl and Kirchner 1999, p.32f.; Glogger 1999, p.80; Quester and Farrelly 1998, p.540; Bruhn 1994, p.1139). Since two brands that sponsor the same entity usually differ with regard to the product categories they belong to¹, these brands might share only a limited number of factual and tangible denotations. However, sponsor and co-sponsor may have in common – though do not necessarily share appraisal of – a relevant number of evaluative and intangible connotations. As an example, it is rather unlikely to find two beer brands sponsoring the same property and, possibly, transferring the denotative association encompassing information on alcohol content. However, it might well be that a beer brand and the brand of a financial institution share a common property and, thus, interact with regard to a connotative association such as "dynamic". This line of reasoning renders

¹ Sponsorship policies of corporations often comprise exclusivity claims for their brands with regard to the presence of direct competitors from within or close to these brands' product categories. These claims are mirrored in product category-related exclusivity guarantees included in most of the sponsorship proposals issued by sponsees.

investigation of a potential spillover of utilitarian brand associations irrelevant and argues the case for restricting this research on the symbolic traits of brand images. If not stated otherwise, from this point onward the notion of brand image refers to the subjective, symbolic, and intangible information chunks associated with a brand name.

Concluding, it should be underscored that the brand image construct has been conceptualized from both the attitude-based and the associative network-based perspective (see chapters 2.4.3, p.72ff. and 2.4.4, p.78ff.) which, in effect, makes the attitude and the associative network of the focal sponsor brand the response variables of interest. The mere definition of the focal sponsor, namely to be "the sponsor brand to which image is presumably transferred", qualifies this entity to be included into the realm of response, while there is no need to entitle either the co-sponsor brand or the sponsorship property brand to that realm. Possible effects on these latter entities' images are out of the present study's scope. Hence, Figure 17 (p.137) illustrates how both attitude toward the focal sponsor brand and the consolidated associative network hold for the focal sponsor brand represent the final "response" variables (with the quotation marks pointing to the fact that the response relates to a mental rather than to an overt behavioral reaction).

3.4.3 The realm of organism

Mental processes occurring inside a consumer's head upon sensation of a sponsorship alliance are supposed to represent the chain link between the environmental input embodied by the distinct identities of the three brands that constitute the alliance and the output that was framed as, respectively, the attitude and the associative network pertinent to the focal sponsor brand. This chapter will elucidate the specificities of these internal processes by building on the two theoretical mainstays of image transfer that have been exposed above: congruity theory (see chapter 2.5.1, p.94ff.) and associative learning theory (see chapter 2.5.3, p.106ff.). In addition, brand image fit and brand familiarity will be introduced into the framework as two intervening variables affecting the process of image transfer, while awareness of the stimulus is going to be presented as a necessary condition instigating the cascade of mental processes scrutinized here.

The system of intervening variables, that is the entirety of psychological processes taking place within the organism has been structured and conceptualized by several authors with no consensus reached so far. However, this is to be expected given the hypothetical nature of most of these variables as well as the difficulty in their demarcation arising from

such vagueness (Glogger 1999, p.99). In accordance to the understanding of image transfer as advocated throughout this thesis Kroeber-Riel et al. (2009, p.51ff.) argue for separating activating processes from cognitive processes¹. Activating processes are associated with arousal and inner exertion that result in alertness and ability to perform and are said to drive behavior. Through purporting attitudes as a construct potentially prompting arousal and exertion (ibid., p.210ff.), these authors' concept of activating processes concurs with congruity theory's mental tension that has been suggested to initiate reconciliation of attitudes (see chapter 2.5.1, p.94ff.). Cognitive processes, on the other hand, are interpreted as mental procedures that (allow for) control and steering of behavior (ibid., p.274ff.). At this point it should be noted that the notion of cognition as conceptualized for the purpose of this study's theoretical foundations is not equivalent to the notion of deliberate and rational thought as it is insinuated by contrasting rational or cognitive processing with emotional or affective processing (see Rosselli et al. 1995 for an example). In the work at hand cognition is understood as the "collection of mental processes and activities [...] as well as the act of using those processes" (Ashcraft and Radvansky 2010, p.9; likewise Neisser 1967, p.4) with no contention made on the level of consciousness of these processes. The idea of purely conscious thought and reflection is opposed in accordance with Bargh (1997) who includes automatic and unconscious perception and interpretation of the outside world into the domain of cognitive processes. Having said this, it is found that the separation of cognitive process stages suggested by Kroeber-Riel et al. (2009, p.274), that is the sequence of information reception, perception and evaluation, as well as learning and memory, is in line with the multi-store model of memory and information-processing discussed as the underlying principle of associative learning (see chapters 2.5.2, p.103ff. and 2.5.3, p.106ff.). In effect, the separation of activating processes from cognitive processes as adopted for intervening variables by Kroeber-Riel et al. (2009) endorses the double-tracked approach to explaining image transfer by means of the principles of congruity and associative learning, respectively.

An initial step for the principles of congruity and associative learning to unfold their effect on transfer of attitudes and cross-referencing of network nodes, respectively, is that an individual becomes aware of the stimulus. Hence, before the actual process of image transfer

¹ Contrary to the process-oriented view put forth by Kroeber-Riel et al. (2009, p.51ff.) Trommsdorff (2009, p.30ff.) maintains the idea of separating psychological states versus psychological processes.

in a sponsorship alliance is going to be discussed as required for the conceptual framework, *awareness of the stimulus* will be outlined as a necessary condition instigating both paths.

Hoyer and MacInnis (2008, p.69ff.) argue that beyond the exposure of a subject to a stimulus, a basic precondition for communication success is that the target recipient perceives and attends to the information transmitted. That is, awareness of stimuli is required for any measure of communication to come into effect. This is reasonable since, as explained above (see chapter 2.5.2, p.103ff.), recognizing, interpreting, identifying, and comprehending incoming information is important in order to "make sense of the world around us" (Harrell 1986, p.66; likewise Kroeber-Riel et al. 2009, p.320f.). In fact, awareness of the environment allows for attaching subjective meaning to information, facilitates orientation in an otherwise bewildering world, and provides for alignment of behavior to the given conditions. To become aware of a stimulus an exchange process between sensory memory and working memory must take place with this interplay depending on sensation, perception, and attention. Whereas sensation and perception are attributed to information buffering as well as early recognition and interpretation tasks in sensory memory, attention has been characterized as governing the process of forwarding information from sensory memory to working memory (see chapter 2.5.3, p.106ff.). In other words, attention is understood here as the interface between sensory memory and working memory. Accordingly, whether or not a consumer becomes aware of a communication stimulus critically depends on the process of attention. An individual must allocate mental resources to a specific piece of information which also means to neglect other information. The nature of attention as a limited mental resource (Ashcraft and Radvansky 2010, p.114) entails that only selected information will make it into working memory. Which messages are attended to and allowed to penetrate or to get through to working memory is determined by many factors. For instance, messages that are novel, surprising, or otherwise stimulating attract attention. The advertising industry utilizes emotionally exciting cues such as the "schema of childlike characteristics" or erotic patterns for grabbing attention (Kroeber-Riel and Esch 2004, p.174ff.). Another factor typically determining a stimulus' ability to reap attention is the magnitude or extremity of that stimulus' physical expression (Foxall et al. 1998, p.51f.). The attentive potential of music, for example, might be affected by such factors as sound volume, rhythm, or tone pitch (see e.g., Tolle 1987, p.36). With regard to sponsorship this implies that a brand manager must find a way to direct the audience's attention to his or her brand. The information on the presence of

the brand in a sponsorship situation must surpass visual and/or auditory (and/or other modal) representation in sensory memory and reach awareness in working memory. Specific measures in sponsorship execution (e.g., on-site activation) may support this aim. Two additional factors determining attention are of particular import to the context of sponsorship and can be described as "response opportunity factors" (MacKenzie 1986, p.178f.). Specifically, the extent to which consumers are distracted by other stimuli as well as the amount of stimulus repetition are suggested to have an influence on the attention to a communication message and, hence, on consumers' opportunity to respond. With regard to form and content of a sponsorship arrangement this means two things. First, sponsorship clutter, that is the presence of a vast number of co-sponsors or competitor activities like ambushing may severely undermine sponsorship objectives and diminish attention because of distraction and confusion (Humphreys et al. 2010; Cornwell et al. 2005, p.34f.; Meenaghan 1998; Meenaghan 1996). Second, a long-term relationship resulting in many encounters of the sponsor brand and/or a high frequency of appearance should be beneficial for sponsor brand attention and, hence, for successfully creating sponsorship awareness (Cornwell et al. 2001, p.42). For example, results of empirical investigations confirm that frequency and duration of a sponsor's appearance results in superior communication outcome in television broadcasts of sports events (Arthur et al. 1998; Deimel 1993; Hermanns et al. 1986).

However, spectators must not only attend to a distinct sponsor brand in order to process the sponsorship message, but they must also recognize that multiple brands appear concurrently in a sponsorship alliance and that this joint appearance is not fortuitous in nature. That is, so called contingency awareness (see e.g., Shimp et al. 1991, p.9f.; Allen and Janiszewski 1989; Gorn et al. 1987, p.415) is relevant for image transfer to take place in a sponsorship alliance. Quester (1997b) noted accordingly: "Whichever type of objective is sought by sponsors, a preliminary step of increased awareness is commonly expected from any sponsorship investment: Unless the association is made between the sponsor and the event or activity sponsored, none of the objectives reported in the literature can be achieved" (p.102).

In sum, it can be said that awareness of the entire sponsorship alliance stimulus, be it the mere awareness of each single brand or contingency awareness of the relational pattern inherent to the alliance, is a necessary condition for subsequent image transfer effects to come about. Depiction of stimulus awareness in the case of image transfer as understood from an associative learning perspective (lower lane of Figure 17, p.137) is realized through

graphically embracing the mental steps of sensation, perception, and attention by means of a grayed out area, while stimulus awareness in the pictorial representation of congruity theory as a theoretical approach to image transfer (upper lane of Figure 17) is displayed as a grayed out area "through" which the identities of three brands of the sponsorship alliance must pass in order to trigger elaboration on their attitudes. Note that contrary to portrayal of brand identities under the realm of stimulus, in the realms of organism and response the three brands are indicated in the form of blurry, gray-shaded bold typeface letters F (focal sponsor), C (co-sponsor), and P (sponsorship property). The reason to do so is to point out the difference between the clear-cut brand identity as devised by the brand manager (stimulus section) and the presumably vaguer brand image as represented in consumers' minds (organism and response section).

Because awareness of the sponsorship alliance stimulus is of such high import here, the research design has been set up in an experimental fashion that ensures an adequate level of attention to the stimuli. A total of eight different stimulus objects (mock articles, banner ads, and pictures) were presented to the research subjects, each one showing all brands comprised by the sponsorship alliance plus additional textual and pictorial information. Moreover, subjects falling short of staying with a stimulus-presenting page of the online survey for a minimum amount of time¹ were excluded from the sample of respondents (for more details see chapter 5, p.157ff.).

After the essential role the construct of awareness occupies as a necessary condition for image transfer in sponsorship alliances has been demonstrated, the two following sections are dedicated to framing the process of image transfer per se. At first, illustrating the implications of congruity theory in the sponsorship context will unveil how imbalances in attitudes toward the alliance brands might exert reconciliation of beliefs. Then, associative learning theory will be applied in order to elucidate the question of how distinct brand memory networks become interwoven as a result of allying through a concerted sponsorship engagement.

Theories of cognitive consistency have been adopted for marketing research in that they explain how consumers reconcile attitudes toward two separate brands when they are combined by means of a marketing strategy (Levin et al. 1996). In an early attempt to provide

¹ Each stimulus object has been presented as a single website page embedded into the course of an online survey (see Appendix C, p.291ff. for an overview on the post-exposure part of the online survey and Appendix D, p.306ff. for details on the stimulus objects). Tracking of exposure times for each page was enabled through analyzing time stamps that were automatically attached to every activity of a respondent.

theoretical underpinning for the persuasive impact of sponsorship, Crimmins and Horn (1996; likewise Erdogan and Kitchen 1998) suggested balance theory to be a useful approach, probably while having congruity theory in mind (Dean 2002, p.79). More recent research on image transfer in sponsorship also refers to cognitive consistency theories (e.g., Schnittka et al. 2009; Russell and Stern 2006; Dalakas and Levin 2005; Dean 2002). An explanation of image transfer effects in a sponsorship alliance building on *principles of cognitive congruity* holds that a consumer engages in establishing attitudinal balance among brands perceived as linked through sponsorship. For instance, if the consumer has a preexisting positive attitude toward an event and a less positive attitude toward a sponsor brand, it is predicted that he or she will accommodate to the available level of pressure toward congruity and form or reinforce a more positive attitude toward the sponsor brand. Building on congruity theory's prediction concerning mutual causation, the attitude toward the event could just as well be adapted to the attitude toward the sponsor brand or both of the attitudes might converge towards increased concordance. Also, when two sponsor brands are perceived as linked by means of a sponsorship alliance, the consumer might re-evaluate the sentiment he or she holds about these brands in order attain a non-conflictual mental state. Relevant to this study is the implication that congruity theory contends attitude transfer to take place in either direction between each of the possible brand-pairs pertaining to a sponsorship alliance. Such reasoning is plausible in view of every dyad of allied brands representing two of congruity theory's objects or concepts with the cognitive arduousness of processing potentially discrepant elements resulting in assimilation and, thus, reciprocal transfer of attitudes. As the three possible dyads of a three-brands-sponsorship alliance (which is the most elementary sponsorship alliance possible comprising a property brand and two sponsor brands) "overlap" at one of the brands each, it stands to reason that attitudinal interference captures all of the three brands at once. Transfer of attitudes among the three brands constituting the sponsorship alliance under scrutiny here is conceptually portrayed in the upper lane of the realm of organism in Figure 17 (p.137). Initially, attitudes toward the focal sponsor (F), the co-sponsor (C) and the sponsorship property (P) are hold independently from each other. The projection of a tetrahedron onto a plane illustrates how the three possible triads emerging from one individual's assessment of three entities with two of the three entities each linked through a positive assertion are assembled in order to conceptually depict the attitudes prior to the mental elaboration on the sponsorship alliance. The straight lines indicate the attitudes hold

toward the three brands while the double-headed arrows imply the implicit positive assertions the allied brands make about each other in a reciprocal manner (to speak in Osgood and Tannenbaum's (1955) words, each of the brands occupies both the role of the source and the role of the concept here). Specifically, the mutual assertions arise from the fact that these brands are tied-up in an alliance, presented side-by-side, and, eventually, are saying "we are companions – we belong together".

Upon the establishment of a "common denominator" in the form of a sponsorship alliance, the individual may be aroused through inner tensions arising from incompatible attitudes. If, for example, the property is very highly valued initially (+3.0), and the attitude toward the co-sponsor is moderately positive (+2.0) too, a mental force may unfold that initiates an enhancement process toward the low original opinion hypothetically hold for the focal sponsor (-2.0). According to the reference table provided by Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955, p.49) the focal sponsor would rise in attitude by 1.5 scale units to a value of -0.5 through the effect of the property, and, independently, the co-sponsor would provoke a discrete lift up by 1.3 scale units to a final attitude value of +0.8¹. Alongside this process, the positive ratings for both the property and the co-sponsor might be diluted through a negative pull from the focal sponsor's side. Of course, the property and the co-sponsor exert an influence on each other too. By simply calculating the sum of attitude change that would result from every brand being independently influenced by each of the two other brands, a reconciled system with the following final attitude values would come about: P = +2.1, C = +1.3, and F = +0.8. Because the focal sponsor brand's attitude is the only outcome variable of interest for the purpose of this thesis (but not the resulting attitudes toward the co-sponsor and the sponsorship property), depiction of the attitudinal response is restricted to the branch representing the attitude toward the focal sponsor (see "response" section in the upper lane of Figure 17).

Associative learning and the multi-store model on memory and information processing have provided the theoretical foundation of only a limited number of studies on image transfer and recall in sponsorship yet (Smith 2004; for examples see e.g., Chien et al. 2011;

¹ Note that simply cumulating the attitudinal effects of two independent sources onto a single concept is not a valid procedure. In fact, Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955) did not theorize on this type of situation. But this cutback is negligible here as the mechanism of attitude change and transfer is explained conceptually rather than quantitatively – the numbers merely serve an illustrative purpose. That is, cumulating of effects is used here in order to exemplary illustrate the concept of attitude transfer as it might occur in a sponsorship alliance.

Humphreys et al. 2010; Henseler et al. 2009; Carrillat et al. 2005; Glogger 1999; Till 1998). Transfer of brand personality traits among the three brands constituting the sponsorship alliance is conceptually portrayed in the lower lane of the realm of organism in Figure 17. Applying the principles of associative learning to the context of a sponsorship alliance means that distinct parts of the individual networks of nodes of each of the constituent brands are activated simultaneously through the process of spreading activation. That is, subsequent to sensation and perception of the sponsorship alliance stimulus and after forwarding these information patterns from sensory memory to working memory by the process of attention, that is after becoming aware of the sponsorship alliance stimulus, retrieval from long-term memory sets in. In order to account for the distinction between brand personality prior to image transfer and brand personality after image transfer, long-term memory as a (single) compartment of the information processing model is depicted within the realm of organism as well as within the realm of response (i.e., partitioned). The organismic view on that compartment contains the associative networks of the three allied brands as existing prior to stimulus exposure and from which the brand nodes affected by the process of spreading activation are retrieved (Long-term memory: pre). Complementary to that, the "response" compartment entails the depiction of the focal sponsor brand's associative network as existing after stimulus exposure and as resulting from the image transfer processes (Long-term memory: post). This being said, a subjective mental picture of each of the brands involved accrues upon advancement of the retrieval process and, eventually, three information parcels "light up" in mind. Cognitive elaboration of these parcels results in what has been described as one stimulus growing into "reliably and predictably signaling the occurrence of another stimulus" in the section on classical conditioning (see p.109f.). The internal, mental link-up between a novel stimulus and a non-overt, mental response that was suggested to substitute for the external link-up between a conditioned stimulus and an overt reaction or reflex as evident in classical conditioning provides for the new ties that are established between central and/or propositional nodes of the sponsorship alliance brands. Whenever these memory networks are activated simultaneously, links between nodes are introduced or strengthened. Contemplating on this mechanism in the context of advertising alliances Samu et al. (1999) posit that "[a] link between two nodes is established when a person processes information that associates the nodes in some meaningful way" (p.58). Specifically, when a brand sponsors an event, some of the associations tied to that event might become linked to the

sponsor (Carrillat et al. 2005), or such an image spillover might unfold in the opposite direction through tying of sponsor brand associations to the event (Henseler et al. 2009). Since the suggested mechanism applies in the same way to a potential conveyance of associations between the focal sponsor and a co-sponsor (in either direction) too, the entirety of possible image transfer relations within a sponsorship alliance is covered. In a concluding step these built-up, refined, or fortified nodal networks are encoded into long-term memory and the newly generated network on the sponsorship alliance is consolidated and made available for future retrieval. Note that it is only the consolidated network of associations representing the focal sponsor brand that is graphically depicted as a response variable in Figure 17. Although consolidated associative networks will be laid down in long-term memory for the co-sponsor brand and the sponsorship property brand too, these are not of interest as response variables in the context of this study.

Beyond the key mental processes underlying image transfers between brands of a sponsorship alliance, *brand image fit* and *brand familiarity* will be introduced into the suggested conceptual framework as two variables pertaining to the realm of organism.

Fit evaluation is considered an intervening process prompted by activation of communication stimuli in working memory, where new information undergoes a matching routine with existing knowledge stored in long-term memory (Nitschke 2006, p.175). The fit construct in sponsorship has originally been attributed to the process of property selection in that the choice of a specific event or individual to cooperate with typically yielded substantial overlap between the target audience for that property and the target group for the brand (Cornwell et al. 2005; Crimmins and Horn 1996; Otter and Hayes 1987; Meenaghan 1983). For example, matching demographics has been suggested to be useful for attaining awareness goals (Musante et al. 1999, p.34) because the virtue of any sponsorship engagement arises from high levels of awareness for the sponsor-to-property tie in the demographic of interest for the sponsor brand. Nowadays, congruence of target groups is not the decisive factor for making decisions on the expediency of a sponsorship property even though it is still considered a relevant aspect of the selection. Congruence¹ in its contemporary form denotes

¹ The term "congruence" is often used interchangeably with the term "fit" in studies assessing the effects of perceived matchup between brands. Because there is a certain likelihood of confusion with the term "congruity" as introduced in order to theoretically explain attitude transfer by inferring from congruity theory (see chapter 2.5.1, p.94ff.), congruence as an expression of similarity or relatedness between two brands will be used very reluctantly here and in a fashion that prevents mixing up meanings.

the extent to which consumers perceive a logical or an emotional connection between sponsor and sponsored activity or entity (see Fleck and Quester 2007 for an overview on congruence definitions in sponsorship literature). Beyond an extensive and vigorous debate on the role of matchup between sponsor and property in attaining high levels of sponsor recall and recognition¹, the idea of fit has undoubtedly become one of the most intensely investigated theoretical concepts related to improved processing of sponsorship stimuli (Cornwell et al. 2005, p.27). Scientific attempts in the sponsorship field are focusing on direct judgments consumers may make on two paired brands based upon perceived (lack of) fit between these brands (i.e., a direct effect of fit) or examine a facilitating effect of similarity between two brands on the transference of brand attitudes and brand associations (i.e., a moderating effect of fit; for references see chapter 4.4, p.143ff.). Accordingly, fit assessment is introduced into the conceptual framework as an organismic process potentially interfering with creation, refinement, or reinforcement of brand images in the context of a sponsorship alliance. Angled arrows pointing from the fit assessment-box to the attitude reconciliation-box and to the working memory-box indicate both direct and indirect effects of fit as surmised here (see Figure 17, p.137). Since a sponsorship alliance as investigated here comprises three brands, comprehensive consideration of the fit construct calls for introducing three matched pairs of brands that are assessed upon their degree of congruence: focal sponsor/sponsorship property (F/P), co-sponsor/sponsorship property (C/P), and focal sponsor/co-sponsor (F/C). Beyond addressing the entities of fit assessment it is important to define a base on which the fit of two brands can be assessed. That is, because fit assessment is highly context dependent a frame of reference must be provided (Murphy and Medin 1985; Goodman 1972). Sponsorship research has applied a variety of fit bases such as complementarity of sponsors' product categories (e.g., Ruth and Simonin 2003), relatedness of sponsor product features and sponsored property (e.g., Rifon et al. 2004), a non-functional, symbolic concordance between sponsor and event (e.g., Grohs and Reisinger 2005; Grohs et al. 2004), or common associations in a

¹ Note that the influence of conceptual fit between two entities on memory for a wide range of features of these entities is an issue of very spirited discourse outside the sponsorship literature too. One conceptualization contends that consumers best remember information that does not fit well because information that is unexpected and inconsistent with existing knowledge requires more effortful elaboration and, hence, results in greater recall (see e.g., Heckler and Childers 1992; Srull 1981; Hastie 1980; for applications in sponsorship research see e.g. Nitschke 2006 and Jagre et al. 2001). The competing position argues that information is best remembered if it is congruent with prior expectations (for studies confirming this position in the case of sponsor recall see e.g. Rodgers 2003 and Johar and Pham 1999; for a review on the issue of "memory for expectancy-congruent and expectancy-incongruent information" see Stangor and McMillan 1992).

general sense (e.g., Pracejus and Olsen 2004; Basil and Basil 2003; Speed and Thompson 2000). Some researchers have adopted a more holistic approach proposed by Gwinner and Eaton (1999; see also Gwinner 1997) who suggest relying on functional relatedness as well as image similarity between sponsor brand and event for capturing the fit construct in its entirety. The base for fit assessment in the study at hand is the matchup of brand images as perceived by the consumers. In consequence, a functional correspondence between the allied brands will not be accounted for. The reason to do so is that one of the fit relations considered here is between the focal sponsor and the co-sponsor. As concurrent sponsorships are unlikely to include two brands having similar product features or functionalities (e.g., two beer brands), irrelevancy of functional fit is evident. However, a focal sponsor (e.g., a beer brand) and a co-sponsor (e.g., the brand of a financial institution) with different product features can be seen as a good matchup based on their brand images (e.g., both brands might be considered "dynamic"). In effect, it is the brand image fit pertaining to the three brand pairs that will be introduced into the conceptual framework.

Although the role of *familiarity* with an object has been an important subject of investigation in the field of social psychology (e.g., in the form of attitude accessibility or the extensiveness of knowledge determining an attitude) and in some broad research series on advertising and branding (see chapter 4.5, p.151ff. for references) the construct's relevance in sponsorship has yet to be examined (Carrillat et al. 2010, p.111). Brand familiarity relates to the knowledge a consumer maintains on a brand and, thus, builds on the brand associations that exist within a consumer's memory system (Campbell and Keller 2003, p.293). The construct reflects the number of direct and indirect experiences with a brand or a product (Alba and Hutchinson 1987, p.411; likewise Holden and Vanhuele 1999). Pertaining to the differential effect of varying levels of familiarity on information processing and brand evaluation (Hoeffler and Keller 2003; Krosnick and Petty 1995; Fazio 1989; Alba and Hutchinson 1987; Johnson and Russo 1984), brand familiarity is introduced into the conceptual framework as a variable interfering with the process of image transfer. Specifically, brand familiarity is conceptualized to interact with the process of image transfer owing to its ability to augment a brand's vigor in imbuing another brand's image and also due to its role in determining the susceptibility of a brand's image to be colored by the features and attributes of a paired brand. Accessibility of attitudes and associations from long-term memory and the stability of attitudes and associations are assumed to be responsible for the

vigor to spill over an image to other brands and the susceptibility to impingement from other brands, respectively. The corresponding moderation effect on brand image transfer is conceptually depicted in the framework with one angled arrow pointing from the brand familiarity-box to the box indicating reconciliation of attitudes and a second angled arrow linking the brand familiarity-box with the working memory-box (see Figure 17, p.137). As a matter of fact consumers' familiarity will vary for each of the three brands constituting the sponsorship alliance. However, an interaction effect will only be proposed for familiarity with the focal sponsor brand but not for familiarity with the co-sponsor brand or for familiarity with the sponsorship property brand. Admittedly these (latter) familiarity scores might also exert a moderating effect on any of the relationships either the co-sponsor brand or the sponsorship property brand is involved with. But reasons of parsimony and complexity-reduction call for a limitation of the proposed investigation to effects of the focal sponsor's familiarity only. Consequently, familiarity of the focal sponsor brand is introduced into the proposed conceptual framework as a moderating variable exerting influence on every image transfer relation the focal sponsor itself is part of.

3.5 Synthesis of the conceptual framework

Throughout the introductory part to this chapter on framework development it has been contended that it is a main objective of such a structure to present the key variables under investigation as well as to portray preliminary assumptions regarding the relationship between these variables. This attempt has been undertaken throughout the above sections with the corresponding graphical synthesis presented in Figure 17. It is important to note that the conceptual framework does not represent a theory nor is it reflecting specific research hypotheses to be tested. Rather does it mirror the author's preliminary ideas on cause-effect relations between concepts and dimensions deemed relevant for the research attempt under discussion. In that sense, the conceptual framework is not more than an intellectual edifice that relies on theory and empirical insights just as much as on informed presumption.

As developed before, the conceptual framework presented here is structured along the realms of the S-O-R paradigm. This approach results in a separation of the illustration into three main silos captioned by, respectively, stimulus, organism, and "response". Remember that the quotation marks on the realm of response signify a character different from its original meaning as a truly overt reaction but rather insinuate that the response is of an inner mental form here (see p.123). Furthermore, the realms of organism and "response" are

vertically separated into two lanes. The upper lane illustrates intervening processes as well as the response variable as conceptualized under the attitude-based perspective on brand image, while the lower lane depicts intervening processes and the response variable as understood from an associative network-based view on brand image. Correspondingly, the upper lane reflects the notions on image transfer pertinent to congruity theory, while the lower lane entails a graphical depiction of what associative learning theory suggests on image transfer between the three brands tied together by means of a sponsorship alliance. Such a vertical split is not required in the stimulus domain because the only perspective to be indicated here is the brand identity perspective.

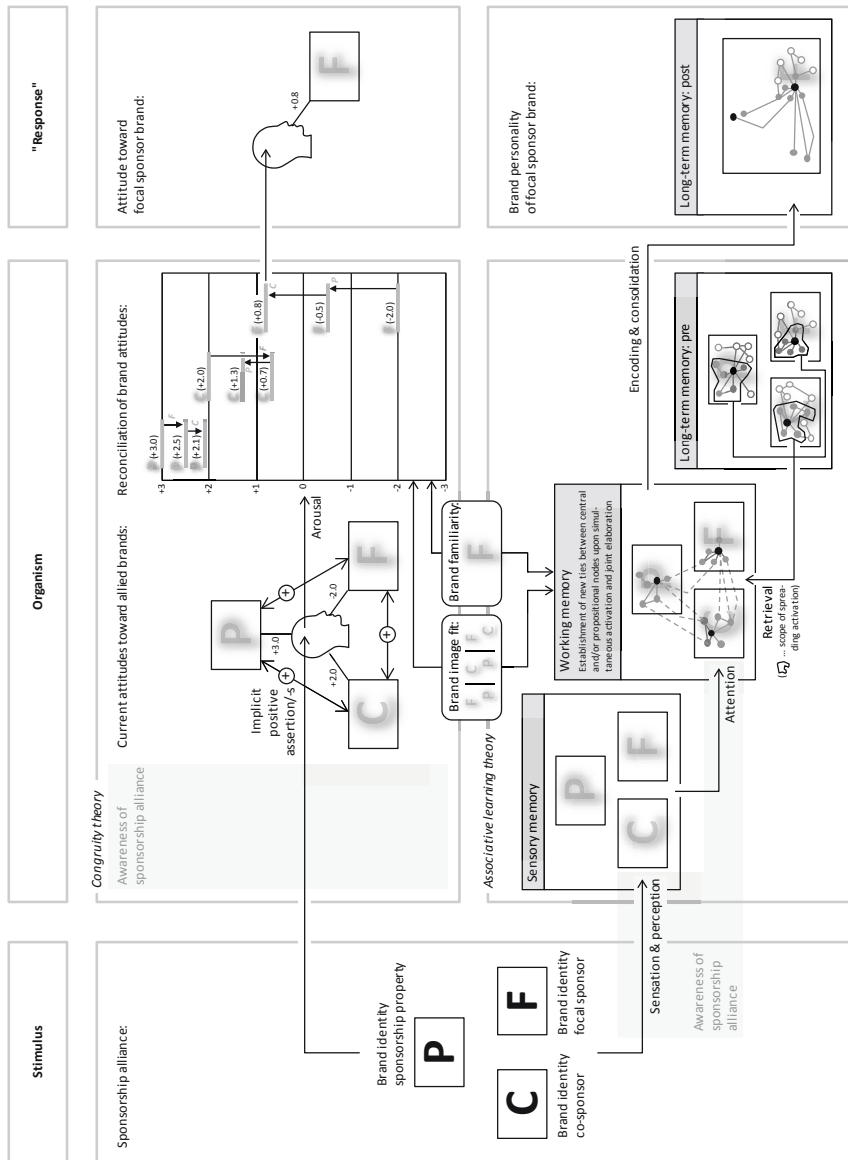


Figure 17: Conceptual framework on image transfer in a sponsorship alliance. Source: Own illustration.

4 Development of Research Model

In accordance to the theoretical background as well as the conceptual framework provided so far, a research model that accounts for image spillover as occurring between the three constituent elements of a sponsorship alliance will be developed throughout this chapter. Extending on previous work in the field of sponsorship research this study aspires to conceptualize the brand image construct from an attitude-based perspective as well as from an associative network-based perspective (see also chapter 1.1, p.1ff. for details on the research gap). Accordingly, the research hypotheses will be divided into a part pertaining to attitude transference (labeled by subscript "a"; e.g., hypothesis H1_a) and a part concerning the rub-off of single associations (labeled by subscript "b"; e.g., hypothesis H1_b). Furthermore, the temporal prepositions "pre-" and "post-" are used to indicate brand images as existing before and after the experimental intervention. (e.g., pre-/post-exposure attitude attributed to the focal sponsor). Adding to the hypotheses on image transfer (H1 – H6), propositions with regard to the influence of brand image fit between the constituent brands of the alliance (H7 – H8) as well as on the role of the focal sponsor's brand familiarity (H9) will be put forth. An graphical representation of the research model is provided in Figure 18 (p.155) with an overview on the research hypotheses arranged in Appendix A (p.279ff.). Table 5 through Table 8 (p.171ff.) gives an overview on the measurement approaches for latent constructs.

4.1 Brand image transfer from co-sponsor to focal sponsor

Brand image transfer between two brands concurrently sponsoring the same property has received scant empirical attention so far. To the knowledge of the author only two empirical studies have picked up the issue yet. Carrillat and colleagues (2010) recently addressed this gap in sponsorship literature by investigating how brands become associated with each other in consumers' minds when they sponsor the same event concurrently. Building on categorization theory as well as assimilation-and-contrast theory they found that the images of two familiar brands concurrently sponsoring the same event can be transferred between each other when they have similar concepts (i.e., similar feature-based and symbolic meaning), whereas their images diverge when they initially have different concepts. For less familiar brands neither major assimilation nor contrast effects were found. As a conclusion of their investigation the authors posit that "akin to cobranding, concurrent sponsoring brands become associated in consumers' minds. In concurrent sponsorships, however, the association

between the brands does not have to be formal to lead to a transfer of image between them" (ibid., p.121). Schnittka et al. (2009) found that image transfer among sponsoring brands in a multiple sponsorship condition takes place from a familiar brand to an unfamiliar brand, but not vice versa. Complementing these limited empirical insights on the subject of inter-sponsor transfer processes is a conceptual paper provided by Carrillat and Harris (2002).

Affirmative yet sparse empirical evidence for direct brand image conveyance from a co-sponsor to the focal sponsor as well as reference to what congruity theory (see p.94ff.) and associative learning theory (see p.106ff.) suggest with regard to image transfer substantiate the following research hypothesis:

H1_{a/b} *Pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to a co-sponsor is/are positively related to post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the focal sponsor.*

It is crucial to the concept of this study to expound that a co-sponsor may not only deploy its image effect onto the focal sponsor through consumers' direct inference. Specifically, an indirect way of how the co-sponsor might imbue the brand image of the focal sponsor is by mediation through the sponsorship property's image. This belief advocates the idea that a co-sponsor's brand image may rub off onto the image of the sponsored property and, subsequently, this image is "forwarded" to the focal sponsor. In other words, it is conceivable that a co-sponsor unfolds a fraction of its total image transference effect on the focal sponsor through a bypass route mediated by the image of the sponsorship property. This mediated path is reflected in the combination of hypothesis H2 and hypothesis H5. Three studies give rise to the assumption that a sponsor's image can rub off onto the image of the property (representing the first leg of the mediated route: H2). Ruth and Simonin (2003) show that the attitudes toward two sponsor brands as held by consumers account for a significant proportion of variance in consumers' resulting attitude toward an advertised event. In a subsequent study Ruth and Simonin (2006) build on attribution theory to find that consumers infer from sponsor motives (i.e., goodwill versus sales-oriented) to develop perceptions about an event. With an emphasis on the spillover of single brand associations rather than on the transference of attitudes Henseler et al. (2009) find that particular traits attributed to a sponsee can be influenced by the accordant traits attributed to a linked sponsor with the strength of the transfer being idiosyncratic for each of the traits.

These empirical investigations support theoretical rationale regarding a sponsor brand image rubbing off onto the sponsorship property's image upon association of these objects by means of joint presentation through a sponsorship alliance. Hence, the following research proposition is introduced:

H2_{a/b} *Pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to a co-sponsor is/are positively related to post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the sponsorship property.*

Empirical support for the second leg of the mediated route (i.e., brand image transfer from property to focal sponsor) will be provided in hypothesis H5.

4.2 Stability of focal sponsor brand image

The cognitive structures that represent brand images in consumers' minds build on substantial learning processes and result in an enduring and stable state of knowledge (Fiske et al. 1987; Fiske and Pavelchak 1986; Lord et al. 1979). Relative permanence and cognitive rigidity of the image construct was also highlighted and supported by empirical research on marketing strategies such as brand alliance building (e.g., Simonin and Ruth 1998) or co-branding (e.g., Andres 2003). In a study on sponsorship for a charitable event Dean (2002) observed that the total effect of the pre-sponsorship corporate community relation with the sponsor brand (i.e., the attitudinal variable of interest) on its post-exposure counterpart was larger than the corresponding effect exerted by the sponsored charitable event. The author concludes that "corporate image will be slow to change through sponsorship, because the effects of any single sponsorship are muted by the lingering effects of the past corporate image" (ibid., p.86). In accordance with this, other authors also found sponsor brand images to be slow to change through sponsorship due to effects of persistency originating in these brands' past images (e.g., Lafferty et al. 2004; McDaniel 1999). Summarizing this line of empirical evidence from sponsorship literature, Grohs and colleagues (2004) acknowledge that "[t]he most influential predictor of post-event sponsor image is, as expected, pre-event sponsor image" (p.131).

Thus, in order to examine modifications of the focal sponsor brand by virtue of image transference in the context of a sponsorship alliance, it is important to control for the focal sponsor's pre-exposure brand image:

H3_{a/b} *Pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the focal sponsor is/are positively related to the post-exposure counterpart/-s.*

The mediated route argued for in the case of the co-sponsor brand exerting influence on the focal sponsor must also be considered for the potential self-effective impact of the focal sponsor on its post-exposure equivalent. In correspondence to what was maintained in hypothesis H2 the following hypothesis reflects the presumed association between the focal sponsor and the sponsorship property:

H4_{a/b} *Pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the focal sponsor is/are positively related to post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the sponsorship property.*

Again (akin to H2), empirical support for the second leg of the mediated route (i.e., brand image transfer from property to focal sponsor) will be provided in hypothesis H5.

4.3 Brand image transfer from sponsorship property to focal sponsor

The exploitable commercial potential associated with a sponsorship property has been put forth as the key benefit to be reaped by a sponsor brand in many definitions of the instrument (e.g., Ukman 2004, p.154; for an overview on sponsorship definitions see Table 1, p.31f.). In large parts this potential arises from closely linking the sponsor brand to a property the recipient values highly with the favorable image of that property ideally rubbing off to the sponsor. In fact, a plethora scientific knowledge has been gathered on this issue over the past two decades with the unambiguous insight of brand attitudes and personality traits to spill over from a sponsored property to a sponsor brand (see Figure 1, p.6 for a selective overview on these studies). Two articles a great portion of subsequent research on sponsorship effectiveness emanated from looked at how Olympic sponsorship might impact a brand. Crimmins and Horn (1996) measured the perceived superiority (over competitor brands) of a credit card and a wristwatch brand before, during, and after the 1992 Summer Olympics and claimed that the link created between the Games and the brands indeed lead to more positive

perceptions of the brands. Correspondingly, Stipp and Schiavone (1996) concluded from their data that the very positive attitudes held about the Olympic Games can rub off on an Olympic sponsor. Other studies have confirmed that a single property can beneficially imbue the sponsor brand (e.g., Grohs and Reisinger 2005; Grohs et al. 2004; Gwinner and Eaton 1999; d'Astous and Bitz 1995; Javalgi et al. 1994), that a portfolio of sponsorship properties may exert an overarching effect on sponsor brand meaning and personality (Chien et al. 2011; Chien et al. 2005), or that sponsorship of a disliked property possibly will alienate consumers and make them look at the sponsoring company in a less favorable manner (Dalakas and Levin 2005).

In order for the research model to comply with the affirmation of a mediating role of the sponsorship property brand (see above), the post-exposure property image is posited to exert influence on the focal sponsor brand (and not the pre-exposure variable as might be assumed). Hence, given the robust effect of property-to-sponsor image transfer found in extant literature the following hypothesis is put forth:

H5_{a/b} *Post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the sponsorship property is/are positively related to post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the focal sponsor.*

Building on relative permanence and cognitive rigidity of the image construct as contended for the focal sponsor brand in hypothesis H3, the sponsorship property is claimed to be self-effective too:

H6_{a/b} *Pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the sponsorship property is/are positively related to the post-exposure counterpart/s.*

4.4 Direct and moderating effects of brand image fit

Brand image fit has been presented as an intervening variable of the S-O-R framework on image transfer in a sponsorship alliance (see p.132ff.). Building on reference from sponsorship research it has been suggested that brand image fit may interfere with image modifications pertaining to a sponsorship alliance through both a direct path and a moderating path. While the surmise on the direct effect refers to a higher level of favorability toward two brands that are perceived as being a good match compared to two brands that are judged as not going well together, the proposition on the moderating effect holds that image

transfer between two brands is enhanced when consumers feel that these brands are related somehow. In order to argue for the proposed effects the following two chapters (4.4.1 and 4.4.2) will provide succinct theoretical underpinning and highlight some of the relevant empirical findings in advertising and marketing literature. Adding to the majority of extant literature in sponsorship research this study will not only consider the congruence between a sponsor and a sponsorship property, but rather looks at how each of the prevailing fit relations in a sponsorship alliance (i.e., focal sponsor/sponsorship property, co-sponsor/sponsorship property, and focal sponsor/co-sponsor) exerts, respectively, direct and moderating influence on (selected) image constructs and image transfer relations. Inferring from theory and empirical findings a distinct set of hypotheses is going to be presented at the end of each chapter.

4.4.1 Direct effects of brand image fit

A direct effect of consumer perceived fit between two objects means that a good matchup may yield positive affect for either one or both of the objects. Early studies in the field of advertising used schema theory to propose and test a matchup hypothesis in models of celebrity endorsement (see e.g., Lynch and Schuler 1994; Misra and Beatty 1990; Speck et al. 1988). The conceptualizations put forth in these studies maintain a schema to be "an abstract or generic knowledge structure, stored in memory, that specifies the defining features and relevant attributes of some stimulus domain, and the interrelations among those attributes" (Crocker 1984, p.472), whereas the domain can be e.g. a person, a place, an event, or a thing (Taylor and Crocker 1981). As such, the concept of a cognitive schema is coherent with the associative network-based perspective on brand knowledge and brand image as outlined for the purpose of this thesis¹ (see chapter 2.4.4, p.78ff.). For two paired objects the principles of the matchup hypothesis suggest that high level mutual relevance and a high degree of expectancy of one given the other yield an evaluation of perceived fit (Heckler and Childers 1992) which, in turn, results in more favorable thoughts for these objects. That is, information on a brand tying-up with a celebrity by means of an endorsement strategy is assessed based on expectations inferred from existing endorser schema with dis-/confirmation of expectancies resulting in negative/positive consumer reaction toward the brand. In other

¹ Concordantly, Esch (2008) notes that brand knowledge and beliefs as hold in mind by consumers are represented by schemas.

words, poor brand image fit might result in undesirable beliefs and judgments while a well-matched pair might elicit positive feelings.

In fact, celebrity endorsement research has produced findings that suggest attitude toward the brand to be related to the perceived matchup of the sponsor brand schema and the endorser schema with higher affect toward the brand found when brand and spokesperson match well (Kamins and Gupta 1994; Kamins 1990; Misra and Beatty 1990; Debevec and Iyer 1986; Kahle and Homer 1985; Friedman and Friedman 1979). Yet, schema theory and the matchup hypothesis are not restricted to explain and interpret celebrity endorsement effects. Studies in the fields of brand extension (e.g., Loken and John 1993; Park et al. 1991) and co-branding (e.g., Walchli 2007; Gurhan-Canli and Maheswaran 1998; Simonin and Ruth 1998) that attain positive attitudinal effect upon congruence of stimuli may be interpreted from a schema-based expectancy perspective too. Also, a direct linear relationship between sponsor/event fit and attitude toward the sponsor brand has been examined and supported in sponsorship research. Specifically, Huber et al. (2008) found evidence for both functional-based and image-based sponsor/event fit to directly influence attitude toward the sponsor in a positive manner (likewise Koo et al. 2006; Basil and Basil 2003; Rodgers 2003). Rifon et al. (2004) found that sponsor credibility mediates the path leading from congruence between a sponsor brand and a cause to favorability of sponsor attitude. In contrast to these studies suggesting a monotonic, linear relation between the fit construct and the image outcome, some authors proposed a non-linear, inverted-U congruity-evaluation relationship in the case of sponsorship and reported empirical evidence in accord with this idea (e.g., Jagre et al. 2001; d'Astous and Bitz 1995). These results correspond to Mandler's (1982) hypothesis proposing that moderately incongruent stimuli are more positively valued than either congruent or extremely incongruent stimuli. Successful resolution of moderate incongruity is supposed to be inherently satisfying and yields positive evaluations of stimuli, whereas both congruity and extreme incongruity result in less favorable judgments due to the absence of a rewarding cognitive challenge and the lack of a pleasing experience of incongruity resolution, respectively. However, more favorable judgments of moderately matching objects compared to either little or highly matching objects has been attributed to high involvement situations (Walchli 2007; Maoz and Tybout 2002; Lee 1995). In low involvement conditions processing of matching stimuli can be expected to produce better results than processing of non-matching objects. That is, in the low involvement condition a

good matchup appears to be "naturally occurring" (Walchli 2007, p.956) and, thus, will be more favorably appraised. Based on the assumption that cognitive elaboration of sponsorship stimuli is a low involvement tasks for the regular audience (Chien et al. 2011, p.143; Fleck and Quester 2007, p.979; Cornwell et al. 2005, p.23ff.; McDaniel 1999, p.172) it is argued here that all of the research propositions concerning direct effects of brand image fit in a sponsorship alliance presume a linear congruence-evaluation relationship.

Some concluding remarks tap into the types of fit relations that have been tested empirically in sponsorship research so far. In fact, only few articles on the influence of congruence on image formation discuss fit relations that differ from the extensively researched effect of sponsor/event matchup on sponsor brand image. One study on the sponsorship of charitable causes gives rise to the assumption of a positive direct effect of cause/brand fit (i.e., perceived logic of the partnership) on the attitude toward the cause-brand alliance (Lafferty et al. 2004). Following these findings, it could be surmised that brand image fit between a sponsor and a sponsorship property may also result in a more positive evaluation of the property¹ rather than being restricted on an exclusive effect onto the sponsor brand. Assessment of the fit relation that emerges between two sponsors concurrently sponsoring a property has been mainly omitted from scholar inquiry so far².

Building on these grounds, brand image fit between any one of the pairs of brands in a sponsorship alliance is hypothesized to be positively related to the post-exposure attitude toward each of these paired brands (that is, in case this brand is included into the research model as an outcome variable after all). As mentioned above (see p.133) the frame of reference on which fit is assessed here is brand image fit rather than functional fit. Note that because the outcome variable of fit assessment must be of ordinal scale at least, the research

¹ Actually, the accurate analog to the "attitude toward the cause-brand alliance"-outcome variable would be the "attitude toward the sponsorship alliance" in its entirety instead of the attitude toward the sponsorship property itself (which would correspond to Lafferty et al.'s (2004) charitable cause). However, since Lafferty et al. (2004) also found a direct positive effect of attitude toward the cause-brand alliance on post-exposure attitude toward the cause and, thus, the cause-brand alliance evaluation can be considered a mediating variable concerning the effect of cause/brand name fit on attitude toward the cause, it might be legitimate to parallel this context to a positive relationship between sponsor/property fit and subsequent evaluation of the property.

² For an exception see Ruth and Simonin (2003) who hypothesized but failed to empirically substantiate a positive effect of between-sponsors' complementarity on event attitude.

hypotheses do exclusively pertain to effects on brand attitudes¹ (subscript "a" only). Hence, the following set of research hypotheses is presented:

- H7_{i-a}** *Brand image fit between*
 through *i) focal sponsor and sponsorship property*
H7_{iv-a} *ii) focal sponsor and sponsorship property*
 iii) focal sponsor and co-sponsor
 iv) co-sponsor and sponsorship property
is positively related to post-exposure attitude attributed to
 i) the focal sponsor.
 ii) the sponsorship property.
 iii) the focal sponsor.
 iv) the sponsorship property.

As an extension to this pattern of effects a more favorable attitude toward the sponsorship property is expected to arise from an auspicious focal sponsor/co-sponsor matchup (Ruth and Simonin 2003, p.22f.). Thus:

- H7_{v-a}** *Brand image fit between focal sponsor and co-sponsor is positively related to post-exposure attitude attributed to the sponsorship property.*

4.4.2 Moderating effects of brand image fit

Unlike direct effects of brand image fit, the moderating effect of fit is assumed to exert influence on transference of both brand attitudes and brand associations. A moderating effect of consumer perceived fit between two objects means that a good matchup yields enhanced transfer of attitudes and associations between these objects. Several studies in the fields of social psychology and cognition have found that in general congruent information has a memory advantage over incongruent or unexpected information (see e.g., Cohen 1981; Taylor and Crocker 1981, for a review on this literature see Stangor and McMillan 1992). Fiske (1982) suggested that if an item is congruent with an existing schema, it will receive the affect linked to that schema while no transfer of affect takes place if the item is

¹ Brand personality traits are not considered "improved" or "judged more favorably" upon higher ratings on their respective scale – it is the specific personality profile sought after by a brand manager that defines what is regarded as good or bad. In consequence, shifts in brand personality profiles that may possibly arise from brand image fit assessment are not taken into account here.

incongruent or irrelevant with regard to the schema. Reasoning on congruence effects pertaining to brand associations Keller (1993) notes that "[i]nformation that is consistent in meaning with existing brand associations should be more easily learned [...] than unrelated information"(p.7). Hence, building on a more readily integration of cognitively compatible information compared to incompatible information image transfer may be amplified for well fitting brands compared to poorly fitting brands. In the course of this chapter, two theoretical foundations for explaining moderation effects of brand image fit will be exposed. First, and corresponding to the theoretical underpinning of direct effects of brand image fit (see preceding chapter), insights derived from schema theory and the matchup hypothesis will be presented. The line of argumentation building on this theoretical fundament mainly yields explanation of enhanced/attenuated attitude transfer (refer to subscript "a" in set H8). Second, rationale for differential response to, respectively, corresponding and non-corresponding stimuli drawn from classical conditioning will be outlined. This line of reasoning will inform hypotheses relating to the idea of enhanced/attenuated transfer of single brand associations (refer to subscript "b" in set H8).

In the context of celebrity endorsement schema theory and the matchup hypothesis have been applied to substantiate the idea of increased advertising effectiveness in case a celebrity's image converges with the image of an endorsed brand. In turn, this literature suggests that mis-matches between endorser and brand might decrease the effectiveness of the endorsement (Kaikati 1987). This later notion has also been purported as a guiding principle for the prediction of attitude change in the here referential congruity theory (see p.98ff.): "[A]ttitude change for incongruous assertions is damped in proportion to the degree of incredulity produced [through a highly favorable source endorsing a non-favored concept or vice versa]" (Osgood and Tannenbaum 1955, p.49). In general, schemas provide an organizing principle for the mind. That is, they facilitate mental categorization of knowledge and are involved in cognitive processing of information (Misra and Beatty 1990). It is presumed that matching stimuli take advantage of smoother categorization with consistent information being assimilated into existing knowledge structures (Crockett 1988, p.37). Mao and Krishnan (2006, p.43) note that fit enhances information processing by generating a conclusive rationale of why objects may belong together and Lee and Aaker (2004, p.206f.) contend that consonant information meets consumers' expectations and, hence, is processed more fluently. Correspondingly, Misra and Beatty (1990, p.162) contend that information on

a brand endorsing a celebrity will more readily be processed if a good matchup exists between these entities, while new information about the brand radiating from the celebrity will be prevented from being processed by means of a mental filter if these entities' schemas do not match or are irrelevant for each other (likewise Lau and Sears 1986, p.353). Thus, drawing on schema theory and the matchup hypothesis it can be proposed that the level of fit between two brands positively relates to the degree of stimulation of attitude transference.

Equivalent to the interaction effect on attitude transference, spillover of brand associations is supposed to be more accentuated if two brands fit well together compared to when these brands are not perceived as congruent. Accordant theoretical rationale comes from classical conditioning literature. Specifically, it has been argued that conditioning is more likely to occur if some natural link (Mitchell et al. 1995) or a feeling of commonality (Allen and Janiszewski 1989) is established between the unconditioned stimulus and the conditioned stimulus. Reciprocal interpretation of this paradigm corresponds to the so-called "Garcia Effect" proposed for conditioning (Garcia and Koelling 1966). The effect maintains the idea that conditioning might fail upon inappropriate or non-authentic pairing of the stimuli (McSweeney and Bierley 1984, p.624f.). Since, as pointed out above, classical conditioning and associative learning build on similar mechanisms (see p.109ff.) it seems legitimate to infer an enhancement/attenuation effect of high/low brand image fit on the process of associative learning and, thus, on transfer of single brand personality traits.

Scientific credentials in support of an interaction effect of the fit construct are manifold. As mentioned before, Misra and Beatty's (1990) seminal research in celebrity endorsement suggests that "when the celebrity spokesperson is congruent with the brand, a transfer of affect takes place. But when the spokesperson is incongruent, or irrelevant, the transfer of affect does not appear to take place" (ibid., p.170). Most notably, these authors examined congruence in a holistic manner akin to McCracken's (1989) notion of meaning rather than by manipulating fit through means of surface characteristics like the physical attractiveness of spokesperson and product (as prevalent in the celebrity endorsement literature, for examples see e.g., Lynch and Schuler 1994; Kamins 1990; Kahle and Homer 1985). Hence, their matchup criterion is conceptually close to image fit as applied for the thesis at hand. One of the most frequently cited studies examining the interaction effect of congruence and image transfer in the sponsorship context has been conducted by Gwinner and Eaton (1999, see also Gwinner 1997). These authors found that when event and sponsor brand are matched on

either an image or a functional basis the process of image transfer from event to sponsor brand is enhanced. Other research in sponsorship literature confirms the facilitating effect of sponsor/event congruence on image transfer (see e.g., Zdravkovic and Till 2012; Grohs and Reisinger 2005; Musante et al. 1999). Carrillat et al. (2010; see also Carrillat and Harris 2002) are the first to shed light on the effects of a fit relation that is different from the pairing of sponsor and event. Their results support the assertion that the images of two familiar brands concurrently sponsoring the same event can be transferred between each other when they have similar concepts whereas the images are contrasted when the brands maintain different concepts.

Abiding by schema theory/matchup hypothesis and the presumed stimulation (retardation) of associative learning given high (low) congruence between stimuli, a moderating role onto the transfer of brand attitudes and brand associations, respectively, can be attributed to brand image fit. Empirical research suggests this effect to hold true for brand image fit between a sponsor and a sponsorship property as well as between two sponsors concurrently sponsoring the same property. Hence, theoretical principles and empirical work indicate that a high level of image fit between either two of a sponsorship alliance's brands leads to enhanced transfer of image between these brands while this effect is hampered under conditions of low fit. Thus, the following set of research hypotheses is posited:

- H8_{i-a/b}** *The positive relationship between*
 through *i) pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to a co-sponsor*
H8_{iv-a/b} *ii) pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to a co-sponsor*
iii) pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the focal sponsor
iv) post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the sponsorship
property
and post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to
i) the focal sponsor (see H1)
ii) the sponsorship property (see H2)
iii) the sponsorship property (see H4)
iv) the focal sponsor (see H5)
is enhanced (inhibited), when these brands are perceived as high (low) in
brand image fit.

4.5 Moderating effects of focal sponsor brand familiarity

In consumer research, the accumulated number of direct (e.g., through utilization) and indirect (e.g., through advertising) experiences with a brand or a product has been defined as brand familiarity (Alba and Hutchinson 1987, p.411). Brands high in familiarity are said to be represented by cognitive structures with a great number of salient associations, while brands low in familiarity possess only an insignificant number of shallow associations (Kent and Allen 1994, p.98; Fazio 1986, p.220ff.). But not only are the number and the saliency of associations asserted to be higher in familiar brands, but also has their relative degree of liking been found to be well established and stable (Bettman and Sujun 1987). In contrary, attitudes toward non-familiar brands may be unformed or weakly formed leaving them less accessible and stable. The moderating effect of familiarity is proposed to emanate from a) the differential strength of a brand to imbue a paired brand and b) a varying degree of susceptibility of a brand to impingement from an allied brand. Rationale for these phenomena taps into accessibility and stability of attitudes and associations.

Principles of accessibility suggest that the more interlinked a brand's associative network or the more consolidated the object-evaluation association defining the attitude toward a brand is (Fazio 1995), the quicker and easier information is retrieved from memory (Teichert and Schöntag 2010, p.978; Meyvis and Janiszewski 2004, p.347f.). From this it can be inferred that upon encounter of a brand cue spreading activation within the cognitive structure leads to retrieval of a multifaceted and richly colored subjective picture if the brand is highly familiar, while indefinite and blurry features are activated for an unfamiliar brand. Attitudes and associations that have been activated recently are endowed with what has been called "acute accessibility" (Fazio 1989, p.161), a state that increases their likelihood of affecting further information processing. Specifically, such attitudes and associations may serve as a filter to influence processing and interpretation of subsequently perceived information (Srull and Wyer 1979; Higgins et al. 1977). It has been contended that information processing following priming with a highly accessible cue is biased in the direction implied by the valence of this cue's attitude (Fazio et al. 1989, p.286; Houston and Fazio 1989; Fazio and Williams 1986, p.505). Framed differently, accessibility is positively related to an attitude's strength of effect on the perceptions of a consumer object (Prislin 1996, p.452). For example, research on the persuasiveness of messages found that increasing the accessibility of a specific attitude toward a message source results in higher conveyance

of that attitude to the message (Roskos-Ewoldsen and Fazio 1992a, likewise Roskos-Ewoldsen et al. 2002). This attests to the suggestion that a brand exerts a stronger image effect on a paired brand if it possesses a more internalized associative network compared to when the brand is represented by less established cognitions. The differential strength of a brand to imbue a paired brand arising from variance in familiarity among consumers builds on these grounds.

Explication of varying degrees of susceptibility of a brand to impingement from an allied brand bears on cognitive stability and strength of attitudes. It has been proposed that spillover onto low-familiarity brands will be relatively strong because of their lack of an extensive network of prior associations (Fazio 1989; Bettman and Sujan 1987; Fazio 1986), while high-familiarity brands are more resistant to change due to their richness of associations and strength of affect. Personal importance of an attitude (e.g., Zuwerink and Devine 1996) and the volume of knowledge held for an entity (e.g., Biek et al. 1996; Wood et al. 1995), two strength-related attitude attributes (Visser et al. 2006), have been associated with greater resistance to change. Furthermore, attitude polarization which positively relates to schema complexity in case of well-integrated attitude dimensions (Millar and Tesser 1986; Judd and Lusk 1984) may lead to increased permanence (Osgood and Tannenbaum 1955, p.46) and greater resistance to counter-attitudinal messages (Eagly and Chaiken 1993). The general interpretation of insights from the attitude strength literature is that spillovers to a brand are greatest if consumers' beliefs for that brand are weakest (Shocker 1995, p.433) whereas the same brand might be almost immune to impingements if consumers maintain a broad array of firmly tied thoughts. Two other research streams support this notion albeit being geared toward the transfer of associations rather than attitudes. First, it has been anticipated that mental processing of highly familiar brands absorbs a larger fraction of total cognitive capacity than elaboration on undistinctive or "bland" brands. As a consequence, fewer cognitive resources are available for mental efforts like the integration of new information (see p.112 on the limited capacity of working memory). This, in turn, results in more confirmatory processing of a familiar brand (MacKenzie and Spreng 1992; Keller 1991). As such, associations for a familiar brand will tend to vary less compared to a brand of lower familiarity (Carrillat et al. 2005, p.53). Second, in research on classical conditioning Stuart et al. (1987) investigated the effect of pre-exposure of a conditioned stimulus on the level of conditioning achieved in the context of advertising. They found a learning pattern in

correspondence with latent inhibition, which is a unique characteristic of conditioned learning predicting retardation of the conditioning process upon familiarization of the subject with the conditioned stimulus (Lubow 1973; Lubow et al. 1968; Lubow and Moore 1959). That is, a subject's pre-exposure to an advertising stimulus inhibits the development of the conditioned response (Shimp et al. 1991). Hence, on the grounds of conditioning-based associative learning too, image transfer is proposed to be more effective in the absence of strong prior brand attributes. In summary, these theories give confidence to the idea that a brand should be less susceptible to image effects deriving from a paired brand if it is familiar compared to unfamiliar.

Fundamental empirical support for these moderating roles of brand familiarity has been provided by brand alliance research and was later adopted for sponsorship investigations. Simonin and Ruth (1998) suggest that a partner brand contributes more to the alliance in terms of attitude when it is high compared to low in familiarity and benefits more from spillover originating in the alliance when it is low compared to high in familiarity. The study also reveals a differential effect of familiarity on the relationship between pre- and post-attitudes toward the partner brand. Increased levels of attitudinal inertia for familiar brands compared to relatively unknown brands have also been observed in sponsorship research. Lardinoit and Quester (2001) found a positive attitudinal effect arising from sponsorship activities for a non-prominent firm, while no such benefit was observed in the case of a prominent firm. Likewise, Carrillat and colleagues (2005) found attitude toward a sponsor brand as well as purchase intention for that sponsor brand to be significantly enhanced after sponsorship exposure in the low-familiarity condition, but a lack of effectiveness in the high-familiarity condition.

Hence, it is suggested that variance in consumer perceived familiarity with the focal sponsor bestows upon differential strength to imbue paired brands and results in a varying degree of susceptibility to impingement from allied brands. For reasons of parsimony and complexity reduction the research model is restricted to assessing potential moderation effects of the focal sponsor's brand familiarity (see also p.135). The following set of hypotheses is presented:

- H9_{i-a/b}** *For higher (lower) levels of focal sponsor brand familiarity, the positive and relationship between pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the focal sponsor and post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to*
- H9_{ii-a/b}** *i) that focal sponsor (see H3)
ii) the sponsorship property (see H4)
is enhanced (reduced).*
- H9_{iii-a/b}** *For higher (lower) levels of focal sponsor brand familiarity, the positive and relationship between*
- H9_{iv-a/b}** *iii) pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to a co-sponsor (see H1)
iv) post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the sponsorship property (see H5)
and post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the focal sponsor is reduced (enhanced).*

Figure 18 provides an overview on the research model and captures the hypothesized main effects (H1 – H7) as well as the anticipated moderating effects (H8 – H9). Subsequently, the research design and methodology applied for testing this model will be outlined.

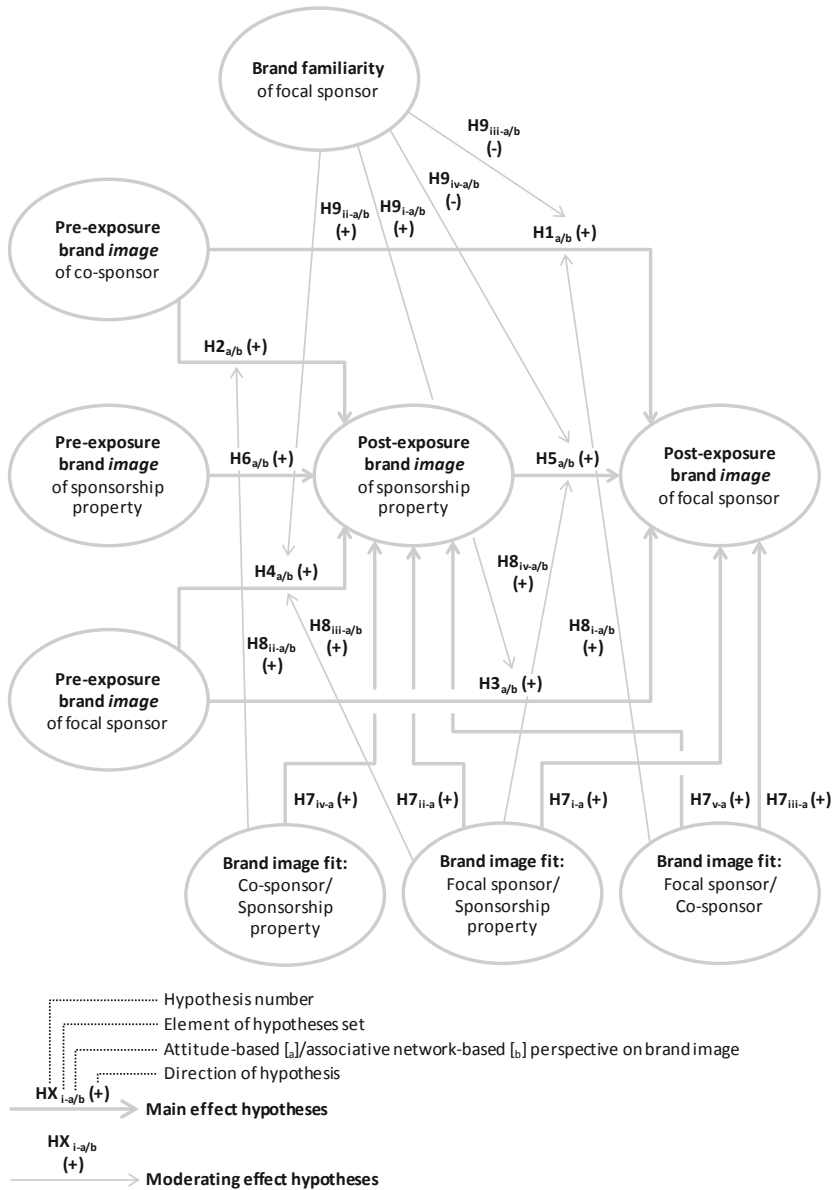


Figure 18: Research model on image transfer in a sponsorship alliance. Source: Own illustration.

5 Research Design and Methodology

5.1 Creation of a fictitious sponsorship alliance

In order to test the hypotheses contained in the proposed research model a fictitious sponsorship alliance had to be composed to serve as the experimental stimulus. An assembly of real brands that have not yet been engaged jointly in an existing sponsorship (or other brand alliance) provided for the avoidance of any image transfer effects prior to experimental intervention but still allowed to instigate measurable spillover building on preexisting brand images. Given the collaborative research approach with Migros, a major retailer in Switzerland, this corporate brand was predetermined to be entered into the alliance (subsequently referred to as "retail brand", "retailer", or "Migros"). The Migros brand is very well known to consumers in Switzerland as a sponsor of a broad variety of properties such as sports events, music festivals and shows, or kids and youth activities. Through their sponsorship engagements Migros aims at fostering the three core values of Swissness, regionalism, as well as sustainability that are deducted from the overall marketing strategy. Two of the sponsorship principles Migros adheres to are to enter a sponsorship at the top-tier level only and to engage in the long-term (Migros 2012). These characteristics of Migros' sponsorship endeavors are beneficial for the empirical investigation as they lend credibility to the Migros brand as a sponsor.

Selection of a suitable sponsorship property has followed from a discussion with the retailer's management on the practical utility of expected study results, from the assumed awareness among the population of the German-speaking part of Switzerland, and from the size of a variety of potential events. The "Eidgenössisches Schwing- und Älplerfest", a triennial wrestling-style sports event has been selected as the property of the fictitious sponsorship alliance (subsequently referred to as "property brand", "event", or "ESAF"). As one of the largest sports events in Switzerland the ESAF attracts huge on- and off-site audiences and enjoys broad media coverage. Furthermore, the sponsorship structure as established for the ESAF maintains six anchor sponsors (so called "royal sponsors" in reference to the championship title of a "king" given away at the ESAF) with equal commercial rights. This hierarchy is consistent with the restriction to sponsor brands at a single sponsorship hierarchy level as purported by the scope of this research (see chapter 1.3, p.10ff.) and provides for a high degree of authenticity of the fictitious sponsorship alliance.

Because sports events prevail as fictitious properties in sponsorship research, selection of the ESAF allows for comparison of study results with other academic inquiries in the field.

As the study design called for a co-sponsor brand of uniformly high familiarity and a focal sponsor brand of varying familiarity (Simonin and Ruth 1998, p.34), the Migros brand was naturally given as the highly familiar co-sponsor (see e.g., Y&R Group 2011) while a corresponding focal sponsor had to be identified. For this purpose, a pretest ($n = 349$; convenience sample comprising Migros employees as well as friends and families) encompassing 10 potential focal brands picked by the author and two brand managers of Migros was conducted in October 2011. In order to limit the workload for the pretest sample to a reasonable level each subject provided attitude ratings, brand image fit assessments, and familiarity scores for 5 to 6 brands only. Kodak, a manufacturer of photo cameras and equipment (subsequently referred to as "photo brand", "photo", or "Kodak") was selected as the focal sponsor based on the following criteria:

- Significantly inferior attitude rating compared to the Migros brand (beneficial image transfer was assumed to emanate from the very highly valued Migros brand to the Kodak brand; $M_{\text{attitude, Kodak}} = 4.998$, $SD = 1.132$; $M_{\text{attitude, Migros}} = 5.642$, $SD = 0.843$; $t(217) = -4.56$, $p < .001$, t-test one-tailed)
- Good levels of variance in brand image fit with, respectively, Migros and the ESAF ($M_{\text{fit, Kodak/Migros}} = 3.074$, $SD^2 = 2.661$; $M_{\text{fit, Kodak/ESAF}} = 2.692$, $SD^2 = 2.350$)
- Reasonable level of variance in brand familiarity ($M_{\text{familiarity, Kodak}} = 4.973$, $SD^2 = 1.231$).

Kodak is a brand with a rich history in (Swiss) sports sponsorship (e.g., as a top-tier sponsor of the Olympic Games for more than two decades until 2008, or as a longtime sponsor of the Swiss Ski National Team) and, thus, enjoys credibility as a potential sponsor of the ESAF. While being very active as a sponsor in the past, Kodak presently deploys only limited promotional activities in the Swiss market. This was of avail to the experimental design since the probability of the sponsorship stimulus being distorted by any official corporate communication activities between pre- and post-measurement was assumed to be very low¹.

¹ Promotion of the ESAF was also expected to be largely mute during the data collection period (late 2011) because the next event of this triennial series was scheduled for August 2013 with advertising campaigns for ticket sales usually starting approximately 4 month in advance. Of course, low-key marketing communication activities were not to be expected in the case of Migros which is one of the most active advertisers in the Swiss consumer market. However, since the brand image of Migros did not serve as an outcome variable but rather as a predictor variable to the post-exposure brand image of Kodak (i.e., Migros attitude/associations are introduced

News reports on Eastman Kodak concerning commercial difficulties, financing problems, and, ultimately, filing for chapter 11 were not widespread in Swiss media until after the data collection period in late 2011. As such, it could be assumed that only a minority fraction of study subjects were aware of such negative information about the Kodak brand and that these information did not impact study results.

5.2 Experimental design and data collection

An experimental setup was chosen for collecting the data and presenting the stimuli required for hypotheses testing. Experiments have been widely used in consumer research (Gardner 1985) and are gaining relevance in contemporary sponsorship research too (for some examples see e.g., Carrillat and d'Astous 2012; Ruth and Strizhakova 2012; Zdravkovic and Till 2012; Chien et al. 2011; Pope et al. 2009; Weeks et al. 2008; Ruth and Simonin 2006). Pham (1991, p.59) suggests that experimentation is indeed the only available method to discern sponsorship effects. Applying an experimental design with pre-/post-measurement and a control group is consistent with the prerequisites of the research model presented above (see Figure 18, p.155) and allows for a high degree of control over confounding factors (Schnell et al. 2008, pp.213f. and 224) which serves isolating the effect of the sponsorship alliance. Two time points were defined for the measurement of required variables with – in the case of the treatment group – presentation of experimental stimuli in between (for an overview on experimental design and data collection see Figure 19, p.165). Allocation of participants to treatment and control group, respectively, was accomplished through random assignment (see chapter 5.3, p.162ff.). The treatment group had been exposed to stimulus objects containing information on the fictitious sponsorship alliance of Migros, Kodak, and ESAF, whereas the control group had not been confronted with any sponsorship-related or other experimental intervention. As such, the control group served the purpose to account for volitional communication activities (e.g., official advertisements of Migros, Kodak, or ESAF between pre- and post-measurement) or fortuitous impact on brand images other than the experimental stimuli in later ANCOVAs (analyses of covariance; see chapter 6.2, p.178ff.). Considering this, a total of two factors were manipulated: one between-subjects factor

into the research model as pre-exposure variables only), Migros' communication efforts were not believed to have large effects onto the study results. Additionally, for one part of hypotheses testing ANCOVAs with control group were employed in order to account for any non-experimental communication activities (see chapter 6.2, p.178ff.).

(exposure to stimuli versus no exposure to stimuli) and one within-subjects factor (pre-exposure versus post-exposure measurement).

As required for the main SEM-analyses (structural equation model-analyses), pre-exposure measurement comprised questions on brand attitudes and brand associations of Migros, Kodak, and ESAF (ESAF for the treatment group only) as well as on perceived brand familiarity of Kodak, while post-exposure measurement requested answering questions on attitude and associations toward Kodak and ESAF (ESAF for the treatment group only) as well as on brand image fit of Migros/Kodak, Migros/ESAF, and Kodak/ESAF (latter two in the treatment group only). In order to allow for switching the roles of focal sponsor and co-sponsor in complementary SEM-analyses¹, pre-exposure brand familiarity of Migros as well as post-exposure attitude and associations of Migros were assessed too. Moreover, all of the image fit scores were collected in the pre-exposure condition in addition to the post-exposure condition. The reason to do so is that a pre/post increase of perceived congruence between two brands has been accepted as a measure for image transfer in past sponsorship studies (e.g., Carrillat et al. 2010; Gwinner and Eaton 1999). Measuring brand image fit in the pre-exposure condition in addition to the post-exposure measurement thus allows for complementing main SEM-analyses on image transfer with analyses on changes in perceived congruence (see chapter 6.2, p.178ff.).

Data collection was conducted by means of a bipartite (i.e., pre- and post-part) online survey² during the period starting November 2011 and ending December 2011. Both parts of the survey were structured to comply with generally accepted recommendations for online surveys³ (see Schnell et al. 2008, p.382ff.; see also Kromrey 2009, p.347ff. on the creation of surveys in general). In an invitational e-mail the purpose of the study was revealed to prospective participants as an attempt to develop new procedures for capturing the meaning of brands. After opting-in to partake in the study, subjects were informed on the pre/post

¹ Through switching brands, Migros becomes the focal sponsor while Kodak takes the role of the co-sponsor. This was important since brand managers of Migros were mainly interested in potential image transference onto their brand (Migros brand in the role of focal sponsor) and not so much in image spillover from their brand on others (Migros brand in the role of co-sponsor). However, the direction of image transfer as analyzed for the purpose of the thesis is from Migros to Kodak, rendering Migros the co-sponsor and Kodak the focal sponsor for the main SEM-analyses.

² Survey programming, participant administration and collection of raw data were carried out through the Unipark software platform EFS Survey Version 8.0 provided by QuestBack/Globalpark.

³ As a singular deviation from structuring recommendations, gender, age, and place of living had to be assessed at the beginning of the survey (second question) in order to provide information for proper quota assignment.

procedure as well as on the incentives provided for full participation¹. Structure and page design of the pre-/post-exposure online surveys are illustrated in Appendixes B/C (p.282ff./p.291ff.).

After making sure that subjects had a minimum level of awareness for the two sponsor brands (i.e., Migros and Kodak) through requesting to tick-mark all brands that "you know and whose logo you have seen before" out of a presented roster of 26 brands (subjects not indicating awareness of Migros and/or Kodak were excluded at this stage), the question on perceived brand image fit of Migros and Kodak launched the survey. It was important to assess brand image fit prior to the attitude and associations measurement of each single brand in order to keep participants' fit perceptions unaffected from in-depth mental examination of the brands. Subsequently, two randomly rotated blocks of 3 questions each followed. These blocks served the purpose of assessing brand familiarity, brand attitude, and brand associations (in this order) for Migros and Kodak (one block for each brand), respectively. Next, subjects of the treatment group were asked to read a short introduction to the ESAF, followed by one question on their basic awareness of this event ("is known to me", subjects not indicating basic awareness of ESAF were excluded at this stage) as well as a question on on-site attendance during past editions. The question-sequence on familiarity, attitude and associations for ESAF was then followed by the indication of perceived congruence of Migros/ESAF as well as Kodak/ESAF. The final page of the pre-exposure part of the survey was again presented to both the treatment and the control group and informed subjects that an invitation for participating in the second part will follow via e-mail in about six days.

The post-exposure part of the survey administered to the control group was identical in content and sequence to this group's pre-exposure inquiry except that the question regarding brand familiarity of Kodak was eliminated (no post-exposure familiarity variable needed in research model). Conversely, in the introductory text subjects of the treatment group learned about Migros and Kodak being the two new main sponsors of the upcoming ESAF in 2013. The following pages were then dedicated to the presentation of the fictitious sponsorship

¹ Since subjects were recruited via an access-panel of the market research institute "Gesellschaft für Konsumforschung (GfK)" (see chapter 5.3, p.162ff.), participants were able to collect "GfK-Points" for their personal GfK-accounts (with the option to exchange points for e.g. communication credits at telecommunications provider Swisscom). Additionally, Migros gave away 10 gift certificates on the amount of CHF 50 each by drawing among all subjects that successfully completed both pre- and post-survey. Note that Migros has not been disclosed as the provider of the gift certificates in the introductory text in order to avoid biasing brand evaluation.

alliance encompassing the brands of Migros, Kodak, and ESAF. It was important that subjects became aware of the fact that both Migros and Kodak are tied to the ESAF through this sponsorship settlement. Serving this objective, utilization of mock articles and advertisements are widespread in experimental sponsorship research (see e.g., Carrillat et al. 2010; Roy and Cornwell 2003; Gwinner and Eaton 1999; Johar and Pham 1999). Hence, four types of media were applied here as experimental treatments: i) a mock press release by the organizing committee of the ESAF 2013, ii) three fabricated billboards announcing the start of ticket sales for the ESAF 2013, iii) a news article covered as a look-alike website page of the online edition of "20 minuten" (a popular Swiss newspaper, distributed for free to commuters in large cities), and iv) three photographs introduced as the winning pictures of a photo contest featuring Swiss farmers, jointly hosted by Migros and Kodak (press articles, advertisements, and photos are depicted in Appendix D, p.306ff.). Obviously, all of these objects were either furnished with the logos of Migros, Kodak, and ESAF or elaborated on the sponsorship alliance of these brands in written text. Design and wording were akin to communication actual sponsors deploy, thus maintaining a high degree of realism of the experimental task. After viewing the articles and advertisements, subjects of the treatment group answered an array of filler questions to obscure the purpose of the experiment. Then, scales measuring image fit of Migros/Kodak, attitude and associations on Migros and Kodak (again randomly rotated between brands), attitude and associations on ESAF, and image congruence of Migros/ESAF as well as Kodak/ESAF had to be completed.

All subjects were then asked to indicate whether or not they are currently in an employment relationship with Migros, Kodak, and/or ESAF (subjects indicating any employment relationship were excluded from analyses). Finally, participants were debriefed and introduced to the true purpose of the study. Median of the time used to complete the first/second part of the survey was 8 minutes 23 seconds/9 minutes 30 seconds for the treatment group and 5 minutes 22 seconds/3 minutes 20 seconds for the control group.

5.3 Sampling procedure

Participants for the study were recruited from the online access-panel of the market research company GfK Switzerland¹. An online access-panel can be described as a group of registered

¹ The fees charged for panel utilization and a minimum of administrative support by GfK staff was paid for by Migros.

persons that have given consent to repeatedly participate in online-surveys (Schnell et al. 2008, p.380; Göritz 2003, p.228). Due to high panel mortality and, consequently, high costs, panel studies are rare in sponsorship research (Woisetschläger 2006; for exceptions cf. Grohs et al. 2004; Quester and Farrelly 1998). Restriction of the inquiry to persons with internet access has been considered another downside of online panels. However, with 85% of households in Switzerland possessing a home internet installation (Bundesamt für Statistik 2010; an additional yet unknown number of persons have mobile internet access or availabilities at the place of work), this disadvantage of online panels has attenuated in recent years. In comparison to paper-and-pencil methods of inquiry, online surveys offer an array of benefits such as increased working convenience for participants, shorter duration of inquiries, improved sample administration, more flexibility in survey design and presentation, or avoidance of error-prone manual data collection and transfer (Arndt 2003, p.278f.). With regard to response behavior online surveys are supposed to be on par with offline methods (Liebig and Müller 2005, p.209ff.).

A total of 1'259 subjects completed the pre-exposure part of the survey and, thus, were invited for the post-exposure part which was accomplished by a total of 1'126 subjects (corresponding to a panel mortality of 10.6%). 310 subjects were dropped from the data set¹ resulting in a total of 816 usable subjects, 686 of which have randomly been assigned to the treatment group and 130 of which belonged to the control group². Since SEM with asymptotically distribution free (ADF) estimation requires large sample sizes (i.e., Yuan and Bentler (1998) suggested sample size to be 500 or more for models with limited complexity; Curran et al. (1996) showed that Type I error rates become unsustainable with $n < 500$), the randomization procedure had to ensure that the treatment group (i.e., the one on which main SEM-analyses were conducted) was of a minimum size of 500 participants. In contrary, t-tests and ANCOVAs conducted in the study at hand, analyzing, respectively, within-subject effects (pre- versus post-exposure) separately for each experimental group and comparing mean post-exposure brand image fit scores between experimental groups (treatment versus

¹ Reasons for dropping were the following: personal note to the author claiming comprehension problems; employment at Migros, Kodak, and/or ESAF; unreasonably short duration for survey completion; unreasonably short resting times on pages containing stimulus objects; total variance of answers equal to zero (that is, subjects exclusively selecting the "no answer/don't know" option or another single answer category throughout the questionnaire were excluded by this criteria).

² Random assignment to treatment and control group was administered in an early phase of the pre-exposure survey through an algorithm provided by the survey software.

control) (see chapter 6.2, p.178ff.), necessitate a minimum sample size of between 70 (t-tests) and 130 (ANCOVAs)¹. Thus, having 686 subjects in the treatment group and 130 subjects in the control group was an adequate overall sample size.

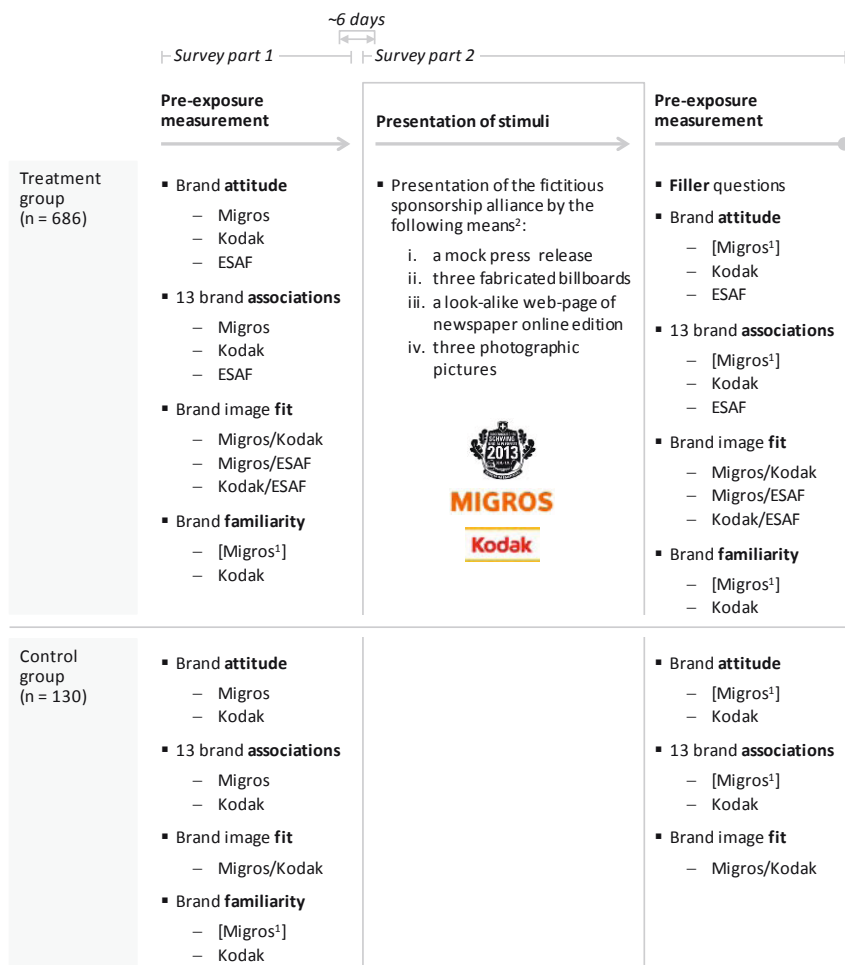
In correspondence to the target group of Migros's major sponsorship activities and by constraining the survey to the German language, the target population of the study was defined as the population of the German-speaking part of Switzerland² in the age-group of 15-74 years. In order to draw a representative sample from the target population, the number of initial invitations allocated to each geographical sector was kept in accordance with population distribution and, additionally, quota on age and gender were applied (see Böhler 2004, p.137f. on quota procedures). Demographic data as collected from the participants show that the quota plan has been maintained to a satisfactory degree for both the treatment and the control groups (see Table 3). Figure 19 provides an overview on the experimental design and data collection procedure and indicates sample sizes for both the treatment and the control group.

Quota ID:	Gender	Age range	Quota target %	% in treatment group	% in control group
1	Male	15-34	16.7	14.0	11.4
2	Male	35-54	20.1	18.8	21.2
3	Male	55-74	13.2	14.6	14.4
4	Female	15-34	16.2	13.1	17.4
5	Female	35-54	19.8	20.8	20.5
6	Female	55-74	14.0	18.7	15.2
	Total		100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 3: Overview on fulfillment of quota regarding gender and age range: Treatment group and control group.

¹ Minimum sample sizes for t-tests and ANCOVAs have been assessed via G*Power 3.1 (Faul et al. 2009; Faul et al. 2007) applying the following conditions for a) t-tests (two-tailed; determination of sample size for treatment group only since no effect is expected in control group): power = .80, effect size index = 0.34 (calculated from group parameters), level of significance $p = .05$ and for b) ANCOVAs: power = .80, effect size = 0.25, level of significance $p = .05$, number of groups = 2, number of covariates = 1.

² Switzerland entails 4 regions of official languages (German, French, Italian, Rhaeto-Romanic), of which the German-speaking part is the largest (Bundesamt für Statistik 2004). Thus, constraining the survey to German language seemed an acceptable approach to reduce complexity of the investigation.



¹ Not required for main SEM-analyses but only for complementary SEM-analyses; refer to text for details

² See also Appendix D

Figure 19: Overview on experimental design and data collection procedure; including samples sizes for treatment and control group. Source: Own illustration.

5.4 Assessment of measurement scales

Because the meaning implied to a measure used in a questionnaire might differ from the researcher's perspective to the subject's perspective, items that make up a scale must be assessed upon their alternative suitability as indicators of the same underlying construct (Gerbing and Anderson 1988, p.186). The scales applied in the course of this study are based on previous sponsorship and brand research and their reliability and unidimensionality has been substantiated satisfactorily in the context of past empirical work. Nevertheless, since the questionnaire administered to subjects here encompasses items that were translated from the original English wording to the German language and as some of the scales are a composition of related scales used before, all of the measurement scales had to be re-assessed based on the collected data. Corresponding to the scale development paradigm advocated by Gerbing and Anderson (Anderson and Gerbing 1988; Gerbing and Anderson 1988, see also Gerbing and Hamilton 1996), the assessment of measurement scales will be conducted through integration of more traditional methods such as size and significance of parameter estimates, coefficient alpha, item-total correlations, and a more recent method bringing together exploratory factor analysis¹ with an even stricter criteria for unidimensionality building on confirmatory factor analysis and, thus, providing fit indexes.

All of the latent variables applied throughout this research underlie a reflective measurement approach. That is, the items are assumed to be caused by the latent variables and may also be called effect indicators (Kline 2010, p.113). The assessment of reflective measurement scales calls for a specific set of evaluation indexes that differs from indexes used in assessing formative scales² (Huber et al. 2008, p.113). Bagozzi and Yi (1988, p.80) suggest that the assessment of the internal structure of a model begins with inspecting *standardized factor loadings and corresponding significance values*. The reason behind is that items serving as indicators of a specific latent variable should converge or share a high proportion of variance for which high loadings on the same factor are a good indicator. All standardized factor loading estimates are required to be .50 or higher (ideally .70 or higher)

¹ Exploratory factor analysis serves, among applications such as questionnaire construction or understanding the structure of a set of variables (Field 2009, p.628), the assessment of a measurement scale (Nitschke 2006, p.241).

² In contrary to reflective measurement models, formative models imply that the indicators/items affect the latent variable and, thus, they are also called cause indicators of formative indicators (Kline 2010, pp.113 and 117).

and must be statistically significant (Anderson and Gerbing 1988, p.416) with the level of significance typically set at $p < .05$ (for an overview on cutoff values in scale assessment see Table 4, p.170).

An additional evaluation of each scale is conducted through calculation of corresponding reliabilities. Reliability means that a measure consistently reflects the construct it intends to measure. *Coefficient alpha* (Cronbach 1951) is one of the most common measures of the reliability of a scale (Cortina 1993, p.98). Note that, instead of assessing scale reliability, coefficient alpha has sometimes been misinterpreted as an index of unidimensionality (Grayson 2004, p.104; Danes and Mann 1984, p.338; Green et al. 1977). Since coefficient alpha takes into account the number of items included in the scale the index becomes larger through simple addition of items¹. Hence, even if the underlying construct of a hypothetical 10-item scale would in fact be bidimensional, coefficient alpha might be of an acceptable size. That is why coefficient alpha does not indicate unidimensionality but rather allows assessment of the reliability of a scale for which unidimensionality can already be assumed (Gerbing and Anderson 1988, p.190). The range of possible values for coefficient alpha is between zero and one with larger values indicating higher scale reliability. There is no absolute cut-off value determining reliability but the value of .70 as put forth by Nunnally (1978, p.245) is a conventional threshold indicating acceptable reliability (Kline 2000, p.70; Robinson et al. 1991; Cortina 1993, p.101 notes that adequacy assessment of coefficient alpha must take account of the number of items in the scale).

Item-total correlation measures the correlation between each item and the summated score of the scale that particular item belongs to and, in that sense, is considered to be an indicator of reliability too. Items with low correlations may have to be dropped in order to increase coefficient alpha. Depending on the source, minimum values required for retention of an item vary. Here, a threshold value of .50 will be applied (Hair et al. 2010, p.125). For the purpose of this work corrected item-total correlations will be reported. The correction relates to the exclusion of an item score in calculating the combined score of the factor to which that particular item is correlated. The rationale behind is that the correlation between an item and the total score of a factor will be inflated if that item would be integrated into the summed total because a component of the correlation will then be the correlation of the item with itself.

¹ See Field (2009, p.674f.), Cortina (1993, p.190), or Gerbing and Anderson (1988, p.101f.) for more details.

Exploratory factor analysis as applied in scale assessment aims at providing a value for the explained variance and yields the number of factors that underlie the scale items. Calculating the *average variance extracted (AVE)* as the measure of choice capturing the amount of explained variance and *extracting the number of factors* underlying a set of indicators is a useful technique to evaluate a scale's unidimensionality. AVE is understood as a summary indicator of convergence and is calculated as the mean variance extracted for the items loading onto a latent variable by dividing the total of squared loadings by the number of items. An AVE of 50% has been accepted as a meaningful cut-off value (with values below indicating insufficient variance extracted) reflecting the fact that, on average, more variance should be explained by the latent factor than through error that remains in the items (Fornell and Larcker 1981). In other words, if the AVE is larger than 50%, then the variance captured by the underlying latent variable is greater than the variance due to measurement error (Hair et al. 2010, p.709f.). Furthermore, in order to substantiate unidimensionality, the items of each measurement scale are expected to load on the same factor. To comply with this requirement, the number of factors extracted in exploratory factor analysis must equal 1 for each construct. Exploratory factor analysis with Varimax rotation has been advocated for gaining insights as to item dimensionality (see e.g., Diamantopoulos and Sigauw 2006, p.269). The work at hand followed this suggestion and applied principal axis factoring as the method of extraction. All of the above procedures were conducted by application of the SPSS Statistics 20.0 software package (IBM Corporation 2011c).

It has been put forth that a more restrictive judgment of the unidimensionality of a measurement scale should be conducted through a subsequent confirmatory factor analysis (Gerbing and Anderson 1988, p.186). Confirmatory factor analysis tests how well the sample data fit to the measurement model retained from the exploratory factor analysis (Byrne 2009, p.70). For the purpose of scale assessment the fit of individual scales to the data will be judged according to *fit indexes* that will also be used later for evaluating the measurement model and the structural regression model (see Table 4 for cutoff values; see Table 11, p.188 for goodness-of-fit statistics of measurement model and structural model). This set of indexes comprises the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), the root mean square error of approximation including its 90% confidence interval (RMSEA with 90% CI), and the comparative fit index (CFI). For reasons of parsimony and because of severe sensitivity to large sample size (Byrne 2009, p.76f.; Chen et al. 2008, p.463; Fan et al.

1999, pp.57 and 73) χ^2 (including df, *p*-value, χ^2/df) will not be reported here but only later in the assessment of the measurement and the structural regression models. Note that Gerbing and Anderson (1988, p.189) make use of root mean square residual (RMR) in addition to GFI as a fit index for scale assessment. However, one problem with RMR is that its range depends on the scales of the observed variables because it is computed based on unstandardized values (Kline 2010, p.209). Therefore, RMR will not be reported here. The cutoff values indicating good fit are taken from the general SEM literature and are provided in Table 4 (p.170). Before inspecting fit indexes and judging on model fit by comparing individual scores to cutoff values it is worth noting that "there is no such thing as a magical, single-number summary that says everything worth knowing about model fit [emphasis in original]" (Kline 2010, p.193). As such, it is the general picture that emerges from examining a selection of fit indexes combined with human judgment that should provide for reaching an evaluation of fit (Chen et al. 2008, p.491). All estimations required for confirmatory factor analysis as described in this paragraph were run on the SPSS Amos 20.0 software package (IBM Corporation 2011a).

Finally, note that the indexes used for the assessment of measurement scales as outlined above are not sufficient when assessing the validity of an entire measurement model in SEM. Even though the measurement model specifies the pattern by which each item loads on a particular factor (Byrne 2009, p.12f.) and, hence, fulfillment of the above criteria is a precondition, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for testing the validity of an entire measurement model goes beyond. Since these assessments are specific to hypotheses testing based on SEM and also include important steps toward model modification, the procedures and results will be provided in the accordant results chapter 6.3 (p.184ff.).

Scale assessment index:	Cutoff value	Source	Remarks
Factor loading	> .50	Bagozzi and Yi (1988, p.80)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Standardized loadings - Not too large, e.g. < .95 (Bagozzi and Yi 1988)
Significance level p	< .05	Anderson and Gerbing (1988, p.416)	
Coefficient alpha	> .70	Nunnally (1978, p.245)	
Item-total correlation	> .50	Hair et al. (2010, p.125)	
AVE	> 50%	Hair et al. (2010, p.709f.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Following Fornell and Larcker's (1981) approach
Number of factors extracted	= 1	Hair et al. (2010, p.709f.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - According to Kaiser's (1960) criterion
GFI	values close to 1.00 are indicative of good fit	Byrne (2009, p.77)	
AGFI	values close to 1.00 are indicative of good fit	Byrne (2009, p.77)	
RMSEA	< .08 up to < .10	MacCallum et al. (1996); Browne and Cudeck (1993)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Good fit up to .08; mediocre fit .08 – .10 - Often reported with 90% confidence interval
CFI	> .90	Bentler (1992; 1990)	

Table 4: Cutoff values for measurement scale assessment.

Eventually, assessment of the scales used in the work at hand provided satisfactory degrees of reliability and unidimensionality (standardized factor loadings: .76 to .97 with $ps < .001$; coefficient alphas: .87 to .95; item-total correlations: .72 to .91; AVEs: 70% to 85% with 1 factor extracted for each variable; fit indexes generally on required levels; see also Appendix E, p.310ff.) and discriminant validity (see Appendix F, p.319) was given for every pair of latent variables. More details on development and assessment of single scales are provided in subsequent chapters 5.4.1 through 5.4.4.

5.4.1 Assessment of brand image scale – Attitude-based perspective

Brand image from an attitude-based perspective has been operationalized in a plethora of empirical studies in order to measure constructs like brand attitude (e.g., Ruth and Simonin 2006), brand liking (e.g., Simmons and Becker-Olsen 2006), attitude towards brand extensions (e.g., Boush and Loken 1991), or corporate image (e.g., Javalgi et al. 1994). For the purpose of the study at hand applicability of the scale to corporate brands (Migros, Kodak) as well as to event brands (ESAF) was essential. The selected measurement approach uses a reverse coded (i.e., a higher score indicates a more favorable rating) 7-point semantic differential scale with four items. Since a scale that has been adopted from Lardinoit and Qvester (2001) and that was utilized in a very similar, preliminary study conducted by the author¹ revealed substantive lack of univariate and multivariate normality, a modified version of that initial scale was utilized here. The items were selected in correspondence with existing empirical work in sponsorship research (Basil and Herr 2006; Lardinoit and Qvester 2001; likewise Chien et al. 2011; Carrillat et al. 2010; Roy and Cornwell 2004) while taking into account the requirements of Migros' sponsorship management.

Measured construct:	Item	Scale	Source
Brand image – Attitude-based perspective	Bad/good	<i>7-point semantic differential scales; reverse coded</i>	Basil and Herr (2006)
	Unappealing/appealing		Basil and Herr (2006)
	Dislikeable/likeable		Basil and Herr (2006)
	Unfavorable/favorable		Lardinoit and Qvester (2001)

Table 5: Brand image scale according to attitude-based perspective.

Altogether, measures of reliability and unidimensionality had to be assessed separately for pre-exposure and post-exposure brand attitude scales of Kodak as well as ESAF and, also, for the pre-exposure brand attitude scale of Migros (post-exposure brand attitude of Migros is not part of the research model). Furthermore, treatment and control groups were split with regard to scale examination. This is done so because measurement scales must meet the condition of

¹ The items used in this preliminary study had been taken from the assessment of the hedonic dimension of attitude as suggested by Lardinoit and Qvester (2001).

being reliable and capturing one single dimension in any of the statistical tests conducted and, on the one hand, hypothesis testing based on SEM exclusively relies on variable scores from the treatment group while, on the other hand, data from the control group in addition to data from the treatment group are used in t-tests and ANCOVAs (see chapter 6.2, p.178ff.). Note that as the control group was only exposed to the Migros brand and the Kodak brand but not to the ESAF brand, ESAF brand image scale assessment is omitted for the control group.

All of the attitude scales showed satisfactory levels of reliability and unidimensionality (for an overview see Table 25 through Table 29, p.310ff.). Standardized factor loadings were well above the cutoff levels, yet not too high (.78 to .95), and corresponding *p*-values indicated significance of all regression weights (*ps* < .001). Also, coefficients alpha (.90 to .95) and item-total correlations (.74 to .91) revealed that the scales exhibited acceptable reliability for all of the brand attitude constructs. Hence, all of the four items were retained. Exploratory factor analysis yielded high indication for unidimensionality with AVEs ranging from 71% to 85% with 1 factor extracted for each of the variables. Except from AGFI and RMSEA for the treatments group's pre-exposure ESAF brand attitude scale (see Table 29, p.313; AGFI = .75; RMSEA = .14, yet lower bound of 90% confidence interval is smaller than the acceptable threshold), confirmatory factor analysis revealed acceptable fit indexes for all of the measurement scale models. Since other fit indexes of the deficient scale were acceptable and the attitude scale generally performed very well across the remaining brands/experimental conditions, no adaptations were deemed necessary.

5.4.2 Assessment of brand image scale – Associative network-based perspective

The majority of research on brand image from an associative network-based perspective was inspired by Aaker's (1997) brand personality scale. However, this scale has recently been criticized for including characteristics other than personality traits (Bosnjak et al. 2007; Azoulay and Kapferer 2003), for the non-generalizability of the factor structure to situations in which analysis is required at the individual brand level (Austin et al. 2003), and for the non-replicability of the five personality factors across cultures (Azoulay and Kapferer 2003). Additionally, Aaker's (1997) scale is of limited practical value to a researcher due to its multitude of personality traits included (i.e., 42 traits in total). Rather, the scale of choice for the substantive researcher should be short and easy to administer in order to avoid respondents' fatigue. The scale applied for the present study has been developed by Geuens et al. (2009) in an attempt to overcome some of the shortcomings of Aaker's (1997) scale. Most notably, cross-cultural validity was established by assessing the scale in eleven different countries (i.e., 10 European countries and the United States), providing good confidence for applying the measure in Switzerland. The scale put forth by Geuens and colleagues (2009) entails twelve items to which one was added based on a discussion with two brand managers of Migros (outdoorsy, see also Aaker 1997). Thus, the final scale measuring brand image from an associative network-based perspective entails 13 personality traits (see Table 6, p.174) that are meaningful to both corporate brands (Migros, Kodak) as well as to the event brand (ESAF). Each trait or brand association was measured using a 7-point reverse coded Likert-type (Likert 1932) scale. Even though this approach does not account for the network aspect of the associative network-based perspective as it is not suitable to elicit in-/direct links among associations or between associations and the brand (John et al. 2006), the personality scale might still provide for a brand profile that allows for evaluating modifications of brand features due to image transfer.

Measured construct:	Item	Scale	Source
Brand image – Associative network-based perspective	Down to earth	7-point Likert scales; reverse coded; anchored by: 1=not at all characteristic for brand 7=very characteristic for brand	Geuens et al. (2009)
	Outdoorsy		Aaker (1997)
	Stable		Geuens et al. (2009)
	Responsible		Geuens et al. (2009)
	Active		Geuens et al. (2009)
	Dynamic		Geuens et al. (2009)
	Innovative		Geuens et al. (2009)
	Aggressive		Geuens et al. (2009)
	Bold		Geuens et al. (2009)
	Ordinary		Geuens et al. (2009)
	Simple		Geuens et al. (2009)
	Romantic		Geuens et al. (2009)
	Sentimental		Geuens et al. (2009)

Table 6: Brand image scale according to associative network-based perspective.

Since the single traits of the associative network-based image construct were examined in an isolated fashion in ANCOVAs as well as in path models (isolated in the sense of "one by one") with no aggregate latent factor being involved here, there was no need to assess reliability or unidimensionality of the personality scale.

5.4.3 Assessment of brand image fit scale

The scale items destined to measure brand image fit had to be meaningful across every possible pairwise combination of two (out of the three) brands included into the fictitious sponsorship alliance. Specifically, the wording of the items had to make sense for a corporate brand/corporate brand pairing (Migros/Kodak) and corporate brand/event brand combinations (Migros/ESAF; Kodak/ESAF). Image fit, thus, was measured based on a scale used by Grohs et al. (2004). For reasons of clarity in the Migros/Kodak context the original scale's item "I see a link between 'brand A' and 'brand B'" was substituted by "The image of 'brand

A' and the image of 'brand B' fit together well" as used by Speed and Thompson (2000). The resulting three items were measured on 7-point reverse coded Likert scales (see Table 7).

Measured construct:	Item	Scale	Source
Brand image fit	The image of "brand A" and the image of "brand B" fit together well	7-point Likert scales; reverse coded;	Speed and Thompson (2000)
	The ideas that come to my mind when asked about "brand A" are related to the ideas I have about "brand B"	anchored by: 1=strongly disagree 7=strongly agree	Grohs et al. (2004)
	My associations with "brand A" are similar to those I have with "brand B"		Grohs et al. (2004)

Table 7: Brand image fit scale.

All of the brand image fit scales utilized in either t-tests or structural regression models perform well against the criteria for scale assessment (for an overview see Table 30 through Table 33, p.317ff.). Standardized factor loadings were above the cutoff levels (.78 to .97) and *p*-values indicated significance of all regression weights (*ps* < .001). Coefficients alpha exhibited good scores (.87 to .92) and no item-total correlation suggested dropping of an item (.78 to .91). Exploratory factor analysis shows that the items allocated to the same scale in fact load on one and the same factor and AVEs range from 76% to 81%. Fit indexes reveal that the theoretical scale models fit the data well. Again, RMSEA of two scales exceed proposed cutoff values (yet lower bounds of 90% confidence interval are smaller than the acceptable threshold for both) which is accepted in light of the well performing remainder of fit indexes.

5.4.4 Assessment of brand familiarity scale

For measuring brand familiarity, three items used by Kent and Allen (1994) are applied. On account of the associative network-based perspective on brands that has been introduced tantamount to the attitude-based brand view for this study, a familiarity item put forth by Yoo et al. (2000) was added to that scale (i.e., "Only few associations come to my mind quickly"/"Many associations come to my mind quickly"). Measurement was conducted through 7-point reverse coded semantic differential scales (see Table 8).

Measured construct:	Item	Scale	Source
Brand familiarity	Very unfamiliar/ very familiar	7-point semantic differential scales; reverse coded	Kent and Allen (1994)
	Very inexperienced/ very experienced		Kent and Allen (1994)
	Not knowledgeable at all/ very knowledgeable		Kent and Allen (1994)
	Only few associations come to my mind quickly/ Many associations come to my mind quickly		Adopted from Yoo et al. (2000)

Table 8: Brand familiarity scale.

The four-item familiarity scale exhibited good reliability and unidimensionality properties. Remember that pre-exposure brand familiarity of the focal brand (i.e., Kodak) was included into the research design as a moderator variable, but neither its post-exposure counterpart nor the familiarity variables relating to the other brands (i.e., Migros, ESAF) are considered in this study. Also, as brand familiarity scores are merely taken into account for the structural regression models that use the treatment group's data only (but not for the t-test or ANCOVAs that utilize control group data too), it is only this group's pre-exposure variant of the scale that had to be assessed. Standardized factor loadings proved to be on satisfactory levels (.76 to .89) with *p*-values indicating significance of all regression weights (*ps* < .001). Coefficient alpha for that scale amounted to .90 with no item-total correlation calling for the exclusion of an item (.72 to .82). Furthermore, the AVE of 70% and the single factor extracted as well as fit indexes are also in support of the scale's adequacy. An overview is given in Table 34 (p.318). As observed for some of the scales before, AGFI is somewhat lower than the suggested threshold of .90 (AGFI = .88) and RMSEA is slightly above the threshold that indicates mediocre fit (RMSEA = .12). With the lower bound of the 90% confidence interval falling below the .08 cutoff designating good model-to-data fit and with the other scale assessment criteria supporting adequacy, the scale is accepted.

6 Hypotheses Testing and Discussion of Results

This chapter is structured along the main clusters of hypotheses to be tested (chapters 6.2 through 6.9). Thereby, each cluster comprises one part that provides the results of hypotheses testing (e.g., chapter 6.2.1) and a second part presenting a discussion of the findings (e.g., chapter 6.2.2). An initial chapter is dedicated to checking experimental manipulations (chapter 6.1). Proposed hypotheses on image transfer among the brands of the fictitious sponsorship alliance are examined first (clusters H1 – H6). This is done through testing for convergence of brand attitudes (attitude-based view of image) as well as brand personality profiles (associative network-based view of image) of Migros and Kodak by application of t-tests and ANCOVAs. Structural regression (SR) models and path analysis (PA) models¹ are then provided in order to substantiate evidence in support of or against transfers of brand attitude and brand personality, respectively. SR and PA models are the centerpiece of the analyses on image transfer in a sponsorship alliance since they allow for the best possible approximation to stating causal relationships among constructs and because these analysis procedures of the SEM-family have never been applied in sponsorship research to the extent as done here. Next, the hypotheses on direct effects of brand image fit (cluster H7) are explored within the framework of SR models on image transfer, building on SEM's ability to estimate multiple relationships simultaneously. Hypotheses on moderating effects of image fit on specified relationships of image transfer (cluster H8) are then tested through multigroup comparisons within the frameworks of both SR and PA models. Finally, moderation of image transfer by focal sponsor brand familiarity (cluster H9) is tested – again by comparing SR and PA models across multiple groups. A concluding chapter summarizes the empirical findings (chapter 6.10).

6.1 Manipulation checks

The manipulation check revealed that experimental requirements were completely fulfilled in both the treatment and the control group (for details on these requirements see chapter 5.1, p.157ff.). Specifically, the focal sponsor brand (Kodak) was inferior compared to the

¹ Both structural regression (SR) models and path analysis (PA) models are considered members of the SEM family as they build on the same statistical principles. While SR models allow for the analysis of relationships between latent variables that are measured by multiple observed indicators, PA models represent and facilitate examination of associations between observed variables directly (see Kline 2010, p.103ff. on path analysis models).

co-sponsor brand (Migros) in terms of attitude scores ($M_{\text{treat - attitude, Kodak}} = 5.40$, $SD = 1.06$; $M_{\text{treat - attitude, Migros}} = 6.29$, $SD = 0.89$; $t(685) = -18.14$, $p < .01$, t-test one-tailed). Also, levels of variance in brand image fit between the focal sponsor and, respectively, the co-sponsor and the sponsorship property (ESAF) turned out to be reasonably large ($M_{\text{treat - fit, Kodak/Migros}} = 4.07$, $SD^2 = 2.20$; $M_{\text{treat - fit, Kodak/ESAF}} = 3.99$, $SD^2 = 2.65$), and an acceptable level of variance in focal sponsor brand familiarity with a uniformly high level of variance in familiarity for the co-sponsor brand was achieved ($M_{\text{treat - familiarity, Kodak}} = 4.37$, $SD^2 = 1.79$; $M_{\text{treat - familiarity, Migros}} = 6.23$, $SD^2 = 0.83$). Likewise, the data show that these manipulations were successful in the control group too. Note that a score on brand image fit between Kodak and ESAF ($M_{\text{contr - fit, Kodak/ESAF}}$) is not applicable for the control group as these subjects had not been exposed to the ESAF brand ($M_{\text{contr - attitude, Kodak}} = 5.45$, $SD = 0.99$; $M_{\text{contr - attitude, Migros}} = 6.29$, $SD = 0.82$; $t(129) = -8.65$, $p < .01$, t-test one-tailed; $M_{\text{contr - fit, Kodak/Migros}} = 4.05$, $SD^2 = 2.27$; $M_{\text{contr - familiarity, Kodak}} = 4.60$, $SD^2 = 1.44$; $M_{\text{contr - familiarity, Migros}} = 6.18$, $SD^2 = 1.22$).

6.2 Convergence of brand attitudes and personality profiles

Building on congruity theory and associative learning theory as well as on a strong base of empirical evidence as provided before, it has been proposed that two sponsor brands linked through a sponsorship alliance exert influence on each other with regard to their images (see chapter 4.1, p.139ff.). A pre- to post-exposure convergence of Migros and Kodak in terms of brand attitudes and brand personality profiles can provide preliminary indication of an image transfer between these two brands. In other words, if the Migros brand and the Kodak brand are more similar in the post-exposure condition compared to the pre-exposure condition for the treatment group and such an increase of similarity does not occur in the control group, there is reason to believe that brand image has transferred from the Kodak to the Migros brand or vice versa and that this effect is uniquely attributable to the experimental manipulation. Note that image convergence is examined only for the Migros/Kodak pairing as the statistical tests applied (i.e., t-tests, ANCOVAs) require data from the control group which, though, has not been exposed to the ESAF brand. Therefore it is not feasible to estimate the extent to which the Migros/ESAF as well as the Kodak/ESAF brand pairs converged. Put another way, the only transfer relation with regard to which such an analysis can provide preliminary enlightenment is the Migros/Kodak relation that, as far as the hypothesis system is concerned, is captured by both hypothesis H1 and the combined hypotheses of H2 + H5 (i.e., the mediated pathway). However, any potential finding with regard to image convergence cannot

be uniquely attributed to either the H1 path or the H2 + H5 path. Nevertheless, it seems worthwhile to integrate these analyses here, preceding the SR and PA model estimations, since the image transfer anticipated between the two sponsor brands stands at the core of this research.

6.2.1 Hypotheses testing

The hypotheses on a direct image transfer between a co-sponsor and the focal sponsor brand ($H1_{a/b}$) as well as those on an indirect transfer between these brands on the mediated bypass route via the sponsorship property's brand ($H2_{a/b} + H5_{a/b}$) can be tested by comparing attitude convergence and personality profile convergence in the treatment versus the control group. For example, if the post-exposure attitude scores of Migros and Kodak are closer together than their respective pre-exposure attitude scores one might interpret such a convergence to originate from a transfer of attitudes between these brands. That is, an increase in attitude similarity between Migros and Kodak (calculated as the absolute difference between the attitude scores of Migros and Kodak¹) can indicate an attitude transfer (Carrillat et al. 2010, p.119; Gwinner and Eaton 1999, p.52). In case such a convergence pattern is found for the treatment group but not for the control group, one might narrow down the conclusion of an attitude transfer to being strongly related to the fictitious sponsorship the treatment group had been exposed to, and not being caused by any other possible impact onto brand attitudes that might have influenced respondents' judgment during the period from pre- to post-measurement (of course, the same line of argumentation applies to the convergence of brand personality traits in lieu of brand attitudes).

Paired t-tests (two-tailed) were conducted to identify significant pre-/post-exposure differences for the calculated similarity scores resulting from Migros and Kodak attitudes and personality traits. In order to get a balanced sample across experimental conditions, the sample size of the treatment group has been reduced to equate the sample size of the control group through a random selection procedure². In the treatment group a significant decrease of

¹ Although difference scores can exhibit psychometric concerns (Peter et al. 1993), they are applied here as this examination is of complementary nature to the main SEM-analyses presented later. In contrast to "brand image fit"-variables as directly measured through corresponding survey questions and as utilized in the SR models and PA models, the calculated absolute difference between, respectively, attitude scores and personality scores of Migros and Kodak will be called "brand image similarity".

² Not taking into account case elimination due to later outlier identification, the treatment group was reduced to 130 in order to match the sample size of the control group. As to ANCOVAs (see analyses below) it has been suggested that the sample should be balanced across experimental conditions in order to avoid problems with

attitude similarity between pre-exposure ($M_{\text{treat - pre, attitude similarity}} = 0.86^1$, $SD = 0.76$) and post-exposure measurement ($M_{\text{treat - post, attitude similarity}} = 0.64$, $SD = 0.68$, $t(125) = 3.88$, $p < .01$) supports the notion of a transfer of attitudes². In contrast, no significant change of attitude similarity was found in the control group ($M_{\text{contr - pre, attitude similarity}} = 1.00$, $SD = 0.78$; $M_{\text{contr - post, attitude similarity}} = 1.01$, $SD = .99$; $t(125) = -0.24$, $p = .81$), which gives rise to the assumption that the attitude transfer found in the treatment group is in fact related to the experimental intervention (see also Table 36 in Appendix G, p.320). Concerning the convergence of the 13 associations entailed in the personality profiles of the Migros brand and the Kodak brand, seven (i.e., stable, responsible, active, aggressive, bold, ordinary, and simple) display a pattern equal to what was found in the case of converging brand attitudes above. That is, while the similarity of the respective personality trait was significantly lower in the post-exposure situation compared to the pre-exposure measurement in the treatment group, no significant difference was found in the control group. Furthermore, five personality traits (i.e., outdoorsy, dynamic, innovative, romantic, and sentimental) revealed significant reductions in similarity in both the treatment and the control group, while one association's similarity (i.e., down to earth) did not change significantly in either the treatment or the control group. For a detailed picture on means and significance levels of t-tests for the 13 personality traits refer to Table 37 in Appendix G (p.321).

A somewhat more stringent approach on simultaneously testing the hypotheses on direct ($H1_{a/b}$) and mediated ($H2_{a/b} + H5_{a/b}$) image transfer between Migros and Kodak is conducted through ANCOVAs on differences in post-exposure image similarity levels between treatment and control group (Carrillat et al. 2010). Referring to the hypotheses, it is expected that attitude and personality measures exhibit greater post-exposure similarity in the treatment group compared to the control group. Controlling for the effect of pre-exposure attitude similarity between Migros and Kodak, the adjusted mean³ of post-exposure similarity

biased statistics in case of non-normality or deviation from the homogeneity of variance assumption (Field 2009, pp.350 and 360).

¹ As the assessment of measurement scales demonstrated acceptable levels of internal consistency and unidimensionality of the brand image scales as understood in the attitude-based view (see p.171f.), entering averaged item scores into the t-tests (and ANCOVAs, see below) is eligible.

² Note that smaller values indicate higher levels of similarity as, respectively, the brand attitude ratings and the brand association ratings are "closer together" in that case.

³ The adjusted means are those that would be obtained if the effect of the covariate was eliminated in both the treatment group and the control group (Wildt and Ahtola 1978, p.25).

was found to be lower in the treatment group ($M_{\text{treat-post, attitude similarity}} = 0.68$, $SE = 0.06$) compared to the control group ($M_{\text{contr-post, attitude similarity}} = 0.97$, $SE = 0.06$). This difference was significant with $F(1, 249) = 10.70$, $p < .01$, indicating a relationship between the experimental group and the post-exposure attitude similarity. The covariate, pre-exposure attitude similarity, was also significantly related to the outcome variable with $F(1, 249) = 122.14$, $p < .01$ (see also Table 9; details are provided in Appendix H, p.322ff.), yet it proved to be independent from the experimental group corroborating the prerequisite of the experimental effect to not be confounded with the effect of the covariate ($F(1, 250) = 1.89$, $p = .17$).

Construct:	$M_{\text{treat - post}}$	$M_{\text{contr - post}}$	df_M/df_R	F	p-value
Brand attitude	0.68	0.97	1/249	10.70	< .01

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 9: Overview on ANCOVA for dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Brand attitude".

This finding was underpinned by examining post-exposure group differences in perceived brand image fit (i.e., taking into account the scores of the "Migros/Kodak brand image fit"-variable in lieu of the calculated similarity scores as done before). Akin to the attitude similarity findings, post-exposure fit was significantly more pronounced in the treatment group compared to the control group ($M_{\text{treat-post, fit}} = 4.41$, $SE = 0.10$; $M_{\text{contr-post, fit}} = 4.05^1$, $SE = 0.10$; $F(1, 257) = 6.76$, $p = .01$; covariate (pre-exposure brand image fit) significantly related to outcome variable with $F(1, 257) = 180.65$, $p < .01$, yet independent from the experimental group with $F(1, 258) = 0.00$, $p = .99$).

With regard to the image conveyance as expressed through a convergence of the personality profiles of the Migros brand and the Kodak brand there is strong evidence in favor of the transfer hypotheses too. Specifically, significant differences in post-exposure personality similarity between treatment and control group were found for nine of the attributes when controlling for their respective pre-exposure measures (i.e., outdoorsy, stable, responsible, active, dynamic, innovative, aggressive, ordinary, and simple). No significant differences were found for three of the attributes (i.e., down to earth, romantic, and sentimental) while the ANCOVA for one attribute (i.e., bold) was not interpretable because the covariate failed to show a significant relationship to the outcome variable. The covariates

¹ Note that larger values indicate higher levels of brand image fit. This is contrary to what has been said about the (calculated) similarity scores where smaller values indicate higher levels of similarity.

included in each of the ANCOVAs, that is, pre-exposure similarity of the respective personality trait, were significantly related to the outcome variables yet independent from the experimental groups. An overview concerning results on the analyses of convergence of personality profiles between Migros and Kodak is given in Table 10 (details are provided in Appendix H, p.322ff.).

Item:	$M_{\text{treat - post}}$	$M_{\text{contr - post}}$	df_M/df_R	F	p-value
Down to earth	1.21	1.20	1/252	0.01	.94
Outdoorsy	1.41	1.87	1/257	10.20	< .01
Stable	0.86	1.09	1/254	3.97	.04
Responsible	0.85	1.13	1/252	5.93	.02
Active	0.77	1.31	1/254	21.37	< .01
Dynamic	0.82	1.12	1/251	7.69	< .01
Innovative	0.77	1.16	1/243	10.62	< .01
Aggressive	1.09	1.38	1/255	4.77	.03
Bold	No significant effect of covariate on outcome variable				
Ordinary	0.65	1.12	1/255	14.84	< .01
Simple	0.73	1.01	1/253	5.37	.02
Romantic	0.70	0.76	1/256	0.25	.62
Sentimental	0.77	0.78	1/253	0.01	.92

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 10: Overview on ANCOVAs for 13 personality traits serving as dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Personality items 1-13".

All of the assumptions for paired t-tests and ANCOVAs are fulfilled. Specifically, even though *tests for normality* (i.e., for paired t-tests this means that the sampling distribution of the differences between scores are normally distributed, while for ANCOVAs this means that sampling distributions within groups are normally distributed) showed that some of the scores were not normally distributed according to z-scores of skew and/or kurtosis (i.e., exceed the critical value of 3.29), this is not seen as a problem here because both t-tests and ANCOVAs are considered robust against deviations from normality when group sizes are large and equal (Field 2009, pp.132ff. and 360; if not indicated otherwise, the remainder of this paragraph refers to Field 2009). *Homogeneity of variance* was tested using Levene's (1960) test and Hartley's FMax (Pearson and Hartley 1954) (an alternative to Levene's test accounting for sensitivity towards large sample sizes). Data show that the variances of the respective scores

do not differ across groups. As the respondents of the survey could by any standards be assumed to have provided answers isolated from each other, *independence of observations* was given. Also, as already pointed out above, *independence of the covariate and treatment effect* was given as none of the covariates differed significantly between experimental groups (as was confirmed by running a series of ANOVAs). Visual inspection of scatterplots displaying the relationship between the covariate and the post-exposure similarity score (outcome variables) for the two experimental groups in each of the ANCOVAs was in support for the assumption of *homogeneity of regression slopes*. This finding was substantiated by the non-significant terms for the interaction of the covariate by the dummy variable representing affiliation to one of the two experimental groups. In other words, for all of the ANCOVAs the data were in support of the assumption that the relationship between the covariate and the outcome variable did not differ across experimental groups (i.e., between treatment and control group). Finally, all *extreme outliers* (with z-scores > 3.29) have been eliminated before running t-tests and ANCOVAs.

6.2.2 Discussion

The results from these initial analyses support the assertion that the images of two brands concurrently sponsoring the same event can be transferred between each other. It is shown here that the presentation of the fictitious sponsorship alliance to the subjects in the treatment group results in increased similarity of attitudes as well as personality profiles of Migros and Kodak, while there is no such effect in the control group. Furthermore, perceived brand image fit between Migros and Kodak is significantly higher in the treatment group compared to the control group. This is in favor of hypothesis H1_{a/b} (direct transfer between sponsor brands) and hypotheses H2_{a/b} + H5_{a/b} (mediated transfer between sponsor brands) collectively. However, at this stage of the analysis it is not possible to differentiate the total transfer effect with respect to the specific path it follows while transmitting attitudes and associations (i.e., direct or mediated path). Furthermore, it might be that the convergence effect between Migros and Kodak is not related to their mutual influence, but rather depends on the image of the ESAF brand that may serve as a confounding variable. That is, the image transfer between Migros and Kodak could be "artificially" generated through conveyance of attitudes and associations from ESAF to both Migros and Kodak. That way, the Migros brand image and the Kodak brand image would individually accommodate to the ESAF brand image and, thereby, appear as converged towards one another.

The subsequent examination on attitude and personality transfers by means of SEM-analyses will overcome these shortcomings since SR models and PA models are able to estimate multiple relationships simultaneously. Simultaneous estimation of multiple paths allows for differentiating unique co-sponsor-to-focal sponsor transfer from confounded transfer. Also, all the other hypotheses proposed are eligible for being tested by means of appropriate SEM-analyses.

6.3 Attitude transfer in the fictitious sponsorship alliance

SR modeling gained popularity among researchers in the social sciences during the past few years. The ability to simultaneously incorporate multiple relationships between latent variables has been embraced by scholars looking for possibilities to test complex models (Hair et al. 2010, p.634ff.). In the context of the study at hand, SR modeling is of particular relevance because of its ability to estimate partially mediated effects, that is, to assess the effect of one latent variable on another latent variable modeled by both a direct and a mediated regression path (Weston and Gore 2006, p.627f.). This is the ability that has been noted as being a limitation in the above conducted t-tests and ANCOVAs. Namely, to be capable of distinguishing the direct from the mediated effect the brand image of Migros exerts on the brand image of Kodak. Additionally, the possibly confounding impact of the ESAF brand image as noted above can be eliminated through simultaneous estimation. Another advantage of SR models over related procedures of the general linear model (GLM) family (like the t-test or ANCOVA) is the explicit consideration of measurement error in construct operationalization. Including estimates of error variances results in increased accuracy of the regression estimates which is of central interpretive importance. SEM corrects for the amount of measurement error in the latent variables "and estimates what the relationship would be if there was no measurement error" (Hair et al. 2010, p.637). Since the instruments that were used for assessing brand attitude, brand image fit, and brand familiarity throughout this study are prone to measurement error (just as basically every scale used in scientific context is), the error-modeling characteristic of SR analysis is a strong argument in favor of that particular statistical approach.

Reporting results of SR analysis is not as straightforward as doing so for other statistical procedures is. Boomsma (2000) demands that "all information should be reported, or referred to, that enables each member of the scientific community, at least in principle, to replicate the analysis as it is published" (p.461). In order to provide this information in a

structured manner, a sequence of steps as recommended by Kline (2010, p.289ff.) and Schumacker and Lomax (2010, p.209ff.) is followed: a) Model specification and identification, b) data preparation, and c) model estimation and respecification. Subsequent to these steps the results will be reported in a separate chapter (see chapter 6.3.1, p.188ff.).

a – Model specification and identification

The final structural model as specified for analyzing transfer of attitudes within the sponsorship alliance is graphically depicted in Figure 26 (see Appendix I, p.327). Note that one indicator (Post_fit_kod_esaf_2¹) of the latent factor Post_fit_kod_esaf had to be dropped because of high collinearity with another indicator of the same construct (Post_fit_kod_esaf_3; $r = .91$, $p < .001$; Hair et al. (2010, p.200) determine a bivariate correlation of $> .90$ as indication of collinearity). Post_fit_kod_esaf_2 was elected to be eliminated because its wording strongly resembles the wording of Post_fit_kod_esaf_1 and, thus, is somehow redundant, while the other candidate for deletion, Post_fit_kod_esaf_3, relies on a quite different wording compared to Post_fit_kod_esaf_1 (see Table 64, p.335; for an overview on all codes applied to latent variables and items refer to Appendix J, p.328ff.). Because in longitudinal models like the one presented here some scales are repeatedly used to assess a construct over time (e.g., pre- and post-exposure measures of Kodak brand attitude), introduction of autocorrelations between measurement errors of corresponding indicators is an accepted procedure (Kessler and Greenberg 1981, for an application in co-branding research see Simonin and Ruth 1998) and has been shown to improve model fit (Russell and Cutrona 1991; Tanaka and Huba 1987). In order to retain clarity and to not confuse the appearance of the path diagram, these autocorrelations between measurement errors (i.e., error covariances) are not depicted in Figure 26 just as little as correlations between exogenous factors (i.e., factor covariances) are. With 316 degrees of freedom², this model is overidentified. Latent variables have been scaled by constraining one factor loading per latent variable to 1.0.

¹ See Appendix J (Table 52 through Table 65, p.328ff.) for an overview on codes of latent variables and items.

² Number of sample moments: 406; number of parameters to be estimated: 90 (note: the initial model including indicator Post_fit_kod_esaf_2 had 343 degrees of freedom resulting from 435 sample moments and 92 parameters to be estimated).

b – Data preparation

Data preparation routines revealed that no case (i.e., respondent) had missing data in excess of 50% and no case could be considered a multivariate outlier according to squared Mahalanobis distances (Hair et al. 2010, p.48; Byrne 2009, p.105). Hence, all subjects remained in the sample. Analysis of missing data pattern showed that the data were not missing completely at random (MCAR; Little's MCAR test significant at $p < .01$). An appropriate remedy to missing values in case data are not missing completely at random is multiple imputation (IBM Corporation 2011b). This procedure was conducted using the SPSS Statistics 20.0 software package (IBM Corporation 2011c) with 5 imputations being averaged to result in a complete dataset with a sample size of 686 cases. Fulfillment of conditions for serving as a representative sample for the German-speaking part of Switzerland has already been reported for this dataset (see chapter 5.3, p.162ff.) and reliability as well as unidimensionality of measurement scales has been confirmed (see chapter 5.4, p.166ff.). Beyond that, testing for discriminant validity is important in SR analysis. The extent to which a construct is truly distinct from another construct can be assessed by comparing the AVE values for any two constructs with the squared correlation estimate between these two constructs (Fornell and Larcker 1981). Building on this criterion, discriminant validity is affirmed for every pair of latent variables in the model (see Table 35 in Appendix F, p.319). Because AVE is not available for the latent variable *Post_fit_kod_esaf* (see Table 33, p.317), true distinctiveness of this construct from the other constructs of the model cannot be statistically confirmed. However, as the remaining brand image fit constructs (i.e., *Post_fit_mig_kod* and *Post_fit_mig_esaf*) did show discriminant validity from the other constructs, the same is assumed to be true for *Post_fit_kod_esaf*. With regard to normality assessment, statistical research has shown that kurtosis severely affects tests of variances and covariances (while skewness can impact tests of means) and, thus, is of import in screening the data for SR modeling (DeCarlo 1997). All of the three indicators loading on the *Pre_attd_mig* factor can be considered univariate kurtotic as their indexes of kurtosis exceed the threshold of 7.00 indicating early departure from normality (West et al. 1995, p.68), whereas kurtosis is not an issue with the remainder of measured variables. Of more relevance for SR modeling is the fact that Mardia's (Mardia and Zemroch 1975; Mardia 1970) normalized estimate of multivariate kurtosis was largely outside the suggested range of +3.00

to -3.00 (Bentler 2005, p.129) with a score of 319.30 strongly indicating multivariate kurtosis.

c – Model estimation and respecification

The SPSS Amos 20.0 software package (IBM Corporation 2011a) was used to analyze the SR model (and all of the subsequent PA models). As a consequence of multivariate kurtosis, the model was examined by applying ADF estimation (Browne 1984) which is one of the procedures recommended in case of non-normality (see e.g., Schumacker and Lomax 2010; Byrne 2009; Russell et al. 1998). A negative and non-significant path coefficient between latent variables *Post_fit_mig_kod* and *Post_attd_esaf* ($H7_{v-a}$; $\beta7_{v-a} = -0.039$, $p = .287$) and some ambiguity in theoretical and empirical substantiation for that relationship (see chapter 4.4.1, p.144ff.) called for deletion of this hypothesized effect in a preliminary model. $H7_{v-a}$ consequently was rejected at this point. Three other non-significant paths ($\beta2_a$, $\beta7_{ii-a}$, $\beta7_{iii-a}$) were not removed from the model because their theoretical and empirical foundations are quite solid. Thus, the final model as depicted in Figure 26 (p.327) had 317¹ degrees of freedom. The input data for the final model can be obtained from the sample covariance matrix provided in Table 66 (see Appendix K, p.336f.). Assessment of goodness of fit indexes revealed that the model-implied covariance matrix and the sample covariance matrix were in satisfactory accordance with one another in both the measurement and the final structural model. That is, the observed data fit the hypothesized measurement and structural models well (see Table 11). A χ^2 -difference test between the final model and the initial model (i.e., the model including the indicator *Post_fit_kod_esaf_2* and the regression path from *Post_fit_mig_kod* to *Post_attd_esaf*) revealed significant superiority of the final model in terms of model fit ($\Delta\chi^2(26) = 135.53$, $p < .001$).

It has been shown that incremental fit indexes may vary substantially across estimation methods (e.g., maximum likelihood (ML) versus ADF estimation). That is why the focus here – in an ADF estimation context – is on nonincremental fit measures that are less prone to such instability (Sugawara and MacCallum 1993; La Du and Tanaka 1989; Tanaka 1987). Nonetheless, the Bentler (1990) comparative fit index (CFI) will be provided as a representative of the incremental fit indexes group (as can be seen in Table 11 the CFI values do not fully meet the requirements for good fit as indicated in Table 4, p.170). Furthermore, as it must be considered a standard report, the χ^2 statistic will be indicated albeit it is

¹ Number of sample moments: 406; number of parameters to be estimated: 89.

unanimously considered problematic because models that fit well will almost always be rejected when sample size is large (Byrne 2009, p.76f.; Chen et al. 2008, p.463; Fan et al. 1999, pp.57 and 73). Therefore, instead of relying to the statistical significance of χ^2 for purposes of fit evaluation (with non-significant χ^2 indicating good fit), the ratio of χ^2 to the model's degrees of freedom is applied as a more appropriate fit index for the large-sample-size model at hand (Wheaton et al. 1977). Practical rules for the retention of well-fitting models on the basis of this ratio range from 2.0 to 5.0 (Tanaka 1987, p.138). Cutoff values on the other fit indexes applied for the purpose of this study have already been given in Table 4 above (p.170). The estimation process converged and the solution was admissible.

Goodness-of-fit index:	Measurement model	Structural model
χ^2	883.57	950.53
df	314	317
<i>p</i> -value	< .01	< .01
χ^2 /df	2.81	3.00
GFI	.880	.871
AGFI	.845	.835
RMSEA (90% CI)	.051 (.047 – .055)	.054 (.050 – .058)
CFI	.850	.833

Table 11: Goodness-of-fit statistics for measurement model and structural model.

6.3.1 Hypotheses testing

The center of attention in this chapter is on testing the hypotheses concerning the transfer of brand images from an attitude-based perspective within the fictitious sponsorship alliance by using SR modeling (i.e., cluster H1_a – H6_a; remember, subscript "a" has been assigned to the hypotheses' parts pertaining to attitude transference, while subscript "b" was appointed to the parts concerning a rub-off of single brand associations).

Regression weights and significance levels give rise to the assumption that there is a positive relationship between the pre-exposure attitude attributed to the Migros brand and the post-exposure attitude attributed to the Kodak brand ($\beta_{1a} = 0.164$, $p < .001$; a graphical overview on the results of attitude transfer within the fictitious sponsorship alliance is provided in Figure 20; for detailed results see Table 67 through Table 77 in Appendix L, p.338f.). Thus, hypothesis H1_a is confirmed and indicates a direct transfer of attitudes from

the co-sponsor brand to the focal sponsor brand (for an overview on the research hypotheses including test results refer to Appendix A, p.279ff.). In contrast, brand attitude toward Migros does not seem to have an impact on the attitude toward the ESAF event ($\beta_{2a} = 0.064$, $p = .166$), disconfirming hypothesis H2_a. Evaluation of the results relating to the attitudinal stability of the focal sponsor over time and the conveyance effect of the focal sponsor onto the sponsorship property confirm the corresponding hypotheses H3_a and H4_a, respectively ($\beta_{3a} = 0.550$, $p < .001$; $\beta_{4a} = 0.105$, $p < .001$). Corroborating extensive prior research on the issue of image transfer in sponsorship, the results are in support of H5_a which posits a positive attitudinal relationship between sponsorship property and focal sponsor ($\beta_{5a} = 0.181$, $p < .001$). Nonetheless, strength and significance of β_{5a} did not suffice to compensate for the non-significance of β_{2a} to, in total, support an indirect effect of the co-sponsor brand onto the focal sponsor brand mediated by the sponsorship property (H2_a + H5_a; $\beta_{2a} \times \beta_{5a} = 0.012$, $p = .174^1$). The hypothesis on the stability of the sponsorship property's attitude over time, H6_a, receives strong support ($\beta_{6a} = 0.719$, $p < .001$) just as the hypothesis on temporal constancy of the focal sponsor's attitude did (H3_a). As squared multiple correlation values reveal, the proportions of explained variance for post-exposure attitude of the sponsorship property and the focal sponsor is .775 (or 77.5%) and .803 (or 80.3%), respectively. Given that the corresponding pre-exposure variables were introduced into the model as predictor variables, these high values are reasonable.

¹ The standard error required for calculating critical ratio and p -value was estimated using an approach suggested by Sobel (1986).

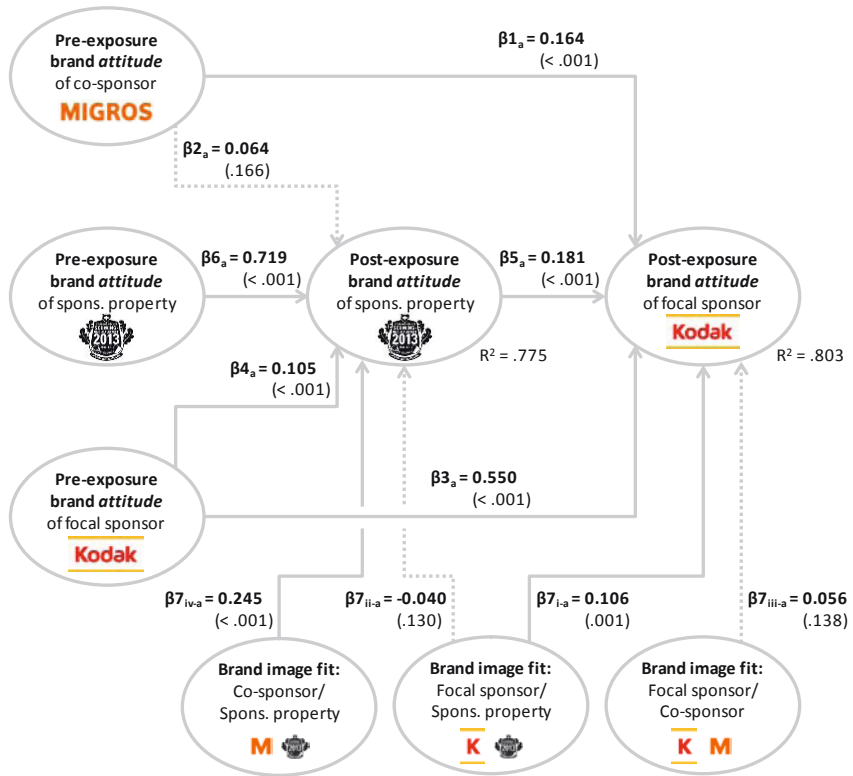


Figure 20: Structural equation (SE) model of brand attitude transfer in a sponsorship alliance. Unstandardized asymptotically distribution free (ADF) parameter estimates with p-values in parentheses. Note: Solid lines represent significant paths at $p < .05$. Dotted lines represent nonsignificant paths. Source: Own illustration.

6.3.2 Discussion

This research is among the first to find a direct transfer of attitudes between two brands concurrently sponsoring a sponsorship property (H1_a). While research on brand alliances (e.g., Simonin and Ruth 1998), advertising alliances (e.g., Samu et al. 1999), co-branding (e.g., Walchli 2007), and dual branding (e.g., Levin 2002) have well established popularity for the notion that two brands might exchange on their attitude perceptions when paired through joint marketing efforts, the work at hand underscores the relevance of a mutual impact in the context of a sponsorship alliance. In fact, this study is first to demonstrate direct transfer of brand attitude between two brands concurrently sponsoring the same event in an empirically sound manner. The repeated-measures design and structural equation modeling

approach to hypotheses testing prevented from the risk of achieving a significant positive effect based on an eventual preexisting association between two sponsor brands and suppressed potentially confounding effects. Consequently, by combining a repeated-measures design with effect-estimation through structural equation modeling the present study from a methodological standpoint extends on two studies that were previously published on the issue of between-sponsor image transfer. The authors of one of these studies in fact applied structural equation modeling to estimate their research model, whereas they chose to rely on a one-point-measurement design (Schnittka et al. 2009). However, a one-point-measurement design is not suitable for discriminating a prior association between two sponsors from a unique experimental effect. The study design and measurement approach to image transfer (relying on between-sponsor image congruence) selected by the authors of the other one of these studies did not preclude the alleged transfer between sponsoring brands to stem from an illusory assimilation (contrast) of brand images in the concurrent sponsorship condition compared to the solo sponsorship condition (Carrillat et al. 2010, study 1). Namely, such an illusion may arise as a result of the event image to artificially increase (decrease) between-sponsor congruence in the solo sponsorship condition compared to an absence of sponsorship with the concurrent sponsorship condition bringing the congruence back to its original level. Increased (decreased) congruence in the concurrent over the solo sponsorship condition is now erroneously taken for image transfer, while congruence levels in the concurrent sponsorship condition may, in fact, have remained unchanged compared to the true baseline which is an absence of sponsorship (i.e., the two sponsors pre-exposure congruence)¹.

Additionally, extant academic research on sponsorship has been confirmed insofar as the results show that being associated to a sponsorship property allows a sponsor brand to be positively imbued by that property's attitude (H5_a). With regard to the mediated path from the co-sponsor to the focal sponsor via the sponsored event (H2_a + H5_a) the results are a bit vague. An indirect influence from the co-sponsor onto the focal sponsor was not directly evident. Even though the second leg of the mediated path (i.e., the attitude transfer from the

¹ As a remedy to that issue Carrillat et al.'s (2010) second study (study 2) includes a "no sponsorship" condition and, additionally, brand image transfer was chosen to be operationalized through absolute difference values between the brands' average ratings on distinct personality attributes. However, their usage of personality attributes introduces a new insufficiency with regard to the ambition of assessing image transfer *bona fide*. Namely, their scope of investigation on between-sponsor image transfer is limited to the scrutiny of only two brand personality attributes (on this restriction see also p.196).

ESAF brand to Kodak; β_{5a}) was of adequate size and significance, the first leg (from the Migros brand to ESAF; β_{2a}) failed to come about. Yet, as the Kodak brand did exert a significant attitudinal effect on the ESAF brand (H_{4a}), there is reason to believe that a sponsor brand's image might in fact transfer to a sponsored event under certain conditions. For example, the novelty of a sponsor/event pairing may play a role in eliciting a measurable transfer effect. Due to Migros' endorsement of some popular athletes who prominently compete in the ESAF event series, Migros/ESAF convergence of brand attitudes might have taken place prior to experimental manipulation while the Kodak/ESAF pairing was novel to the respondents as no prior relationship existed whatsoever and transfer might have taken place only just upon the experimental intervention. Second, rub-off of Migros' brand image onto the ESAF brand image was enhanced in case these brands were perceived as matching well (H_{8ii-a} will be confirmed, see chapter 6.7, p.206ff.). Hence, even though no statistical foundation for the mediated path from the Migros brand to the Kodak brand via the ESAF brand was evident here, the data give rise to the assumption that such a bypass route might come into effect if the co-sponsor/property relation is not yet strongly established and/or if these brands exert a high level of fit (see the discussion on the latter aspect on p.207f.). Eventually, as anticipated, both the focal sponsor brand and the property brand exert attitudinal stability over time (H_{3a} , H_{6a}).

6.4 Personality transfer in the fictitious sponsorship alliance

Estimating transfer of brand images as understood from the associative network-based perspective accounts for the practitioners' concern to build, modify, and reinforce a specific brand personality profile rather than presiding over an equivocal brand attitude. As such, the results presented here provide substantial extension to existing literature in sponsorship research, which so far mainly adopted the attitude-based perspective of the brand image construct.

In correspondence to the SR model used to test for attitude transfer, all of the 13 PA models (one individual model for each brand personality trait) were tested by applying ADF estimation even though the majority of personality attributes did not show kurtosis indexes in excess of the critical value of 7.00 (West et al. 1995, p.68; exceptions are `Pre_pers_esaf_1` and `Post_pers_esaf_1`). Inspecting results from a supplementary ML estimation revealed no substantive differences in comparison to the ADF results (ML estimation results are not reported here).

6.4.1 Hypotheses testing

Testing of hypotheses that concern the transfer of brand personality profiles within the fictitious sponsorship alliance (i.e., cluster $H1_b - H6_b$) builds on a multiplicity of individual PA models. Specifically, each of the 13 associations contained in the personality profile as developed for the purpose of this study (see Table 6, p.174) has been submitted to a separate PA model in an attempt to estimate the paths that encompass the hypothesized relationships between the brands of the sponsorship alliance. Path estimates concerning the effect of Migros onto Kodak support the assertion of a positive relationship between these brands' associations. A total of nine associations (out of 13 representing the entire roster) showed significant positive path estimates (ranging from $\beta_{1_b, \text{responsible}} = 0.110, p = .012$ to $\beta_{1_b, \text{romantic}} = 0.186, p < .001$; for an overview on the results see Figure 21¹, p.195; for detailed results see Table 78 through Table 83 in Appendix M, p.340ff.). Also, results of the remaining four associations are in the hypothesized direction but path estimates failed to be significant. Building on the majority of personality traits implying a significant relationship hypothesis $H1_b$ can be considered as confirmed. This indicates a direct transfer of the brand personality profile from the co-sponsor to the focal sponsor. Matching the results found for transfer of brand attitude above, the co-sponsor brand's personality profile did not convey to the sponsorship property, disconfirming $H2_b$. Path estimates for seven personality attributes failed to be significant, even though all of them were in the predicted direction. Still, a positive relationship between the Migros brand and the ESAF brand was evident for the remaining six attributes as indicated by significant path estimates (ranging from $\beta_{2_b, \text{down to earth}} = 0.025, p = .047$ to $\beta_{2_b, \text{sentimental}} = 0.212, p < .001$). Stability of the knowledge structure pertaining to the focal sponsor brand was confirmed throughout the entire attribute spectrum. That is, all of the 13 pre-exposure associations attributed to the Kodak brand were positively and significantly related to the corresponding post-exposure associations (path estimates ranging from $\beta_{3_b, \text{ordinary}} = 0.306, p < .001$ to $\beta_{3_b, \text{outdoorsy}} = 0.563, p < .001$). This is fully in line with $H3_b$. Also, results revealed that the focal sponsor did rub off part of its personality profile onto the sponsorship property. Image transfer is suggested by a positive and significant relationship between these two brands on seven attributes of the brand

¹ Note that the model variables in Figure 21 are represented as rectangles instead of circles as it has been the case in the preceding Figure 20. This is done so in order to comply with model drawing standards of SEM literature. These standards demand representing latent variables as circles or ovals and observed variables as rectangles in order to provide for clear distinction.

personality scale (path estimates ranging from $\beta_{4b, \text{innovative}} = 0.068, p = .031$ to $\beta_{4b, \text{simple}} = 0.139, p = .002$), lending support to H4_b. Note that only one of the non-significant path estimates was opposite to the prediction in terms of path valence here ($\beta_{4b, \text{down to earth}} = -0.004, p = .667$), while the remaining non-significant relationships were in the expected direction. The impact of a sponsorship property's image on the image of the focal sponsor brand as confirmed from the attitude-based perspective (see β_{5a} above) was evident from the associative network-based perspective too. Specifically, H5_b is supported by the results in that a directional relationship between the ESAF event brand and the Kodak brand is confirmed for twelve brand associations (path estimates ranging from $\beta_{5b, \text{innovative}} = 0.122, p < .001$ to $\beta_{5b, \text{responsible}} = 0.258, p < .001$), while the estimate for the remaining attribute (down to earth) was found to be in the expected direction. Evaluation of indirect paths from the co-sponsor to the focal sponsor through mediation by the sponsorship property reveals positive, though weak effects for four personality attributes (i.e., ordinary, simple, romantic, sentimental; path estimates ranging from $\beta_{2b, \text{simple}} \times \beta_{6b, \text{simple}} = 0.022, p = .011$ to $\beta_{2b, \text{sentimental}} \times \beta_{6b, \text{sentimental}} = 0.053, p < .001$ ¹). Comparable to what has been confirmed in the case of the focal sponsor, the sponsorship property brand is stable over time too. In accord with H6_b, results affirm positive relationships between pre-exposure and post-exposure scores for the entirety of brand associations attributed to the ESAF event brand (path estimates ranging from $\beta_{6b, \text{simple}} = 0.362, p < .001$ to $\beta_{6b, \text{innovative}} = 0.706, p < .001$).

¹ Standard errors required for calculating critical ratios and *p*-values were estimated using an approach suggested by Sobel (1986).

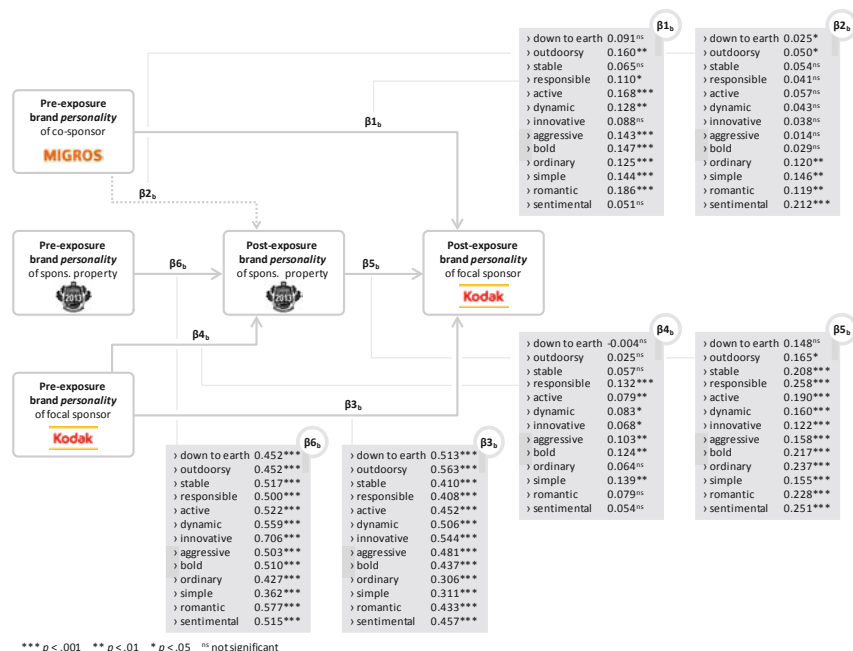


Figure 21: Thirteen individual path analysis (PA) models of brand personality transfer in a sponsorship alliance. Unstandardized asymptotically distribution free (ADF) parameter estimates. Note 1: Solid lines represent composite brand personality transfer pathways with more than half of the constituent paths representing the 13 personality attributes significant at $p < .05$. Dotted line represents nonsignificant pathway according to the same logic. Note 2: For reasons of clarity R^2 s for the 13 PA models are not presented here. Source: Own illustration.

6.4.2 Discussion

The results on the transfer of personality profiles between brands linked through a sponsorship alliance both confirm and extend on the results found in the case of attitude transfer. Except from the hypothesis assuming an image transfer between the co-sponsor brand (Migros) and the sponsorship property brand (ESAF; H2_{a/b}), all of the anticipated brand image transfers are substantiated by the data in both the brand personality models (H1_b, H3_b – H6_b) just as they were in the brand attitude model (H1_a, H3_a – H6_a). As such, findings pertaining to the analysis of personality transfers confirm the insights gained from the attitude transfer model. Extending on the attitude-based perspective, the associative network-based view provides support for the notion that transfer of brand meaning is also manifest when these brands are processed in a piecemeal rather than a category-based fashion (Fiske and Pavelchak 1986). This is of central interest to brand managers aiming at positioning their

brands in the marketplace by building a distinct personality profile. Noteworthy is the affirmation of a direct transfer of large parts of the personality profile from the co-sponsor to the focal sponsor (H1_b) since this insight is entirely new to academic research in sponsorship. While Carrillat and coworkers (2010, study 2) scrutinize the between-sponsors' transfer of only two personality attributes (i.e., exciting and sincere), their restricted approach hardly allows for an positive assertion with regard to the transfer of brand image as a whole. However, with nine out of 13 attributes found to directly spill over from one sponsor brand to the other sponsor brand (and one additional attribute being transferred through the indirect path¹), argumentation for a transfer of an entire brand image is on much more solid ground.

One question that remains open is why some personality attributes are transferred between brands while others are not. A possible explanation taps into the saliency of personality traits and contends that more characteristic traits or traits that stand out prominently are transferred more easily (Carrillat et al. 2010, p.121). However, attribute saliency for the brand from which the image transfer emanates embraces but one side of a transfer relationship – the saliency or strength of that attribute as pertinent to the receiving brand might play a role too. Specifically, if a brand association protrudes from the rest of personality traits and this attribute is perceived to be uniquely characteristic for the receiving brand, it might be inert to persuasive attempts. In the context of attitudes rather than personality traits, several contributors to a seminal book on attitude strength edited by Petty and Krosnick (1995) posit that antecedents such as importance, knowledge, elaboration, certainty, ambivalence, accessibility, intensity, or extremity relate to defining features of strong attitudes such as resistance to change and stability over time. Accepting some of the listed antecedents to be in effect for determining stability and strength of personality traits too (in place of attitudes) would allow building hypotheses on the susceptibility of a receiving brand to personality transfer on the level of single attributes. As an example, it might be hypothesized that a single personality attribute that is highly accessible and intensely pronounced in a receiving sponsor brand is more resistant to transfer impact compared to an attribute of lesser strength. In contrary, if such a personality attribute is of high saliency in the conveying sponsor brand, transfer onto another entity might be larger in comparison to a less

¹ Three out of the four attributes being transferred through the indirect/mediated path also show evidence in support of a direct transfer between sponsor brands. As such, there is one attribute being uniquely conveyed through the mediated relationship (i.e., sentimental, the direct path of which has not been found to be significant, yet the indirect/mediated path was).

salient attribute. This line of argumentation is followed and tested throughout the hypotheses on moderating effects of brand familiarity as posited in this study (see cluster H9_b) albeit with the familiarity construct encompassing the entire brand (e.g., through scale item: "I am very unfamiliar/very familiar with 'brand X'") rather than targeting a single personality trait (e.g., through a scale item like "When asked about 'brand X', the attribute of *down to earth* comes to my mind easily"). Clarification of the question of why some attributes are conveyed onto a brand while others are immune to transference would, thus, require an assessment of a familiarity-like construct on the level of individual traits. This idea would allow the investigation of differential strength of the conveying sponsor brand's individual traits' to imbue (paired brands) and would also facilitate investigation of differential responsiveness of the receiving sponsor brand's individual traits' to interference (from paired brands). Thus, in order to illuminate the question of why some personality attributes are transferred while others are not, one is in need of a theory that captures both the emanating brand's attribute saliency as well as the target brand's attribute receptiveness. These two measures would have to be integrated into an index of "transfer proneness" for each personality trait that then allowed for predicting or explaining unequal transfer strengths across the attributes of an entire brand personality profile. In this respect, congruity theory as proposed for the prediction of attitude change by Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955; see also chapter 2.5.1, p.94ff.) might be adopted to the prediction of changes in personality traits. Specifically, the convergence of attitudes upon a positive assertion made by a message source on an object or concept might translate into convergence or transfer of personality traits. The principles of "pressure toward congruity" as well as "correction for incredulity" (Osgood and Tannenbaum 1955, pp.46 and 47ff.) can explain why different personality traits may be transferred to different degrees depending on their preexisting degree of polarization in each of the two brands involved. As such, the "transfer proneness" of each personality trait could be estimated based on these traits' preexisting ratings on a personality scale (e.g., a 7-point Likert scale as used for the purpose of this study, see Table 6, p.174). In accordance to the line of argumentation presented above which states that more salient and, thus, more extreme ratings (Downing et al. 1992) should result in increased strength to imbue as well as lowered responsiveness to persuasion, congruity theory predicts, respectively, enhanced attitude change with more extreme ratings for the source (that relates to the conveying sponsor brand) and attenuated attitude change with more extreme ratings for the concept (that relates to the

receiving sponsor brand) (see Table 2¹ in Osgood and Tannenbaum 1955, p.49). Aside from congruity theory, no other theory exists to the knowledge of the author that would be feasible to explaining between-personality traits' differences in transfer strength.

6.5 Direct effects of brand image fit

It has been proposed that fit perceptions on all of the three brand-pairings pertaining to the fictitious sponsorship alliance exert influence on attitude evaluations in a linear fashion. That is, perceived brand image fit between two brands is positively related to the attitude of either one of these brands (i.e., set $H7_{i-a} - H7_{v-a}$). Note that the path indicating a positive impact of focal sponsor/co-sponsor fit onto the attitude toward the sponsored property was eliminated in the course of model-building based on a negative and non-significant path estimate (see section on Model estimation and respecification, p.187f.). This led to a preliminary rejection of $H7_{v-a}$.

6.5.1 Hypotheses testing

Regression weights in the SR model are in favor of the one fit hypothesis that has experienced strong support throughout empirical sponsorship research so far, namely the hypothesis proposing a positive linear relationship between focal sponsor/property fit and attitude toward the focal sponsor (see e.g., Huber et al. 2008; Drengner 2006; Rifon et al. 2004; Speed and Thompson 2000) ($\beta7_{i-a} = 0.106, p = .001$). As such, $H7_{i-a}$ conforms to what has been surmised. Out of the remaining three hypotheses on direct effects of brand image fit, $H7_{iv-a}$ is supported by the data ($\beta7_{iv-a} = 0.245, p < .001$), while $H7_{ii-a}$ and $H7_{iii-a}$ are not ($\beta7_{ii-a} = -0.040, p = .130$; $\beta7_{iii-a} = 0.056, p = .138$). An overview of these results is given in the graphical depiction of the integrated SR model on attitude transfer and direct effects of brand image fit (see Figure 20, p.190).

6.5.2 Discussion

Preliminary rejection of $H7_{v-a}$ concerning the positive effect of between-sponsors fit on attitude toward the sponsored property corresponds to the finding of the sole study that investigated this relationship in the context of sponsorship so far (Ruth and Simonin 2003). Schema theory and the matchup hypothesis as applied for explaining direct congruence effects in the context of marketing communications (see chapter 4.4.1, p.144ff.) contends that

¹ Note the deviations from the described pattern in case of the most polarized ratings for the receiving sponsor brand (which corresponds to OJ_1 in Table 2).

consistent images strengthen the schemas of the brands involved, while a lack of congruence may disrupt existing schemas (Musante et al. 1999, p.44). Typically, attitude change resulting from perception of dis-/congruence is of relevance for the attitude object that is being paired with a source object (Jagre et al. 2001) but does not extend to attitude changes pertaining to a third object's schema. This means that the perceived relatedness between Migros and Kodak can in fact not be assumed to have an effect on the attitude toward ESAF because no new meaning for the ESAF is created by synthesizing information about Migros and Kodak.

Attitude toward the ESAF was found to be affected by the perceived image fit of Migros/ESAF ($H7_{iv-a}$ accepted), yet the congruence of Kodak/ESAF did not exert influence on the ESAF brand ($H7_{ii-a}$ rejected). As schema theory and the matchup hypothesis suggest, it is enhanced fit rather than lower levels of fit that yields more positive attitudinal evaluation. This means that perceived fit per se does not relate to positive evaluations at all events but that a minimum level of fit might be required for triggering this outcome. This prediction is confirmed in that the brand image fit level of the Migros/ESAF-pairing is significantly higher than the brand image fit level of the Kodak/ESAF-pairing ($M_{fit, Migros/ESAF} = 5.05$, $SE = 1.45$; $M_{fit, Kodak/ESAF} = 3.99$, $SE = 1.63$; $t(685) = 18.74$, $p < .01$). That is, differential effect size of fit between Migros and ESAF and fit between Kodak and ESAF onto the attitude toward ESAF ($\beta7_{iv-a} = 0.245$ versus $\beta7_{ii-a} = -0.040$) could be explained by a difference in the level of perceived congruence between these pairings. Specifically, as an "it feels right"-sentiment on the combination of Migros and ESAF might have elicited favorable thoughts about the ESAF brand ($H7_{iv-a}$), such positive inference was not tenable for consumers in the case of the not so well matching Kodak/ESAF combination ($H7_{ii-a}$). Given that the reason for the Kodak/ESAF-pairing to not have a direct attitudinal impact on the ESAF brand is that combination's lack of fit or a negative deviation from some sort of threshold level of fit, a similar absence of attitudinal impact should be expected for the impact on the Kodak brand. However, the perceived degree of fit between Kodak and ESAF does in fact influence attitude toward the Kodak brand ($H7_{i-a}$).

An alternative construal for the conflicting findings regarding the direct attitudinal effect of co-sponsor/property fit versus focal sponsor/property fit on the property itself ($H7_{iv-a}$ versus $H7_{ii-a}$) that can also account for the seemingly incompatible outcome concerning the effect of co-sponsor/property fit on, respectively, the sponsor and the property ($H7_{i-a}$ versus $H7_{ii-a}$) may come from attribution theory and the discounting principle. Attribution theory

contends that individuals are social perceivers that intend to predict and make sense of the world around them through attribution of causes or motives to the events they observe and experience (Weiner 1985, 1972; Jones et al. 1972; Heider 1958). Heider (1958) put forth two types of motives: intrinsic (personal factors within the perceiver) and extrinsic (situational factors of the outer world). The discounting principle advanced by Kelley (1972) implies that individuals may discount or mitigate one explanation if an alternative explanation exists and research showed that in the context of attribution it is the intrinsic motives that are alleviated when extrinsic motives may explain an event (Rifon et al. 2004, p.31). Accordingly, evidence from consumer research suggests that individuals attribute motives to marketers' activities and discount a seemingly selfless motive if a selfish motive may explain the behavior. For example, a study found that consumers judge presumed marketers' intentions and downgrade an organization if they perceive the motives for sponsorship of advocacy advertising to be self-interested rather than altruistic (Haley 1996). Correspondingly, it might well be that consumers judge the intentions of a sponsorship property's management. That is, if the pairing with a sponsor is perceived to be goodwill-oriented the property may earn the credibility of being a true beneficiary required to attitudinally benefiting from perceived fit in the sense purported by the H7_a set of hypotheses. However, if the property is perceived to act selfish and commerce-oriented, a lack of credibility or legitimacy as a recipient of sponsor-contributions may withhold gaining from potentially positive fit perceptions for the sponsor/property combination. Just as sponsor credibility was shown to mediate congruence effects on sponsor attitude (Rifon et al. 2004), sponsorship property credibility may mediate brand image fit effects on property attitude. As outlined above (see p.192) prior association of the Migros brand with the general context of the ESAF event through endorsement of some popular athletes who largely represent that sport might have supplied the ESAF with a higher degree of credibility as a beneficiary of Migros' endowment, ultimately releasing the fit evaluation to become effective upon the ESAF attitude (H7_{iv-a}). Since this type of preliminary sponsor/event relation did not exist for the Kodak/ESAF pairing, a lack of perceived credibility might have deterred perceived brand image fit between these brands to exert influence on the ESAF attitude (H7_{ii-a}). The lack of credibility of the ESAF as a recipient of Kodak's monetary or in-kind support may also provide an explanation for why the ESAF did not gain from the Kodak/ESAF fit evaluation (H7_{ii-a}) while the Kodak brand did (H7_{i-a}). Specifically, the mediating role ascribed to credibility may have hindered brand image fit

between these brands to positively impact the attitude toward ESAF, whereas the same fit perception did "pass the credibility gate" to conductively affect the attitude toward Kodak as Kodak's motives to tie-up with the ESAF may have been accepted by consumers as a reasonable marketing activity.

Finally, attitude attributed to the Kodak brand is positively influenced by the fit of the Kodak/ESAF pairing ($H7_{i-a}$), while the fit between Kodak and Migros had no impact on the focal sponsor ($H7_{iii-a}$). Brand image fit levels did not differ between these pairings ($M_{\text{fit, Kodak/ESAF}} = 3.99$, $SE = 1.63$; $M_{\text{fit, Kodak/Migros}} = 4.07$, $SE = 1.48$; $t(685) = 1.88$, $p = .06$) and, thus, the line of argumentation building on schema congruity theory and the matchup hypothesis (as applied above) does not hold here. However, the strengths of the two paths did not vary very much ($\beta_{7_{i-a}} = 0.106$ versus $\beta_{7_{iii-a}} = 0.056$) which renders finding a theoretically based explanation for the differential effect very difficult.

6.6 Moderating effect of focal sponsor/co-sponsor brand image fit

Moderating effects of brand image fit (and, as presented below, also of focal sponsor brand familiarity, see chapter 6.9.1, p.214f.) on brand attitude transfer and brand personality transfer are tested by assessing differences in parameter estimates for moderated paths between two groups of subjects each. Specifically, for every moderation effect to be tested, the total sample of respondents is divided by a median split (Simonin and Ruth 1998, p.35) on the scores of the moderator variable (e.g., high versus low focal sponsor/co-sponsor brand image fit groups) and, subsequently, the SR model (attitude transfer) and the PA models (brand personality transfer) are estimated for each group. Between-groups differences in regression coefficients assigned to the moderated paths would then be an indication of moderation. In SEM, substantiation of such a variance across groups can be obtained by imposing equality constraints on the path in question. These constraints render a specific path equal across groups. The goodness-of-fit of a model constrained this way will then be compared to the goodness-of-fit of a model with no equality constraint imposed on this specific path. Note that this testing strategy implies that both groups must be estimated simultaneously (Bentler 2005, p.187; Jöreskog and Sörbom 1996, p.277). Moreover, it is important to confirm a priori that the measurement model works equivalently across groups – in other words, one must make sure that any difference between the groups results from a difference in the estimates of the moderated path but not from a difference in the measurement model. In order to test for measurement equality, factor loadings, factor

variances, factor covariances, and error covariances must be constrained equal. Now, the before mentioned model with no equality constraints imposed is called the configural model and serves as a baseline against which the constrained measurement model and, later, the constrained structural model (which, in addition to the equalized path estimate, includes the constraints that have already been imposed in order to test for equality of the measurement models) are compared. Interpretational logic behind this procedure is as follows: When the model containing an equality constraint on a certain path (i.e., path is forced to work equivalently in both of the groups) does not fit significantly worse to the data compared to the configural model (i.e., path is not forced to work equivalently in both of the groups) it can be presumed that there is no between-groups difference with regard to that path's regression weight which, in turn, means that no moderation is in effect. If, however, the constrained model's fit turns out to be significantly worse compared to the configural model's fit, the hypothesized moderation effect is supported because this result reveals that allowing the path estimates for the two groups to be different yields a better fit to the data than forcing that path to be equal across the groups. However, as mentioned before, this conclusion is only valid if invariance of measurement models is established at the same time. For a theoretical overview and practical guideline on the multigroup invariance testing strategy see Byrne's informative work on SEM with AMOS (2009, see also Byrne 2004 and Kline 2010). The traditional approach on comparing SEM models through goodness-of-fit indexes is based on χ^2 difference tests. Since smaller values of χ^2 represent better fit, a significantly larger χ^2 of the restricted model compared to the configural model gives rise to assuming a moderation effect. Thus, positive $\Delta\chi^2$ ($\chi^2_{\text{restricted model}} - \chi^2_{\text{configural model}}$) is indicative for moderation if the corresponding p -value suggests significance of that difference at $p < .05$ and if, simultaneously, testing for invariance of measurement models suggest these to be equal at $p > .05$. In sum this means that testing for significance of the difference in χ^2 between a model with equality constraints imposed and a simultaneously estimated unconstrained configural model allows for assessment of non-/invariance of median split' groups with regard to the path estimate in question. Evidence of non-invariance and, hence, of a moderation effect is claimed if the χ^2 difference between the restricted model and the configural model is positive and significant and if, at the same time, there is evidence for the measurement models to work equally well across groups.

6.6.1 Hypotheses testing

Hypotheses H8_{i-a/b} state that transfer of brand attitude and brand associations between the co-sponsor brand and the focal sponsor brand will be enhanced (inhibited) when these brands are perceived as high (low) in brand image fit. In fact, the parameter estimate indicating a positive relationship between pre-exposure attitude toward the Migros brand (co-sponsor) and post-exposure attitude toward the Kodak brand (focal sponsor) is elevated in the respondents group perceiving high fit between these brands, while in the group sensing a low level of fit attitude transfer is annihilated. Above that, $\Delta\chi^2$ is positive and significant at $p = .017$ which collectively is in support of hypothesis H8_{i-a}. These results are arranged in Table 12.

Hypothesis H8_{i-a}

Construct:	High image fit		Low image fit		Multigroup invariance test			Mod ¹
	β	p	β	p	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p	
Brand attitude	0.198	.007	0.030	.582	35.594	20	.017	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

Note 1: Separation into High image fit versus Low image fit groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface p -values indicate significance level $< .05$.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$:

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} < \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$:

Table 12: Results on moderating effect of Kodak/Migros brand image fit on path $\text{Pre_attd_mig} \rightarrow \text{Post_attd_kod}$ (H8_{i-a}).

With regard to enhancement/inhibition of single brand associations, the results are somewhat ambivalent. While for nine out of 13 personality traits the path estimate suggesting a direct image transfer between Migros (co-sponsor) and Kodak (focal sponsor) is stronger in the high image fit group compared to the low image fit group, this pattern is not substantiated by significantly positive $\Delta\chi^2$ values. As such, even though it can be noted that the spillover of these nine attributes conforms to the direction maintained by the moderation hypothesis, the lack of significance concerning the multigroup invariance test leads to a rejection of H8_{i-b}. For an overview on path estimates across respondent groups as well as values and significance levels of $\Delta\chi^2$ corresponding to multigroup invariance testing for each attribute see Table 13.

Hypothesis H8_{i,b}

Item:	High image fit		Low image fit		Multigroup invariance test			Mod ¹
	β	p	β	p	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p	
Down to earth	0.135	.109	0.014	.832	1.246	1	.264	☒
Outdoorsy	0.153	.065	0.111	.061	0.175	1	.676	☒
Stable	0.075	.115	0.012	.820	0.770	1	.380	☒
Responsible	0.140	.026	0.018	.746	2.155	1	.142	☒
Active	0.133	.035	0.061	.255	0.719	1	.397	☒
Dynamic	0.143	.026	0.090	.088	0.417	1	.519	☒
Innovative	0.083	.169	0.054	.343	0.122	1	.727	☒
Aggressive	0.128	.005	0.147	.001	0.085	1	.770	☒
Bold	0.100	.057	0.162	<.001	0.778	1	.378	☒
Ordinary	0.050	.314	0.153	.002	2.093	1	.148	☒
Simple	0.092	.096	0.176	.002	1.104	1	.293	☒
Romantic	0.209	<.001	0.139	.018	0.598	1	.439	☒
Sentimental	0.076	.168	0.020	.728	0.443	1	.505	☒

Note 1: Separation into High image fit versus Low image fit groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface p -values indicate significance level $< .05$.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$: ☒

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} < \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$: ☒

Table 13: Results on moderating effect of Kodak/Migros brand image fit on path Pre_pers_mig \rightarrow Post_pers_kod (H8_{i,b}).

6.6.2 Discussion

Apparently, between-sponsor transfer of attitude is enhanced by increased levels of focal sponsor/co-sponsor fit (H8_{i-a} accepted), whereas only partial support for a moderation effect is found with regard to the spillover of the brand personality profile (H8_{i,b} rejected). While the finding concerning augmentation of attitude transfer through increased congruence was anticipated and represents the first of this kind in sponsorship research, the absence of a significant moderation effect on personality traits corresponds to the outcome of Carrillat and coworkers' (2010) study on brand image transfer in concurrent sponsorships. Their results suggest that transfer of single personality dimensions takes place when two sponsor brands with similar concepts (i.e., fitting sponsors) are paired together, while no transfer (but even contrasting effects) are observed when brand concepts are dissimilar (i.e., non-fitting sponsors). Now, this outcome arises only when the two sponsor brands are high in

familiarity, while for two sponsors low in familiarity transfer effects emerge neither in the similar concepts condition nor in the dissimilar concepts condition. That is, the moderating effect of brand concept similarity (i.e., brand fit) was muted in the case of two low familiarity brands being paired. Since at least one of the sponsors utilized in the study at hand can be considered a low familiarity brand (see chapter 6.1, p.177f.), moderation effect of between-sponsor brand image fit may have been impeded. In line with the similarity model proposed by Tversky (1977), assignment of the Kodak brand and the Migros brand to the same category might have been hindered because of a lack of salient common features which, in effect, lead to limited transfer of attributes among these brands independent of congruence perceptions. As such, no differential outcome on personality trait transfer is observed between high image fit and low image fit groups because the Kodak brand (compared to the Migros brand) lacks familiarity in both groups (high image fit group: $M_{\text{familiarity, Kodak}} = 4.64$, $SD = 1.18$; $M_{\text{familiarity, Migros}} = 6.33$, $SD = 0.81$; $t(318) = -25.60$, $p < .01$; low image fit group: $M_{\text{familiarity, Kodak}} = 4.15$, $SD = 1.43$; $M_{\text{familiarity, Migros}} = 6.16$, $SD = 0.95$; $t(363) = -24.78$, $p < .01$).

6.7 Moderating effect of co-sponsor/sponsorship property brand image fit

6.7.1 Hypotheses testing

It was surmised in hypotheses H8_{ii-a/b} that perceived image fit between the co-sponsor and the sponsorship property will contribute to the relationship between co-sponsor and property in such a way as to fostering image transfer between those brands. Comparison of structural models shows that the path representing the attitude transfer under consideration here is substantially larger in the high image fit group compared to the low image fit group. Additionally, $\Delta\chi^2$ is significantly positive at $p = .002$, indicating superiority of the configural model over the equality constrained model. This brings support to H8_{ii-a}. Refer to Table 14 for an overview on these results.

Hypothesis H8_{ii-a}

Construct:	High image fit		Low image fit		Multigroup invariance test			Mod ¹
	β	<i>p</i>	β	<i>p</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>	
Brand attitude	0.266	.007	-0.071	.099	49.748	25	.002	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

Note 1: Separation into High image fit versus Low image fit groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface *p*-values indicate significance level < .05.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{high image fit}} > \beta_{\text{low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$:

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{high image fit}} > \beta_{\text{low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{high image fit}} < \beta_{\text{low image fit}}$:

Table 14: Results on moderating effect of Migros/ESAF brand image fit on path *Pre_attd_mig* → *Post_attd_esaf* (H8_{ii-a}).

Akin to what was observed with regard to the moderating effect of focal sponsor/co-sponsor fit (see above, p.201ff.), no clear picture pertaining to the interaction of brand personality transfer by image fit between the co-sponsor and the sponsorship property can be afforded. Notably, for only one attribute (i.e., stable) out of the 13 attributes roster a moderated rub-off can be fully claimed inasmuch as both the regression weight in the high image fit group exceeds the regression weight in the low image fit group and the $\Delta\chi^2$ is positive and significant. Path estimates of eleven attributes are in the expected direction, i.e., are larger in the high versus the low image fit groups, yet are accompanied by non-significant $\Delta\chi^2$ s. One attribute (i.e., bold) behaves opposed to expectations. In the face of such ambiguous outcome H8_{ii-b} is rejected. The results are presented in Table 15.

Hypothesis H8_{ii-b}

Item:	High image fit		Low image fit		Multigroup invariance test			Mod ¹
	β	p	β	p	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p	
Down to earth	0.024	.122	0.022	.232	0.004	1	.949	☒
Outdoorsy	0.045	.042	-0.020	.522	2.874	1	.090	☒
Stable	0.095	.079	-0.067	.259	4.110	1	.043	☑
Responsible	0.067	.326	-0.049	.334	1.876	1	.171	☒
Active	0.091	.065	-0.014	.743	2.462	1	.117	☒
Dynamic	0.091	.073	-0.035	.520	2.849	1	.091	☒
Innovative	0.053	.355	0.001	.983	0.399	1	.528	☒
Aggressive	0.041	.453	-0.036	.476	1.041	1	.308	☒
Bold	0.003	.959	0.056	.342	0.354	1	.552	☒
Ordinary	0.174	.005	0.089	.136	0.963	1	.326	☒
Simple	0.181	.004	0.098		0.831	1	.362	☒
Romantic	0.155	.010	0.064	.393	0.869	1	.351	☒
Sentimental	0.230	<.001	0.106	.047	2.532	1	.112	☒

Note 1: Separation into High image fit versus Low image fit groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface p -values indicate significance level $< .05$.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$; ☑

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} < \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$; ☒

Table 15: Results on moderating effect of Migros/ESAF brand image fit on path *Pre_pers_mig* → *Post_pers_esaf* (H8_{ii-b}).

6.7.2 Discussion

Remember that the pre-exposure attitude toward Migros had not been found to transfer to the post-exposure attitude toward ESAF as revealed by a non-significant main effect on the direct relationship between these brands (H2_a has been rejected). Yet, the interaction of attitude transfer by brand image fit now reveals that the relationship between Migros and ESAF will be stronger than predicted by the main effect if the two brands are perceived as fitting well (H8_{ii-a}). Consequently, given high fit between Migros and ESAF, the indirect impact of attitude toward Migros on attitude toward Kodak, mediated by the attitude toward the ESAF brand, becomes relevant too (H2_a + H5_a; $\beta_{2a} \times \beta_{5a} = 0.063$, $p = .047^1$). It should be recalled that the indirect path was not found to be significant in the non-moderated case (H2_a + H5_a;

¹ The standard error required for calculating critical ratio and p -value was estimated using an approach suggested by Sobel (1986).

$\beta_{2a} \times \beta_{5a} = 0.012$, $p = .174$; see p.189). However, alongside the fortification of the mediated path in case of high image fit, the direct path from Migros to Kodak is losing strength compared to what the main effect predicted. Specifically, the main attitude transfer effect between Migros and Kodak amounted to $\beta_{1a} = 0.164$ (see Figure 20, p.190) while that path's weight drops to $\beta_{1a} = 0.082$ if only the data from the high image fit group are considered. This finding gives rise to the assumption that when brand image fit between the co-sponsor and the sponsorship property is high, a fraction of the direct attitude transfer from co-sponsor to focal sponsor is offset to travel along the mediated path via the property's attitude. A corresponding pattern of compensation is evident for the transfer of brand personality traits. That is, eight out of the nine traits (the trait of bold is the exception) that have been identified to rub off from Migros to Kodak in the main effects PA models (see Figure 21, p.195) lose strength on their respective β_{1b} -weights while simultaneously gaining strength on their respective β_{2b} -weights (corresponding to the partial confirmation of H8_{ii-b}) and β_{5b} -weights in the case of high Migros/ESAF fit. Note however that the combined $\beta_{2b} \times \beta_{5b}$ path does reach significance only for those traits that have already been found to significantly transfer on the mediated route in the main effects models (i.e., ordinary, simple, romantic, sentimental, see Figure 21, p.195). Overall, these results demonstrate that image transfer between two sponsor brands that are paired by means of a sponsorship alliance does not uniformly occur through a main effect but might also travel along the path mediated by the sponsorship property's image if certain conditions with regard to the alliance's composition (e.g., high level of co-sponsor/sponsorship property brand image fit) are fulfilled.

6.8 Moderating effects of focal sponsor/sponsorship property brand image fit

6.8.1 Hypotheses testing

In support of H8_{iii-a} the results suggest a significant interaction of attitude transfer from Kodak to the ESAF event by Kodak/ESAF congruity. Specifically, the regression coefficient representing this transfer is larger in the group of subjects perceiving a good fit between these brands compared to the group of respondents that do not think that the brands match-up particularly well. Table 16 provides the detailed results on this observation.

Hypothesis H8_{iii-a}

Construct:	High image fit		Low image fit		Multigroup invariance test			
	β	p	β	p	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p	Mod ¹
Brand attitude	0.154	.010	0.007	.857	31.798	20	.045	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

Note 1: Separation into High image fit versus Low image fit groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface p -values indicate significance level $< .05$.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$:

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} < \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$:

Table 16: Results on moderating effect of Kodak/ESAF brand image fit on path $Pre_attd_kod \rightarrow Post_attd_esaf$ (H8_{iii-a}).

Analogically to what was found for the moderation hypotheses on brand image fit up to this point (i.e., H8_{i-b} and H8_{ii-b}), no consistent support for the interaction of personality transfer by focal sponsor/sponsorship property fit is found (H8_{iii-b}). Results compiled in Table 17 are in the direction of what was hypothesized as path estimates are almost consistently stronger in the high image fit group compared to the low image fit group (the traits of outdoorsy and active as exceptions). Nevertheless, it is only for two out of the 13 attributes that a moderation of the transfer from the Kodak brand to the ESAF brand can be fully claimed building on positive and significant χ^2 differences (i.e., responsible, romantic). This outcome calls for the rejection of H8_{iii-b}.

Hypothesis H8_{iii-b}

Item:	High image fit		Low image fit		Multigroup invariance test			Mod ¹
	β	p	β	p	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	p	
Down to earth	-0.006	.477	-0.010	.447	0.051	1	.821	☒
Outdoorsy	-0.003	.848	0.019	.411	0.618	1	.432	☒
Stable	0.056	.192	-0.024	.588	1.676	1	.196	☒
Responsible	0.181	<.001	0.058	.134	3.978	1	.046	☑
Active	0.022	.408	0.051	.151	0.427	1	.514	☒
Dynamic	0.079	.047	0.010	.834	1.312	1	.252	☒
Innovative	0.070	.188	0.020	.628	0.544	1	.461	☒
Aggressive	0.101	.060	0.028	.590	0.978	1	.323	☒
Bold	0.139	.007	0.027	.680	1.771	1	.183	☒
Ordinary	0.079	.255	0.047	.394	0.129	1	.720	☒
Simple	0.166	.016	0.102	.082	0.509	1	.476	☒
Romantic	0.177	.012	-0.026	.716	3.851	1	.050	☑
Sentimental	0.129	.078	-0.020	.728	2.408	1	.121	☒

Note 1: Separation into High image fit versus Low image fit groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface p -values indicate significance level $< .05$.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{high image fit}} > \beta_{\text{low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$: ☑

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{high image fit}} > \beta_{\text{low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{high image fit}} < \beta_{\text{low image fit}}$: ☒

Table 17: Results on moderating effect of Kodak/ESAF brand image fit on path $Pre_pers_kod \rightarrow Post_pers_esaf$ (H8_{iii-b}).

According to the data, increased levels of perceived Kodak/ESAF fit does also enhance attitude transfer in the reverse direction of what was investigated right before: namely the transfer from the ESAF brand upon the Kodak brand (H8_{iv-a}). The results presented in Table 18 show that attitude conveyance takes place in the high image fit group while in the low image fit group transfer seems to be obliterated. Again, model comparison unveils that the unconstrained model fits significantly better to the data than the model with the equality constraint imposed on the path from $Post_attd_esaf$ to $Post_attd_kod$. Thus, H8_{iv-a} is supported.

Hypothesis H8_{iv-a}

Construct:	High image fit		Low image fit		Multigroup invariance test			Mod ¹
	β	<i>p</i>	β	<i>p</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>	
Brand attitude	0.286	<.001	0.019	.711	50.959	20	<.001	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

Note 1: Separation into High image fit versus Low image fit groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface *p*-values indicate significance level < .05.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$:

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} < \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$:

Table 18: Results on moderating effect of Kodak/ESAF brand image fit on path $Post_attd_esaf \rightarrow Post_attd_kod$ (H8_{iv-a}).

The results concerning transfer of personality traits from the ESAF brand to the Kodak brand bolster the contention that brand image fit between sponsor and property facilitates the spillover of brand associations. With ten from 13 attributes being subject to a significantly augmented rub-off in the high image fit group compared to the low image fit group, a substantive relay of the personality profile can be claimed. This is in favor of H8_{iv-b}. Detailed results are outlined in Table 19.

Hypothesis H8_{iv-b}

Item:	High image fit		Low image fit		Multigroup invariance test			Mod ¹
	β	<i>p</i>	β	<i>p</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>	
Down to earth	0.531	.037	-0.227	.053	6.211	1	.013	☑
Outdoorsy	-0.033	.823	0.021	.794	0.103	1	.749	☒
Stable	0.342	<.001	0.066	.186	10.698	1	.001	☑
Responsible	0.404	<.001	0.056	.246	18.908	1	<.001	☑
Active	0.304	<.001	0.049	.395	7.022	1	.008	☑
Dynamic	0.326	<.001	0.012	.795	19.024	1	<.001	☑
Innovative	0.165	<.001	-0.001	.983	6.490	1	.011	☑
Aggressive	0.254	<.001	0.069	.102	9.424	1	.002	☑
Bold	0.288	<.001	0.135	.001	5.476	1	.019	☑
Ordinary	0.339	<.001	0.166	<.001	6.132	1	.013	☑
Simple	0.283	<.001	0.054	.280	9.336	1	.002	☑
Romantic	0.232	<.001	0.207	<.001	0.089	1	.765	☒
Sentimental	0.268	<.001	0.185	<.001	0.975	1	.323	☒

Note 1: Separation into High image fit versus Low image fit groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface *p*-values indicate significance level < .05.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$: ☑

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} < \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$: ☒

Table 19: Results on moderating effect of Kodak/ESAF brand image fit on path $Post_pers_esaf \rightarrow Post_pers_kod$ (H8_{iv-b}).

6.8.2 Discussion

In correspondence to the moderation effect found for brand image fit and attitude transfer between the Migros/ESAF pairing, results of the Kodak/ESAF pairing support the assumption that attitude transfer from a sponsor to the sponsored property is stronger than predicted by the main effect if consumers perceive these brands as matching well (H8_{iii-a} confirmed). Thus, for the high image fit group, these results are in line with Ruth and Simonin's (2003) finding that attitudes toward sponsor brands account for a significant portion of variance in consumers' development of attitudes toward the sponsored event. Even though H8_{iii-b} was rejected, the results are in partial support for the assertion that brand personality is transferred from sponsor to the sponsorship property in case these brands' images are perceived as congruent (see also H8_{ii-b}). This is in line with what Henseler and coworkers (2009) found.

Moderation of image transfer from the sponsored property to a sponsor brand is the one relationship out of the entire framework put to test in the study at hand that has enjoyed the lion's share of scholar attention in the past. The results obtained here confirm propositions made in sponsorship literature (see e.g., Grohs and Reisinger 2005; Gwinner and Eaton 1999; Musante et al. 1999; Gwinner 1997) in that the Kodak/ESAF fit was found to enhance attitude transfer from the ESAF brand to the Kodak brand (H8_{iv-a}). Extending current knowledge, this study also demonstrates that brand image fit interacts with brand image transfer on the piecemeal level of single personality traits (H8_{iv-b}).

As one pattern of outcome consistently emerged throughout the moderation hypotheses up to this point it is worth to have a closer look at that issue. Specifically, the moderation hypotheses turned out to receive full support as far as brand attitude transfers are concerned, while, H8_{iv-b} excluded, moderation effects concerning brand personality transfer lacked support. This inconsistency may be explained by the different processing mechanism activated when evaluating a brand on the categorical level of attitudes compared to characterizing a brand in a piecemeal fashion through rating single personality attributes (Fiske and Pavelchak 1986). Because brand image fit as assessed here taps into similarities between brands on an attitudinal, that is categorical, level (e.g. scale item: "The image of 'brand A' and the image of 'brand B' fit together well") rather than on a personality traits', that is piecemeal, level (e.g.: "'Brand A' and 'brand B' correspond to each other well with regard to the attribute of *down to earth*"), the utilized measure of fit might be more relevant for moderation of attitude transfer than it is for moderation of personality traits transfer. However, this reasoning remains speculative since, to the knowledge of the author, no empirical work has investigated differential effects of brand image fit on attitude and personality transfer, respectively, nor did any study address the feasibility of a fit measure that relies on piecemeal personality traits rather than categorical brand attitudes.

6.9 Moderating effects of focal sponsor brand familiarity

Principles of accessibility, either of the object-evaluation association that defines attitude toward a brand or of brand personality traits, led to the hypotheses concerning stronger image effects being exerted from a focal sponsor brand on paired brands in case the focal sponsor enjoys a high level of familiarity compared to when its associative network is undistinctive and represented by less established cognitions (H9_{i-a/b}, H9_{ii-a/b}). On the other hand, inferring from reflections on the cognitive stability and strength of attitudes as well as on latent

inhibition of learning processes pertaining to brand associations it has been hypothesized that spillover onto the focal sponsor will be muted when this brand is perceived as being highly familiar, whereas transference will be relatively strong when this brand lacks an extensive and stable network of prior associations. Hence, image relations encompassing the focal sponsor image as the outcome variable will be moderated by focal sponsor brand familiarity in a way that transfer is reduced when brand familiarity is high and vice versa ($H9_{iii-a/b}$, $H9_{iv-a/b}$).

6.9.1 Hypotheses testing

Results on the interactions of image transfer paths originating in the focal sponsor brand by focal sponsor brand familiarity are generally in the direction suggested by the corresponding hypotheses (i.e., $H9_{i-a/b}$, $H9_{ii-b}$) with the exception of one relationship being marginally at odds with the accordant hypothesis (i.e., $H9_{ii-a}$). Nevertheless, as multigroup invariance tests do not exert significant χ^2 difference scores, both $H9_{i-a/b}$ and $H9_{ii-a/b}$ must be rejected. The results on testing the attitude-related parts of these hypotheses reveal that the self-affective relationship between pre-exposure and post-exposure attitude toward Kodak is enhanced in the high familiarity group over the low familiarity group ($\beta_{9_{i-a, High\ familiarity}} = 0.788$, $p < .001$; $\beta_{9_{i-a, Low\ familiarity}} = 0.633$, $p < .001$; $\Delta\chi^2(27) = 36.499$; $p = .105$), while the regression coefficients on the transfer from the Kodak brand to the ESAF brand are almost equal across groups ($\beta_{9_{ii-a, High\ familiarity}} = 0.069$, $p = .250$; $\beta_{9_{ii-a, Low\ familiarity}} = 0.081$, $p = .100$; $\Delta\chi^2(27) = 36.119$; $p = .113$). Outcomes with regard to the conveyance of personality profiles are in the expected direction too and show that the majority of attributes is subject to a stronger spillover in the high familiarity group compared to the low familiarity group. This pattern of effects was found to be true for both of the moderated transfer relations emanating from the Kodak brand (i.e., $H9_{i-b}$ and $H9_{ii-b}$) (for more details on these results refer to Table 84 through Table 87 in Appendix N, p.346ff.).

Interestingly, when the focal sponsor is determined to be the brand on which image effects are imposed upon, results of testing for moderation by brand familiarity are at odds with what has been anticipated in hypotheses $H9_{iii-a/b}$ and $H9_{iv-a/b}$. The results show that image transfer from either the Migros brand or the ESAF brand to the Kodak brand is stronger in the group of participants that declared to be highly familiar with the Kodak brand compared to the group indicating low familiarity. This unexpected pattern emerges in both the analysis on attitude transfer and in the models scrutinizing transfer of personality traits. Path estimates on attitude transfer show that high perceived familiarity allows for more intensive spillover

from, respectively, the Migros brand and the ESAF brand to the Kodak brand compared to low perceived familiarity ($\beta_{\text{iii-a, High familiarity}} = 0.163$, $p = .008$; $\beta_{\text{iii-a, Low familiarity}} = 0.079$, $p = .211$; $\Delta\chi^2(27) = 37.038$; $p = .094$; $\beta_{\text{iv-a, High familiarity}} = 0.203$, $p < .001$; $\beta_{\text{iv-a, Low familiarity}} = 0.109$, $p = .048$; $\Delta\chi^2(27) = 38.395$; $p = .072$). A corresponding outcome with the majority of path estimates opposite to what was hypothesized is displayed by the results on the interaction of the transfer of single personality traits by focal sponsor familiarity. Specifically, nine out of 13 personality traits are transferred more smoothly from Migros to Kodak in the group of subjects that perceived Kodak as a familiar brand compared to the group indicating low familiarity with Kodak. A comparable pattern emerges in twelve out of 13 attributes when the transfer relationship from the ESAF brand to the Kodak brand is analyzed. This is in contrast to H9_{iii-b} and H9_{iv-b}. In light of these unexpected results hypotheses H9_{iii-a/b} and H9_{iv-a/b} are rejected, though it will be instructive to further elaborate on this outcome in the subsequent discussion section. For reasons of parsimony, the associated results tables are provided in the appendix (see Table 88 through Table 91 in Appendix N, p.348ff.). Note that neither attitude transfers (where two $\Delta\chi^2$ scores reach significance at $p < .10$) nor personality traits transfers (with the exception of three traits across the total of 2 x 13 traits encompassed by the two hypotheses of H9_{iii-b} and H9_{iv-b}) reach significance with regard to χ^2 differences at the requested level of $p < .05$.

6.9.2 Discussion

Concerning the hypotheses on moderation effects of focal sponsor brand familiarity with the focal sponsor determined to be the source of image transfer, the results are in the expected direction for those paths that reflect the self-affective relationship between pre-exposure and post-exposure image of Kodak (H9_{i-a/b}). However, the difference between the high familiarity group and the low familiarity group did not exert significance. Given the substantive main effects found for the relationship that underlies the proposed moderation effect here (i.e., the relationship between pre-exposure and post-exposure brand image of the focal brand, see $\beta_{3a/b}$ in Figure 20, p.190 and Figure 21, p.195), a ceiling effect could have come into play with very strong path estimates across familiarity groups rendering detection of significant differential effects between familiarity groups improbable.

The explanatory approach shedding light on the failure to detect differential strength of image transfer from Kodak to ESAF between the high and the low familiarity group (H9_{ii-a/b}) relies on the distinctiveness and saliency of the Kodak brand required to impact the ESAF

brand. Specifically, for exerting an influence on a sponsorship property, a sponsor brand might have to be of a minimum familiarity level – either in absolute terms or in relation to the property's familiarity – which the Kodak brand could have failed to reach in both the high and the low familiarity groups. In this manner, the absence of a differential effect on the Kodak-ESAF relation would make sense. However, because there is no way to assess adequacy of Kodak brand familiarity against any absolute threshold for a moderating impact and since the Kodak brand enjoys higher (rather than lower) brand familiarity compared to the ESAF brand in both the high and the low familiarity groups (high familiarity group: $M_{\text{familiarity, Kodak}} = 5.52$, $SD = 0.66$; $M_{\text{familiarity, ESAF}} = 3.71$, $SD = 1.46$; $t(314) = -21.59$, $p < .01$; low familiarity group: $M_{\text{familiarity, Kodak}} = 3.39$, $SD = 0.94$; $M_{\text{familiarity, ESAF}} = 3.28$, $SD = 1.41$; $t(363) = -1.30$, $p = .19$), neither the suggestion on an absolute familiarity value being required for moderation nor the premise on a relational requirement can be corroborated here. Thus, the subject of explaining failure to find differential effect of Kodak brand familiarity on image transfer from Kodak to ESAF remains open.

Inferring from principles of cognitive stability it was anticipated that spillover on the focal sponsor will be muted when this brand is perceived as being highly familiar, whereas transference will be relatively strong in case this brand lacks an extensive and stable network of prior associations. In fact, it has not been expected that image transfers onto the focal sponsor brand would be intensified in case its familiarity is perceived as high while the transfers are attenuated in the low familiarity group (contrasting $H9_{\text{iii-a/b}}$ and $H9_{\text{iv-a/b}}$). These results differ from those of Carrillat and colleagues (2005) as well as from those of Lardinoit and Quester (2001) who found that brands for which prior knowledge is strong are less susceptible to communicative stimuli. However, the outcome of the study at hand is in line with the notion that more elaborate cognitive structures yield more efficient processing of stimuli. Outlining the effect of prior experience with a sponsor brand Cornwell et al. (2005) note that "familiarity [...] positively impacts the perceived relations between new stimuli and existing associations" (p.32) and Cornwell and Maignan (1998) in their review of sponsorship research posit that building brand image through sponsorship requires "that there be an established understanding of the brand" (p.17). This implies that if the audience maintains a more internalized associative network for a sponsor brand (compared to a less internalized one), this brand stands to gain more from allying with other sponsors or the sponsorship property because it is endowed with a rich network of nodes and links to which additional

features can be added more easily. These reflections are in accordance with the results reported by Carrillat et al. (2010), who found that increased levels of sponsor brands' familiarity enhances transfer and contrast of image while such effects were absent with less familiar brands. Also, Schnittka et al. (2009) report that image transfer from a sponsored event is higher to a familiar sponsor compared to an unfamiliar sponsor. Categorization theory may provide an explanation for this unanticipated outcome. It has been proposed that people tend to categorize similar objects together, while dissimilar objects are assigned to different mental categories (Medin et al. 1993; Rosch and Mervis 1975). According to Tversky's (1977) similarity model, common and distinctive features of two objects are weighted by the saliency of these features to obtain a measure of similarity. In effect, objects with common salient features are categorized together, whereas objects with distinctive salient features are allocated to different categories. Through an assimilation effect, objects assigned to the same category tend to be perceived as even more similar (Krueger and Clement 1994; Tajfel 1959). On these grounds, familiarity conceived as the saliency of brand attributes might be interpreted as a condition sine qua non for brand image congruence or fit to exert a moderating influence on the assimilation of two brands' images. In other words, brand familiarity might not be a moderating variable on its own account but may rather be a precondition for moderating effects of brand image fit to materialize in the first place. The data of the study at hand correspond to this line of reasoning. For the brand pairs of which the focal sponsor is a part of, familiarity levels of both brands are significantly higher in the high brand image fit groups compared to the low fit groups (see Table 20). Put another way, the data does not obviate the argumentation that increased strength of image transfer in the high fit groups does unfold through a categorization process that also relies on increased levels of brand familiarity in these groups. On the other hand, image transfer might be inhibited in the low fit groups because categorization and, hence, assimilation does not unfold in the case two objects with indistinctive, non-salient features are paired. Thus, if image transfer relies on assimilation effects between two brands categorized together, common features (i.e., brand image fit) and feature saliency (i.e., brand familiarity) both may facilitate image transfer through their joint contribution to brand similarity. As such, an increased level of Kodak brand familiarity turns out to be beneficial (instead of detrimental – as hypothesized) to image transfers from, respectively, Migros and ESAF to Kodak.

Brand familiarity of:	Focal sponsor/co-sponsor brand image fit		Focal sponsor/sponsorship property brand image fit	
	High	Low	High	Low
Focal sponsor	4.64**	4.15		
Co-sponsor	6.33**	6.17		
Focal sponsor			4.63**	4.17
Sponsorship property			3.72**	3.28

** $p < .01$

Table 20: Results of *t*-tests comparing mean brand familiarity scores of high versus low brand image fit groups.

6.10 Summary of empirical findings

This study contributes to sponsorship literature in that it provides evidence in support of the idea that a sponsor might not only benefit from exploitation of a sponsorship property's image (H5_{a/b}), but also stands to gain from brand attitudes and brand associations innately tied to a co-sponsor (H1_{a/b}). While research on brand alliance or co-branding has well established popularity for the notion that two brands might exchange on their image when paired through a joint marketing effort (see e.g., Walchli 2007; Levin 2002; Rao et al. 1999; Samu et al. 1999), this research underscores the relevance of a mutual impact in the context of a sponsorship alliance. In fact, this study is the first to comprehensively demonstrate brand image transfer among the brands constituting a sponsorship alliance. Extending on the attitude-based perspective, the associative network-based view provides support for the notion that transfer of evaluations is also manifest when these brands are processed in a piecemeal rather than a category-based fashion (Fiske and Pavelchak 1986). Most notable is the affirmation of a direct transfer of large parts of a brand personality profile from the co-sponsor to the focal sponsor (H1_b) since this insight is entirely new to research in sponsorship. The models applied in this research also substantiate sparse contemporary insight regarding a sponsor brand's impact onto the property it sponsors (H2_{a/b} and H4_{a/b}). Specifically, there is reason to believe that a sponsor brand's image might in fact transfer to a sponsored property under conditions like novelty of the sponsor/property pairing or perceived congruence of a sponsor's and a property's brand image.

Results on the direct effects of brand image fit (H7_{i-a} – H7_{v-a}) turned out to be somewhat ambivalent. While one hypothesis (i.e., H7_{v-a}) had to be eliminated from the set of researched paths in the course of model estimation and respecification, two of the remaining

hypotheses were supported by the data and two had to be rejected. As the discussion on these seemingly inconsistent outcome showed, it might be that a minimum level of fit is required for triggering a positive attitudinal outcome towards the involved brands. That is, an "it feels right"-sentiment on the combination of two brands could elicit favorable thoughts about either one of these brands, while such positive inference is not tenable for consumers in the case these brands' fit level does not exceed the threshold. An additional explanation for the inconsistencies was inferred from attribution theory and builds on the assumption that for a positive effect of brand image fit to come about, the combination of brands must be authentic and credible in the eye of the consumer. Credibility, in this regard, serves as a mediator on the effect of brand image fit on attitude. As far as the moderating role of brand image fit is concerned ($H_{8i-a/b} - H_{8iv-a/b}$) all of the hypotheses pertaining to effects on attitudinal relations are confirmed, while, with the exception of H_{8iv-b} , the hypotheses pertaining to effects on relations between brand personalities are rejected. It is conceivable that different processing mechanisms are at work when evaluating a brand on the categorical level of attitudes compared to when scrutinizing a brand in a piecemeal fashion by rating single personality attributes. As the moderating construct of brand image fit may address categorical thoughts rather than piecemeal scrutiny, it might be more effective with regard to the condensed construct of attitude than in terms of interfering with brand personality transfer.

None of the hypotheses relating to a moderating effect of the focal sponsor's brand familiarity were supported. While the hypotheses suggesting increased strength of effect onto a paired brand in case the conveying brand is highly familiar were rejected with a ceiling effect ($H_{9i-a/b}$) and too low a familiarity level for imbuing other brands at all ($H_{9ii-a/b}$) as potential reasons offered, rejection of hypotheses suggesting a high familiarity brand's lowered susceptibility towards impact from other brands ($H_{9iii-a/b}$ and $H_{9iv-a/b}$) required further deliberation. Building on categorization theory it was argued that, as assignment to the same category would result in assimilation while assignment to different categories implies divergence, the degree of similarity between two brands was decisive in determining the extent of image transfer. Since similarity builds on commonality and saliency of features and attributes, one can argue that both brand image fit (relating to commonality) and brand familiarity (relating to saliency) facilitate assimilation of brand images and, thus, image transfer. This means that image fit and familiarity of the brands involved work in a complementary fashion for image transfer effects to arise. Thus, high rather than low brand

familiarity can be seen as supportive for brand image transfer. An overall discussion and implications from these results will be provided in chapter 7. Moreover, a prospect on some questions that are worth addressing in future research endeavors will be exposed from the author's perspective.

7 Conclusions and Future Research Directions

7.1 Key findings

Motivated by the obvious contrast between sponsorship reality where multiple sponsors concurrently engaging with a single property is the norm and sponsorship research that has mainly given attention to investigating solo sponsorship, this thesis aimed at answering the question of whether or not the brand image inherently tied to one sponsor may be transferred to an allied sponsor (main research question; see chapter 1.2, p.7ff.). In light of the conjecture that the attitude-related approach to image transfer research falls short of practical relevance since brand managers are mainly concerned with nurturing a distinct brand personality profile rather than with establishing a vague brand attitude, the study at hand aspired to scrutinize this question from an attitude-based perspective as well as from an associative network-based perspective (sub-questions A and B). Furthermore, gaining knowledge on factors that might have the strength to facilitate beneficial spillover or to mitigate detrimental transfer was contended to be of interest to sponsorship practice too (sub-question C). As such, two moderating factors presumably interacting with image transfer have been integrated into the research model (i.e., brand image fit and brand familiarity).

Subsequently, the key findings of the empirical research as described in detail before (see chapter 6, p.177ff.) will be summarized and answers to the main research question as well as to sub-questions A through C are going to be provided (chapters 7.1.1 through 7.1.4). Sub-question D, which taps into the consequences for sponsorship strategy development and execution, is going to be answered in the chapter that elucidates implications for practitioners (7.2, p.224ff.).

7.1.1 A co-sponsor's brand image can spill over to the focal sponsor

The majority of results concerning image transference within a sponsorship alliance conform to predictions as stated throughout hypotheses H1 to H6. Most notably, preliminary t-tests and ANCOVAs on brand image convergence and also regression weights and significance levels of corresponding model paths (of SR models and PA models) underscore the assumption of a positive relationship between the pre-exposure image of the co-sponsor and the post-exposure image of the focal sponsor. Results are in favor of a transfer of attitudes as well as a spillover of, respectively, seven (t-tests) and nine (ANCOVAs, path models) personality traits from the co-sponsor brand to the focal sponsor brand (H1_{a/b}). As such, the

main research question can be answered by stating that, in fact, the brand image innately tied to a co-sponsor is transferred to the focal sponsor if these brands concurrently sponsor the same property. This finding is tenable for the brand image construct as conceptualized from both an attitude-based perspective and an associative network-based perspective and, thus, is affirmative of *sub-question A* and *sub-question B*, respectively. Apart from clear indication for a direct image transfer, there is some evidence to suggest that ideas, beliefs, or feelings might indirectly rub off from one sponsor brand to another sponsor brand when paired in a sponsorship alliance ($H2_{a/b} + H5_{a/b}$). Specifically, image transfer might travel along the mediated path from one sponsor that imbues the sponsorship property to an allied sponsor that, in turn, is swayed by that property. The results provide substance to the idea that this route of effects might come into play if certain conditions like the novelty of a co-sponsor/property pairing or a high level of brand image fit between the co-sponsor and the property are fulfilled. As a more extensive analysis on co-sponsor/property fit revealed, image transfer on the mediated path seems to be of compensatory rather than supplementary nature to the direct transfer between sponsor brands. That is, when the co-sponsor brand and the property brand match well in the eyes of the consumers, a certain fraction of the direct image transfer is offset to travel along the mediated path via the property's image, yet the intensity of total image transfer from the co-sponsor to the focal sponsor may change little.

7.1.2 A good matchup with the property will be of direct favor for a sponsor

In accordance to findings of the celebrity endorsement literature, schema theory and the matchup hypothesis proved to be valid guidelines to predict the effect of brand image fit between a sponsor brand and a sponsored property on the attitude toward the sponsor brand ($H7_{i-a}$). The results provide reason to believe that a high level of mutual relevance and a high degree of expectancy of the sponsor brand given the property brand may yield a high sense of fit between these brands and ultimately lead to favorable affect toward the sponsor. On the other hand, if the schema of the sponsor is not confidently expected given the property's cognitive representation, negative consumer reactions in terms of sponsor attitude debasement must be expected. Beyond this, the lengthy discussion on the role of credibility in mediating the brand image fit effect on, respectively, sponsor attitude and property attitude (see chapter 6.5.2, p.198ff.) highlighted the possibility of favorable or unfavorable consumer attributions to marketers' motives to interfere with the direct effect of perceived fit. Even though these results and conjectures do not directly contribute to answering one of the

research questions, it is still very insightful to recognize that a sponsor will directly gain from a good matchup with the property and that the property may gain as well from a well-fitting sponsor if adding that brand to the sponsorship roster is deemed a credible and legitimate act for the property.

7.1.3 Brand image fit is beneficial to image transfer between allied brands

Corresponding to what was surmised all of the relationships suggested to represent attitude transfer between two brands are moderated by brand image fit between these brands. In particular, parameter estimates on moderated paths are found to be elevated in the respondent groups perceiving high fit between brands, while attitude transfer is annihilated in the groups sensing a low level of fit (H8_{i-a} through H8_{iv-a}). With regard to enhancement/inhibition of spillover of single brand associations (instead of brand attitudes), the results are somewhat ambiguous (H8_{i-b} through H8_{iv-b}). While the majority of moderation effects were in the direction implied by the corresponding hypotheses, only the transfer of personality traits from the property brand to the focal sponsor brand did in fact receive significant support for being moderated by perceived property/focal sponsor brand fit (H8_{iv-b}). Building on significant moderation of attitude transfer and on a consistent (yet not uniformly significant) pattern of effects with regard to moderation of spillover of brand personality traits, consumer-perceived fit between two sponsors can confidently be conceived as a factor that interacts with image transfer from one of these sponsors to the other. This affirms to the idea that the strength of attitude transfer and the vigor of personality traits' spillover can be influenced by the moderating factor of brand image fit as addressed in *sub-question C*.

7.1.4 Familiar brands may stand to gain more from allied brands

Moderation effects expected to be induced by the level of familiarity with the focal sponsor (high versus low) and proposed to result in differential strength of the focal sponsor brand to imbue a paired brand (enhanced versus reduced) are generally in the direction put forth by the corresponding hypotheses (H9_{i-a/b} and H9_{ii-a/b}). This means that a sponsor brand with which consumers maintain a more intimate relationship and about which they know more is more inert (H9_{i-a/b}) and has a larger impact on the image of a sponsored property (H9_{ii-a/b}). Note, however, that these effects have not been supported by significance levels high enough to accept the underlying hypotheses tout court. Interestingly, if the focal sponsor is determined to be the brand on which image effects are imposed upon, results of testing for moderation by brand familiarity are at odds with what has been anticipated in hypotheses H9_{iii-a/b} and

H9_{IV-a/b}. Image transfer onto the focal sponsor was found to be enhanced in the group of subjects that affirmed to be familiar with that brand, while the transfer was attenuated in the low familiarity group. Albeit being contrary to the assumption these latter findings still suggest that image transfer is influenced by the level of brand familiarity. As such, the focal sponsor's brand familiarity is put forth as a moderating variable in the sense of *sub-question C* as it may interact with attitude transfer and with the vigor of personality traits' spillover.

7.2 Implications for sponsorship practice

The insights gained from the empirical investigation bear implications for the brand manager that aims at building a differentiated and uniquely identifiable brand image as well as for the manager of a sponsorship property (e.g., an event manager) who will be concerned with enhancing the property's appeal in order to acquire financially strong sponsors. Practical implications for these two agents will be provided in the form of recommendations for action including some illustrative examples relating to operative sponsorship execution. Along the way, the following two chapters offer an answer to research *sub-question D*.

7.2.1 Implications for brand managers

Throughout the introductory part of this thesis the argument was put forth that because highly competitive markets with an abundance of functionally homogenous products and services render rational sales arguments useless, contemporary brand management calls for the creation of symbolic, emotional, and connotative associations in order to establish points of difference (Keller 2008, p.107ff.). With regard to brand image building, sponsorship has proved an effective instrument of marketing communications. Results of this study amend the insights on image transfer in sponsorship gained so far. The upshot for brand managers that engage in sponsorship is to also capitalize on the brand image potential that resides within allied sponsors instead of limiting the benefits to what the sponsorship property brings to the table.

Specifically, because brand image rub-off must not only be expected from the sponsored property but also from co-sponsors, brand managers may gain from who they share a perimeter billboard (or any other ad space in sponsorship) with but they must also be aware of negative effects (see also Bergkvist 2012). Pairing with a co-sponsor might fortify or dilute a sponsor brand's image depending on the expediency of the image conveyed by that ally. While research on co-branding or advertising alliances has well established popularity for the notion that two brands might exchange on their image when paired through a joint marketing effort (see e.g., Walchli 2007; Levin 2002; Rao et al. 1999; Samu et al. 1999), the research at hand underscores the relevance of a mutual impact in the context of a sponsorship alliance. Noteworthy is the affirmation of a direct transfer of large parts of a co-sponsor's brand personality profile to the focal sponsor since this insight is entirely new to research in sponsorship. This finding is of particular interest to managers that aim at positioning a brand in the marketplace by building a distinct personality profile rather than just presiding over an equivocal attitude. Hence, instead of maintaining a "wait and see"-mindset towards image transfer, brand managers being engaged in a common sponsorship settlement should collectively and pre-emptively define as to which particular associations each brand is destined to benefit from the paired brands and it may even be predetermined by what concrete measures the selected personality traits are to be transferred. For example, Migros may close ranks with Salewa (an Italian producer of mountaineering equipment) and utilize their common sponsorship of the Swiss Alpine Club (SAC 2012) to enforce transfer of key brand personality traits. That is, Migros could benefit from Salewa's strong association with performance or natural purity while Salewa might endorse its brand perception by Swiss attributes like reliability or precision through a transfer from Migros. From a practical perspective Migros and Salewa should make sure to be jointly presented through side-by-side signage on the alpine club's communication materials (e.g., letter heads, website, magazine ads) or official memorabilia (e.g., give-away items, membership cards, flags). Beyond relying on the club's marketing activities, the two sponsors may initiate their own campaign promoting the sponsorship alliance. For example, a series of Swiss mountain pictures printed alongside the three allied brands' logos (Migros, Salewa, and SAC) on shopping bags that are distributed in the stores of Migros and Salewa may be a very target-oriented way to transmit the brand personality traits that have been selected to be mutually exchanged. On the other hand, Migros and Salewa would be well advised to keep their brands clear of the sphere of

influence of Axpo (a large Swiss electricity producer) which is the third current partner brand of the Swiss Alpine Club. Since Axpo runs several nuclear power plants in Switzerland and is known for a purely profit-oriented price politics to the detriment of a large part of the nation's population and industry, some of the perhaps most top-of-mind associations for that brand would not be very complimentary for the Migros brand or the Salewa brand. In addition to enforcing not being placed in close proximity to the logo of an unfavorable co-sponsor such as Axpo in marketing communications materials of the property, an existing (top tier) sponsor might require to be entitled to veto the assignment of a prospective sponsor to the sponsorship alliance in case the new sponsor is perceived to be detrimental to the own image. As a last resort, a brand manager might also decide to leave a sponsorship alliance if he or she feels that the own brand cannot be sufficiently protected from negative impact.

In case a sponsorship alliance has not yet been established but rather is in a stage of being arranged, the managers of two or more prospective sponsor brands may join forces and define common goals even before linking-up to a sponsorship property. In a fictitious example, BMW as a maker of high-end automobiles and Longines as a manufacturer of luxury watches could decide to jointly invite their most valuable customers to a horse-riding event. The two brands might agree on such an activity based on the common objective to mutually gaining from the image of the other. That is, BMW may reap some of the elegance perception attributed to Longines and Longines could prosper in its perception of being technically advanced by inheriting from BMW. From that perspective, comparable to what has been shown in the case of customary brand alliances (Park et al. 1996), the mutual gain for brands allying through sponsorship may be more positive if these brands are complementary rather than similar.

These examples may illustrate the manner in which the collaborative approach with intentional character of a sponsorship alliance differs from the seemingly fortuitous combination of brands in a co-sponsorship setting (see chapter 2.3, p.53ff. on the planned and volitional nature of a sponsorship alliance as understood here). Accordingly, sponsorship as defined in chapter 2.2.2 (see p.30ff.) could now be understood as a "business-oriented relationship between *multiple sponsors* and a sponsorship property [...]" with that relationship actually including a legal affiliation between all of the participating brands in the form of a framework contract. Obviously, the definition's part determining the beneficiary of a sponsor's obligation (i.e., of the cash settlement, the in-kind fee and/or the service) must be

rewritten too in order to encompass the co-sponsors in addition to the sponsorship property as recipients of such gratuity. Considering this, an adapted version of the sponsorship definition given on page 34 might read as follows:

Sponsorship is a business-oriented relationship between multiple sponsors and a sponsorship property (referred to as "the sponsorship alliance") that implies cash settlements, in-kind fees and/or services provided by the sponsors to their co-sponsors and/or to the property in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with the sponsorship alliance.

At this point it has to remain open for future debate by what exact mechanism the cash settlements, in-kind fees and/or services are compensated for between the various parties of the sponsorship alliance (probably through a "clearing house"). Also, it remains unclear how the level of mutual remuneration is to be determined.

As transfer effects have been found to actually be more accentuated in case consumers feel that the allied sponsors' images fit well, the above recommendations are complemented by the advice to evaluate brand matchup before entering into collaboration. Such an assessment must be conducted in the target markets of each sponsor brand and should capture the extent of overlap of symbolic and intangible associations rather than functional attributes. Cornwell et al. (2005, p.27f.) note that articulating a reason for the pairing of two or more brands through sponsorship may amplify perceived fit between these brands and, thus, supports sponsorship outcome. With regard to the BMW and Longines example introduced above, this means that both brands must test for congruence with the other brand as perceived by their respective clientele of choice. If it turns out that the BMW buyers and/or the Longines customers do not see a natural link or overlap between these brands it is advisable to not proceed with the sponsorship alliance endeavor and instead look for alternative partners or to assure explicit articulation of a link that might be seen by the managers of both brands.

The (unexpected) finding related to enhanced transfer to the focal sponsor from, respectively, the co-sponsor and the sponsorship property in case the target brand is well known and cognitively multifaceted brings about the novel insight that some perceptual kernel may be required in order for a sponsor to become associatively enriched by allied brands. As such, a sponsor brand largely unknown in western European key markets of

soccer like the Garoto brand may have remained untouched by its fellow sponsors and even by the event when sponsoring the 2014 FIFA World Cup in Brazil, while more prominent sponsors like Adidas probably inherited associations innately tied to the allied sponsors and the event¹. The recommendation that emerges from this insight to brand managers is to make sure of a sufficient degree of brand familiarity in the target market of the sponsorship property. Given naturally low levels of brand familiarity, sponsorship hence may not be the instrument of choice for entering a new market. Thus, prior to quest for brand image enhancement by means of a sponsorship alliance it is advisable to anchor some key brand attributes in the mind of consumers through classical advertising.

7.2.2 Implications for sponsorship property managers

Managers of properties do also benefit from the positive evidence for image transfer between sponsors. Specifically, their acquisition approach might be enriched by argumentation on positive image conveyance coming off existing sponsors. In the example from above, the marketing manager of the Swiss Alpine Club now has more than the organization's own brand image at his disposal when it comes to convincing a new sponsor to financially engage for the club. In fact, he or she may urge the argument of an additional sponsor to potentially benefit from the brand images of the current sponsors too. Hence, a targeted approach would imply proposing to managers whose brands may positively inherit from the brand personalities of existing sponsors like Migros or Salewa. Inferring from the results on moderating effects of brand image fit and brand familiarity, a new sponsor may stand to gain even more if this brand's image subjectively corresponds to the brand image of Migros, Salewa, and/or the Swiss Alpine Club and if that brand can build on an established network of associations in the Swiss market. That way, the property manager will be able to leverage a sponsorship roster by systematically targeting managers of prospective sponsor brands that probably benefit from entering an existing sponsorship alliance.

Furthermore, the results of this study substantiate the assertion that a sponsorship property may capture some of the attributes the sponsors supply. Where many events, organizations, teams, or celebrities can be understood as consumer brands (Keller 2008, p.10ff.), an identity-based brand management approach (see chapter 2.1, p.19ff.) calls for positioning these entities in the marketplace just as it is needed doing with products or

¹ Chocolates Garoto S.A., a Brazilian chocolate manufacturer headquartered in the city of Vila Velha, and Adidas were both engaged as FIFA World Cup Sponsors at the 2014 FIFA World Cup in Brazil (FIFA 2014).

services. As such, allied sponsor brands might serve as a valuable source to create, modify, or reinforce the image of a property brand. From this perspective, careful selection of sponsors is imperative for image-conscious sponsorship property managers.

7.3 Contributions to sponsorship research

This study contributes to sponsorship research in that it provides evidence in support of the idea that a *sponsor brand* might not only benefit from exploitation of a sponsorship property's image (H5), but also *stands to gain from the brand image innately tied to a co-sponsor* (H1). Two earlier studies investigating the association of two paired sponsors in consumers' minds found i) that these brands' images can be exchanged in case they are perceived as having similar concepts (Carrillat et al. 2010) and ii) that an unfamiliar sponsor brand may benefit from the connection with a familiar sponsor brand (Schnittka et al. 2009). Although the credit of initiating examination into this aspect of sponsorship research can be attributed to these studies, the research design selected by the authors sets narrow limits to the validity of their results. Carrillat et al. (2010, study 1) included two sponsors into the concurrent sponsorship condition and one sponsor in the solo sponsorship condition to be compared upon the between-sponsor similarity levels after experimental intervention. However, this design does not preclude the alleged transfer between sponsor brands (i.e., higher between-sponsor similarity in concurrent compared to solo sponsorship condition) to stem from an illusionary assimilation (contrast) of brand images in the concurrent sponsorship condition compared to the solo sponsorship condition (for a more detailed examination of this issue see p.191). Schnittka et al. (2009) employ SEM-analysis to test for mutual attitude transfer between two sponsor brands. As they rely on a one-point-measurement design instead of applying a pre-/post-measurement design, the positive path estimate pointing from the familiar to the unfamiliar sponsor cannot be ruled out to be owed to a covariance structure that builds on a between-sponsor relationship that already existed prior to the experiment. As such, Schnittka et al.'s (2009) statistical approach to model testing is not suitable for discriminating prior associations between the two sponsors from unique experimental effects. Furthermore, the thesis at hand extends on both of the studies mentioned here in that it provides partial evidence for an indirect path between two sponsors, mediated by the sponsorship property brand.

Also, while sponsorship research so far has focused on either the investigation of image transference from sponsorship property to a sponsor brand (see e.g., Chien et al. 2011; Dalakas and Levin 2005; Grohs et al. 2004; Gwinner and Eaton 1999; Stipp and Schiavone 1996) or, to a lesser extent, on spillover from a sponsor brand to the property (see e.g., Henseler et al. 2009; Ruth and Simonin 2006; Ruth and Simonin 2003) in a rather fragmentary fashion, the empirical endeavor presented throughout this study is first to consolidate this knowledge base to propose and test an *integrated research model* encompassing all of the transfer relations pertaining to the *tripartite configuration of the most parsimonious sponsorship alliance possible*.

The findings concerning *spillover of brand personality profiles* between the constituents of a sponsorship alliance is of substantial value to sponsorship research and epitomizes an important first step in closing a gap that remained open as yet. Extending on the attitude-based perspective adhered to by many authors in the field of brand image research, the associative network-based view provides support for the notion that transfer of brand meaning is also manifest when these brands are processed in a piecemeal rather than a category-based fashion (Fiske and Pavelchak 1986). While Carrillat and colleagues (2010, study 2) examine between-sponsors' transfer of only two personality attributes, Gwinner and Eaton (1999) created an idiosyncratic set of ten personality-oriented adjectives to test for image transfer. Yet, the latter authors' study was limited to image transfer from event to sponsor. As such, the present study is the first to shed light on the spillover of entire brand personality profiles in a sponsorship alliance.

Lastly, this study may add to the methodological arsenal used in sponsorship research as it exemplifies the *merits of structural equation modeling*. In contrast to other techniques of multivariate data analysis SEM allows for simultaneous estimation of different regression paths pertaining to a research model and, thus, allows testing of comprehensive models of sponsorship effects (see introductory part to chapter 6.3 for additional advantages of SEM, p.184f.). So far, utilization of structural regression models or path models has been limited to a very small number of studies in the field (for exceptions cf. Schnitka et al. 2009; Huber et al. 2008; Farrelly and Quester 2005; Lafferty et al. 2004; Dean 2002) and has never been applied to the extent as done here.

7.4 Limitations and directions for future research

In order to refine and advance scientific inquiry in the sponsorship field future research may address some of the limitations pertaining to this study and also extend on the empirical methods utilized.

First, for any experimental design it is difficult to authentically reconstruct real-life conditions and warrant for generalizability beyond the investigated population. Data used throughout this research were collected by means of an online survey. As such, respondents replied to questions and looked at or read the sponsorship alliance stimuli in an environment that most probably lacks resemblance to the surroundings of a real sponsorship property (e.g., at home or in an office space). It has not been possible for the respondents to immerse themselves into the ambiance of the ESAF event. Furthermore, in a real-life situation consumers are usually exposed to a sponsorship stimulus over an extended period of time through different media. It is assumed that duration of a sponsorship engagement (Cornwell et al. 2001, p.46) as well as sponsorship leverage through integration of communication activities (Lardinois and Derbaix 2001; McCarville et al. 1998) positively relates to sponsorship outcome. Given these limiting conditions it might not be too overdone to state that the results obtained in the research at hand are likely to be conservative estimates of the true effects. Especially with regard to image transfer between allied sponsor brands it would be interesting to see if the results of this study are confirmed or, maybe, even amplified when investigating a real sponsorship alliance over the long-term instead of probing into a fictitious sponsorship alliance with a one-time intervention. Moreover, generalizability of results may be enhanced through replication of the study with a different sample. Although utilization of a representative sample in place of a convenience sample (e.g., students) increases this study's external validity compared to the majority of studies conducted in the sponsorship field, it might still be a worthwhile attempt to replicate this research in geographical markets different from the German-speaking part of Switzerland.

Second, the research model as developed for the purpose of this study could be modified in order to account for additional aspects of brand image processing and to more specifically incorporate practitioners' needs. For example, consumers' involvement with the sponsor brands and/or the sponsorship property brand has been shown to interact with the process of image transfer (see Glogger 1999, p.177ff. for an overview). Specifically, inferring from the elaboration likelihood model (Petty and Cacioppo 1986), Gwinner (1997, 154f.)

concluded that low involvement sponsor brands are more prone to attitudinal impact and promotional benefit emerging from event image compared to high involvement sponsor brands. D'Astous and Bitz (1995, p.10) contended that consumer involvement with a sponsored event results in greater interest in the sponsorship and, as a consequence of increased sympathy for the sponsors linked to a favored event, to a more positive sponsor image. A research model encompassing interaction of image transfer by sponsor and/or property involvement may produce very insightful results with regard to the strength of effects to be expected for sponsor brands in their target groups (i.e., transfer effects might be attenuated in the highly involved target group of a sponsor brand) and with regard to the appropriate selection of a sponsorship property (i.e., a property with which the target group of a sponsor brand is highly involved may turn out to be more beneficial compared to a low involvement property). Moreover, as a sponsorship hierarchy usually comprises multiple levels (see chapter 2.2.3, section on the levels of a sponsorship hierarchy, p.39ff.), two additional questions that may be addressed by future research are if between-sponsor image transfer is restricted to sponsors that are on equal levels (as imposed in the empirical endeavor at hand) or if spillover can occur across levels and whether or not the applicable effects are restricted to the highly visible top-of-the-range sponsor levels. Furthermore, two potential modifications to the research model as suggested here are mainly motivated by practitioners' concerns. That is, instead of utilizing a universal brand personality scale, attributes idiosyncratic for the brands constituting the sponsorship alliance could be identified in a pre-test and may then be employed on the main image transfer study (see e.g., Gwinner and Eaton 1999). Such an approach allows for more specific insight for the brand managers that introduce their brands into one specific event, yet it limits external validity and comparability across studies. Additionally, the research model could be extended insofar as to include a "response"-variable that comes closer to an overt consumer reaction than brand attitude/associations variables do (see discussion on this issue in chapter 3.4.2, p.122ff.). For example, results from a previous empirical research done in the course of this thesis suggest that post-exposure image of the focal sponsor brand is positively related to purchase intentions for that brand. Finally, it has been explained that assessing the moderating effect of brand familiarity has been restricted to the focal sponsor brand familiarity variable due to reasons of parsimony and model complexity reduction (see p.135). An extended research model might include estimation of co-sponsor and/or sponsorship property brand familiarity

effects too. Beyond capturing familiarity scores for entire brands, assessment of a familiarity-like construct on the level of individual brand personality traits for each brand might contribute to clarifying the question of why some associations have been found to be conveyed between allied brands while others are immune to transference (see also the elaborate discussion in chapter 6.4.2, p.195ff.).

Third, it is important to note that all of the findings in support of the hypothesized research model do not preclude the data from also being explained by other models. Throughout SEM literature it is emphasized that researchers must "avoid confirmation bias" (Kline 2010 , p.292), that is, one should consider the possibility of other/-s than the hypothesized model/-s being a better fit to the data (see e.g., Boomsma 2000; Russell et al. 1998). The search for a different model could be done through a step-by-step approach to model generation repeatedly using the same data in each step (e.g., by eliminating model paths that were not found to be statistically significant or adding paths as suggested by modification indexes) or through a strictly confirmatory modeling approach collecting the dataset anew for each model to be tested (Jöreskog 1993). Clearly, the former approach is much more efficient than the latter and is broadly applied as an exploratory rather than confirmatory procedure to finding a well-fitting model (Byrne 2009, p.8). Note, however, that some authors contend that the model generation approach can be "misleading and easily abused" (MacCallum and Austin 2000, p.216).

Fourth, the theoretical framework developed and put to test here may be extended by building on new insights from information processing theories, especially by inferring from those insights that continue to arise from varied forms of implicit information processing. Along the same lines, explicit measures of brand evaluation may be completed with implicit measures that are potentially useful for diagnosing the associative structures of brands. Measures that are provided by the implicit association test (Greenwald et al. 1998) or by state-of-the-art eye tracking and brain research tools (e.g., EEG recording or fMRI) may serve that purpose (for some instructive overviews on purpose, current state, and methodologies applied in the field that has been coined consumer neuroscience see e.g., Fisher et al. 2010; Hubert and Kenning 2008; Kenning and Plassmann 2008). It is presumed that neuroscientific data are less prone to the types of respondent biases traditional methods in the social sciences are affected by (Ariely and Berns 2010, p.284; Lee et al. 2007, p.200).

Comprehensive investigation into brand image transfer in a sponsorship alliance is so far limited to the thesis at hand. As practical implications of this vein of research are deemed highly relevant to brand managers as well as sponsorship property managers and because methodological approach and empirical insight generated in this study may build a useful foundation, it is much to be hoped that future research in this field will progress along the above outlined directions or other.

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Appendixes¹

Appendix A: Overview on research hypotheses including test results

Index	Hypothesis	Confirmation (☑)/rejection (☒) of hypothesis parts ¹	
		"a": Attitude-based	"b": Associative network-based
H1 _{a/b}	<i>Pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to a co-sponsor is/are positively related to post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the focal sponsor.</i>	☑	☑
H2 _{a/b}	<i>Pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to a co-sponsor is/are positively related to post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the sponsorship property.</i>	☒	☒
H3 _{a/b}	<i>Pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the focal sponsor is/are positively related to the post-exposure counterpart/-s.</i>	☑	☑
H4 _{a/b}	<i>Pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the focal sponsor is/are positively related to post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the sponsorship property.</i>	☑	☑
H5 _{a/b}	<i>Post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the sponsorship property is/are positively related to post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the focal sponsor.</i>	☑	☑
H6 _{a/b}	<i>Pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the sponsorship property is/are positively related to the post-exposure counterpart/-s.</i>	☑	☑

¹ The appendixes are also available online on www.springer.com by reference to the book title.

H7_{I-a} through H7_{IV-a}	<i>Brand image fit between</i>		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) <i>focal sponsor and sponsorship property</i> ii) <i>focal sponsor and sponsorship property</i> iii) <i>focal sponsor and co-sponsor</i> iv) <i>co-sponsor and sponsorship property</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> ii) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> iii) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> iv) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> 	n.a.
	<i>is positively related to post-exposure attitude attributed to</i>		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) <i>the focal sponsor.</i> ii) <i>the sponsorship property.</i> iii) <i>the focal sponsor.</i> iv) <i>the sponsorship property.</i> 		
H7_{v-a}	<i>Brand image fit between focal sponsor and co-sponsor is positively related to post-exposure attitude attributed to the sponsorship property.</i>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	n.a.
¹ Hypothesis part confirmed: <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Hypothesis part rejected: <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>			

Table 21: Overview on main effect research hypotheses including test results (H1 – H7).

Index	Hypothesis	Confirmation/rejection of hypothesis parts ¹	
		"a": Attitude-based	"b": Associative network-based
H8_{I-a/b} through H8_{IV-a/b}	<i>The positive relationship between</i>		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) <i>pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to a co-sponsor</i> ii) <i>pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to a co-sponsor</i> iii) <i>pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the focal sponsor</i> iv) <i>post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the sponsorship property</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> ii) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> iii) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> iv) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> ii) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> iii) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> iv) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
	<i>and post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to</i>		
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) <i>the focal sponsor (see H1)</i> ii) <i>the sponsorship property (see H2)</i> iii) <i>the sponsorship property (see H4)</i> iv) <i>the focal sponsor (see H5)</i> 		
	<i>is enhanced (inhibited), when these brands are perceived as high (low) in brand image fit.</i>		

<p>H9_{I-a/b} and H9_{ii-a/b}</p>	<p><i>For higher (lower) levels of focal sponsor brand familiarity, the positive relationship between pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the focal sponsor and post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to</i></p> <p><i>i) that focal sponsor (see H3)</i></p> <p><i>ii) the sponsorship property (see H4)</i></p> <p><i>is enhanced (reduced).</i></p>	<p><i>i) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/></i></p> <p><i>ii) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/></i></p>	<p><i>i) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/></i></p> <p><i>ii) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/></i></p>
<p>H9_{iii-a/b} and H9_{iv-a/b}</p>	<p><i>For higher (lower) levels of focal sponsor brand familiarity, the positive relationship between</i></p> <p><i>iii) pre-exposure attitude/associations attributed to a co-sponsor (see H1)</i></p> <p><i>iv) post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the sponsorship property (see H5)</i></p> <p><i>and post-exposure attitude/associations attributed to the focal sponsor is reduced (enhanced).</i></p>	<p><i>iii) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/></i></p> <p><i>iv) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/></i></p>	<p><i>iii) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/></i></p> <p><i>iv) <input checked="" type="checkbox"/></i></p>

¹ Hypothesis part confirmed:
Hypothesis part rejected:

Table 22: Overview on moderating effect research hypotheses including test results (H8 – H9).

Appendix B: Online survey – Pre-exposure

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

1 | Leibniz
Universität
Hannover
L 0 P 0

2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Befragung zu Markenimages und Markenpersönlichkeiten - Erster Teil


Liebe StudenteInnen, lieber Studienteilnehmer

In dieser Befragung geht es um Images und Persönlichkeiten von Produktmarken (wie z.B. Red Bull). Abhängig davon, in welcher Befragungsgruppe Sie eingeteilt sind, können auch Marken von Events (wie z.B. der Ski Weltcup Abfahrt am Laubföhri) vorkommen.

Die gesamte Befragung besteht aus zwei separaten Teilen, welche jeweils ca. 10 Minuten Ihrer Zeit in Anspruch nehmen. **Wir können Ihre Daten nur dann auswerten, wenn Sie beide Befragungsteile vollständig ausfüllen.** Die Fragen auf den nächsten Seiten stellen den ersten Teil der Befragung dar. Wenn Sie diese Fragen beantwortet haben, erhalten Sie nach ca. 6 Tagen einen neuen Website-Link zum zweiten Teil der Befragung.

Für Ihre Teilnahme an den Befragungsteilen sammeln Sie wie gewohnt **Ihre CLIC-Punkte**. Darüber hinaus verlosen wir unter allen Teilnehmer/innen **10 Einkaufsgutscheine à 50 Franken**.

Wir freuen uns über Ihre Unterstützung und grüssen Sie freundlich.



Philip Gross – Universität Hannover
Institut für Marketing & Management

Für Fragen und Anregungen wenden Sie sich bitte unter gross@m2.uni-hannover.de an unseren Studienleiter.

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

1 | Leibniz
Universität
Hannover
L 0 P 0

2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Abschnitt A: Ihre Kenntnis unterschiedlicher Marken

In diesem Abschnitt stellen wir Ihnen eine Frage zu Ihrer Kenntnis unterschiedlicher Marken respektive zur Wiedererkennung der Logos dieser Marken.

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group


Control group


1 | Leibniz
Universität
Hannover
L 0 P 0


3% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%


:): Gewisse Marken und deren Logo kennt man, andere Marken kennt man nicht und deren Logo hat man noch nie gesehen.


Welche der folgenden Marken kennen Sie?
Bitte klicken Sie sämtliche Marken an, welche Sie kennen und deren Logo Sie schon gesehen haben!




































































<p>Pre-exposure <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> – <input type="checkbox"/> Post-exposure</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Treatment group</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Control group</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px;">  2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet: 0% ... 50% ... 100% </div> <p>Vielen Dank, dass Sie unsere Studie unterstützen möchten!</p> <p>Leider haben Sie bei keiner der für uns relevanten Marken angegeben, dass Sie diese kennen.</p> <p>Bitte klicken Sie unten noch auf den "Weiter"-Button, so dass Ihre Angaben gespeichert werden und Sie für die Verlosung der 10 Einkaufsgutscheine à 50 Franken von Migros registriert sind.</p> <p>Mit freundlichen Grüßen,</p>  <p>Philip Gross – Universität Hannover Institut für Marketing & Management</p> <p>Für Fragen und Anregungen wenden Sie sich bitte unter gross@m2.uni-hannover.de an unseren Studienleiter.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Weiter</p>
<p>Pre-exposure <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> – <input type="checkbox"/> Post-exposure</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Treatment group</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Control group</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px;">  2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet: 0% ... 50% ... 100% </div> <p>Abschnitt B: Angaben zu Ihrer Person</p> <p>Nachdem wir nun wissen, dass Sie die für unsere Studie relevanten Marken kennen, benötigen wir für die statistische Auswertung drei Angaben zu Ihrer Person.</p> <p><i>Ihre Angaben werden vertraulich behandelt und ausschliesslich für diese Studie verwendet.</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;">Weiter</p>
<p>Pre-exposure <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> – <input type="checkbox"/> Post-exposure</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Treatment group</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Control group</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px;">  2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet: 0% ... 50% ... 100% </div> <p>Geschlecht: Bitte klicken Sie Zutreffendes an!</p> <p><input type="radio"/> weiblich <input type="radio"/> männlich</p> <p>Geburtsjahr: Bitte geben Sie Ihr Geburtsjahr im 4-stelligen Format 1233 an!</p> <p>Geburtsjahr <input type="text"/></p> <p>Postleitzahl Wohnort: Bitte geben Sie die 4-stellige Postleitzahl PLZ Ihres Wohnortes an (wenn Sie mehrere Wohnorte haben, geben Sie die PLZ Ihres Hauptwohnortes an)!</p> <p>PLZ Wohnort <input type="text"/></p> <p style="text-align: center;">Weiter</p>

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

/ / Leibniz Universität Hannover
 1 2 3 4

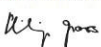
4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Vielen Dank, dass Sie unsere Studie unterstützen möchten!

Leider haben wir schon genügend Teilnehmer, welche bezüglich Geschlecht und Alter unseren Anforderungen entsprechen.

Bitte klicken Sie unten noch auf den **"Weiter"-Button**, so dass Ihre Angaben gespeichert werden und Sie für die Verlosung der 10 Einkaufsgutscheine à 50 Franken von Migros registriert sind.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen,



Philip Gross – Universität Hannover
Institut für Marketing & Management

Für Fragen und Anregungen wenden Sie sich bitte unter gross@m2.uni-hannover.de an unseren Studienleiter.

Weiter

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

/ / Leibniz Universität Hannover
 1 2 3 4

4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Abschnitt C: Ihre Beurteilung von 2 Marken

In diesem Abschnitt möchten wir etwas über Ihre Beurteilung von 2 Marken erfahren. Nach einer Frage zum Zusammenpassen der 2 Marken sind für jede Marke einzeln die jeweils gleichen drei Fragen zu beantworten.

Bitte beantworten Sie alle Fragen ehrlich und spontan. Es gibt keine richtigen und falschen Antworten.

Weiter

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

/ / Leibniz Universität Hannover
 1 2 3 4

4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

:: Zwei Marken können hinsichtlich ihrer Markenimage besser oder schlechter zusammenpassen (z.B. passen Kakerlax und Audi imagemäßig gut zusammen, während Kakerlax und Red Bull weniger gut zusammenpassen).

Wie gut passt das Markenimage von Migros zum Markenimage von Kodak?

Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmen:

	Stimme überhaupt nicht zu	Stimme teilweise zu	Stimme vollkommen zu	Weiss nicht / B.A.
Das Image der Marke Migros und das Image der Marke Kodak passen gut zueinander.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Meine Vorstellungen von der Marke Migros sind vergleichbar mit meinen Vorstellungen von der Marke Kodak.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Meine Assoziationen zur Marke Migros decken sich mit meinen Assoziationen zur Marke Kodak.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Weiter

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

/ / Leibniz Universität Hannover
 1 2 3 4

4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Die folgenden 3 Fragen beziehen sich auf die Marke Migros.

MIGROS

Weiter

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

⚡ Mit einigen Marken ist man gut vertraut und typische Eigenschaften kommen einem spontan in den Sinn, mit anderen Marken ist man wenig vertraut und es kommt einem wenig zu diesen Marken in den Sinn.

Wie gut sind Sie mit der Marke Migros vertraut?

Bitte bewerten Sie Ihre Markenvertrautheit anhand der folgenden Aussagen!

MIGROS

	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Bin mit der Marke Migros nicht vertraut	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Bin mit der Marke Migros sehr vertraut
Bin sehr unerfahren mit der Marke Migros	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Bin sehr erfahren mit der Marke Migros
Weiss nichts über die Marke Migros	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Weiss viel über die Marke Migros
Zu der Marke Migros fallen mir spontan keine Assoziationen ein	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Zu der Marke Migros fallen mir spontan viele Assoziationen ein

[Weiter](#)

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

⚡ Eine bestimmte Marke kann man persönlich eher gut oder eher schlecht finden, d.h. man ist gegenüber dieser Marke eher positiv oder eher negativ eingestellt.

Wie beurteilen Sie die Marke Migros?

Bitte geben Sie Ihre Einstellung anhand der folgenden Kriterien an!

MIGROS

	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
schlecht	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	gut
nicht ansprechend	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	ansprechend
unsympathisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	sympathisch
unattraktiv	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	attraktiv

[Weiter](#)

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

⚡ Marken werden manchmal anhand von Charaktereigenschaften beschrieben, mit denen man normalerweise Menschen beschreibt (z.B. könnte man Red Bull mit "angriffslustig" oder "kühn" beschreiben).

Stellen Sie sich vor, die Marke Migros sei eine Person. Wie würden Sie diese beschreiben?

Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit die folgenden Kriterien für die Marke charakteristisch sind!

MIGROS

	Überhaupt nicht charakteristisch			Teilweise charakteristisch			Sehr charakteristisch	Weges nicht / k.A.
bovenständig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
naturverbunden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
ausgeglichen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
verantwortungsvoll	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
lebhaft	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
dynamisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
innovativ	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
angriffslustig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
kühn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gewöhnlich	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
schlecht	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
romantisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
empfindsam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

[Weiter](#)

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Die folgenden 3 Fragen beziehen sich auf die Marke Kodak.

Kodak

Weiter

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



8% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

⚡ Mit einigen Marken ist man gut vertraut und typische Eigenschaften kommen einem spontan in den Sinn, mit anderen Marken ist man wenig vertraut und es kommt einem wenig zu diesen Marken in den Sinn.

Wie gut sind Sie mit der Marke Kodak vertraut?

Bitte bewerten Sie Ihre Markenvertrautheit anhand der folgenden Aussagen!

Kodak

	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
Bin mit der Marke Kodak nicht vertraut	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Bin mit der Marke Kodak sehr vertraut
Bin sehr unerfahren mit der Marke Kodak	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Bin sehr erfahren mit der Marke Kodak
Weiss nichts über die Marke Kodak	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Weiss viel über die Marke Kodak
Zu der Marke Kodak fallen mir spontan keine Assoziationen ein	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Zu der Marke Kodak fallen mir spontan viele Assoziationen ein

Zurück Weiter

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

⚡ Eine bestimmte Marke kann man persönlich eher gut oder eher schlecht finden, d.h. man ist gegenüber dieser Marke eher positiv oder eher negativ eingestellt.

Wie beurteilen Sie die Marke Kodak?

Bitte geben Sie Ihre Einstellung anhand der folgenden Kriterien an!

Kodak

	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
schlecht	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	gut
nicht ansprechend	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	ansprechend
unsympathisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	sympathisch
unattraktiv	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	attraktiv

Weiter

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



45% der Fragen sind beantwortet (2% 50% 100%)

ⓘ Marken werden manchmal anhand von Charaktereigenschaften beschrieben, mit denen man normalerweise Menschen beschreibt (z.B. könnte man Red Bull mit "angriffslustig" oder "kühn" beschreiben).

Stellen Sie sich vor, die Marke Kodak sei eine Person. Wie würden Sie diese beschreiben?
Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit die folgenden Kriterien für die Marke charakteristisch sind!

Kodak

	Überhaupt nicht charakteristisch			Teilweise charakteristisch			Sehr charakteristisch	Weiss nicht / h.A.
bodenständig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
naturverbunden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
ausgeglichen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
verantwortungsvoll	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
lebhaft	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
dynamisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
innovativ	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
angriffslustig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
kühn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gewöhnlich	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
schlicht	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
romantisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
empfindsam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Weiter

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



75% der Fragen sind beantwortet (2% 50% 100%)

Abschnitt D: Ihre Beurteilung des Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfests

In diesem Abschnitt stellen wir Ihnen Fragen zum Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfest. Aus Platzgründen nennen wir diesen Event in den Fragen teilweise einfach Schwingfest.

Bitte beantworten Sie alle Fragen ehrlich und spontan. Es gibt keine richtigen und falschen Antworten.

Das Eidgenössische Schwing- und Älplerfest

Mit dem Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfest meinen wir den alle 3 Jahre in der Schweiz stattfindenden Grossanlass der Schwinger (auch "Eidgenössische" genannt) im Allgemeinen, auch wenn wir zur Illustration jeweils das Logo des nächsten Schwingfestes 2013 in Burgdorf verwenden.



Weiter

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



0% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Können Sie das Eidgenössische Schwing- und Älplerfest?

Bitte geben Sie an, ob Ihnen das Schwingfest ein Begriff ist!



- JA - das Schwingfest ist mir ein Begriff
 NEIN - das Schwingfest ist mir kein Begriff

Welche der aufgeführten Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfeste haben Sie als Zuschauer, Helfer oder Teilnehmer in der Vergangenheit besucht?

Bitte markieren Sie nur diejenigen Schwingfeste, bei welchen Sie live vor Ort waren!

- Ich habe noch nie ein Schwingfest besucht
 Frauenfeld 2010
 Aarau 2007
 Luzern 2004
 Nyon 2001
 Ein/mehrere frühere Schwingfeste

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



0% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Vielen Dank, dass Sie unsere Studie unterstützen möchten!

Da Sie angeben, das Eidgenössische Schwing- und Älplerfest nicht zu kennen, können wir Sie für den weiteren Verlauf der Studie leider nicht berücksichtigen.

Bitte klicken Sie unten noch auf den "Weiter"-Button, so dass Ihre Angaben gespeichert werden und Sie für die Verlosung der 10 Einkaufsgutscheine à 50 Franken von Migros registriert sind.

Mit freundlichen Grüßen,

Philipp Gross – Universität Hannover
 Institut für Marketing & Management

Für Fragen und Anregungen wenden Sie sich bitte unter gross@m2.uni-hannover.de an unseren Studienleiter.

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



0% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

☐ Mit einigen Events ist man gut vertraut und typische Eigenschaften kommen einem spontan in den Sinn, mit anderen Events ist man wenig vertraut und es kommt einem wenig zu diesen Events in den Sinn.

Wie gut sind Sie mit dem Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfest vertraut?

Bitte bewerten Sie Ihre Vertrautheit anhand der folgenden Aussagen!



- | | -3 | -2 | -1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | |
|--|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|--|
| Bin mit dem Schwingfest nicht vertraut | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | Bin mit dem Schwingfest sehr vertraut |
| Bin sehr unerfahren mit dem Schwingfest | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | Bin sehr erfahren mit dem Schwingfest |
| Weiss nichts über das Schwingfest | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | Weiss viel über das Schwingfest |
| Zum Schwingfest fallen mir spontan keine Assoziationen ein | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | <input type="radio"/> | Zum Schwingfest fallen mir spontan viele Assoziationen ein |

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

0% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 100%

:: Einen bestimmten Event kann man persönlich eher gut oder eher schlecht finden, d.h. man ist gegenüber diesem Event eher positiv oder eher negativ eingestellt.

Wie beurteilen Sie das Eidgenössische Schwing- und Älplerfest?
 Bitte geben Sie Ihre Einstellung anhand der folgenden Kriterien an!

	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
schlecht	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	gut
nicht ansprechend	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	ansprechend
unsympathisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	sympathisch
unattraktiv	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	attraktiv

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

0% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 100%

:: Events werden manchmal anhand von Charaktereigenschaften beschrieben, mit denen man normalerweise Menschen beschreibt (z.B. könnte man eine Ski Weltcup Alpinist mit "angriffslosig" oder "kühlen" beschreiben).

Stellen Sie sich vor, das Eidgenössische Schwing- und Älplerfest sei eine Person. Wie würden Sie diese beschreiben?
 Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit die folgenden Kriterien für den Event charakteristisch sind!

	Überhaupt nicht charakteristisch	Teilweise charakteristisch	Sehr charakteristisch	Weiss nicht / k.A.
bodenständig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
naturverbunden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
ausgeglichen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
verantwortungsvoll	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
lebhaft	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
dynamisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
innovativ	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
angriffslustig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
kühl	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gewöhnlich	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
schlicht	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
romantisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
empfindsam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

0% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 100%

:: Eine Marke kann hinsichtlich ihres Markenimages besser oder schlechter zu einem Event passen (z.B. passen Red Bull und der Ski Weltcup inamässig gut, während Red Bull und das Getzand Golf Open weniger gut passen).

Wie gut passt das Markenimage von Migros zum Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfest?
 Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmen!

	Stimme überhaupt nicht zu	Stimme teilweise zu	Stimme vollkommen zu	Weiss nicht / k.A.
Das Image der Marke Migros und das Schwingfest passen gut zueinander.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Meine Vorstellungen von der Marke Migros sind vergleichbar mit meinen Vorstellungen vom Schwingfest.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Meine Assoziationen zur Marke Migros decken sich mit meinen Assoziationen zum Schwingfest.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

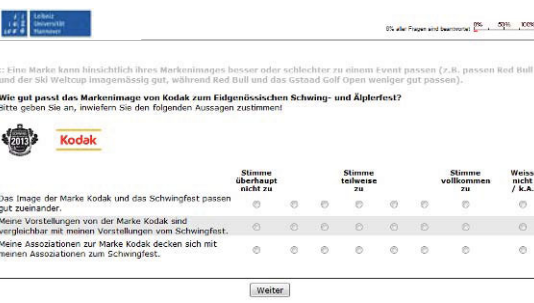
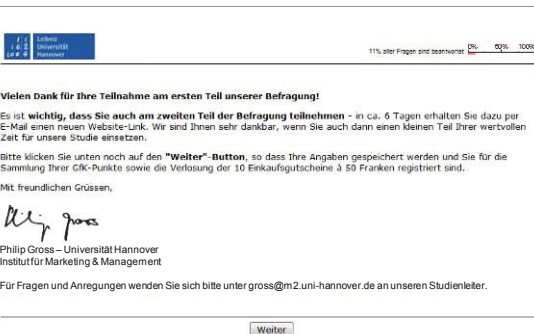
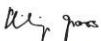
<p>Pre-exposure <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> – <input type="checkbox"/> Post-exposure</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Treatment group</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Control group</p>	 <p>Wie gut passt das Markenimage von Kodak zum Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfest?</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th></th> <th>Stimme überhaupt nicht zu</th> <th>Stimme teilweise zu</th> <th>Stimme vollkommen zu</th> <th>Weiss nicht / k.A.</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Das Image der Marke Kodak und das Schwingfest passen gut zueinander.</td> <td><input type="radio"/></td> <td><input type="radio"/></td> <td><input type="radio"/></td> <td><input type="radio"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Meine Vorstellungen von der Marke Kodak sind vergleichbar mit meinen Vorstellungen vom Schwingfest.</td> <td><input type="radio"/></td> <td><input type="radio"/></td> <td><input type="radio"/></td> <td><input type="radio"/></td> </tr> <tr> <td>Meine Assoziationen zur Marke Kodak decken sich mit meinen Assoziationen zum Schwingfest.</td> <td><input type="radio"/></td> <td><input type="radio"/></td> <td><input type="radio"/></td> <td><input type="radio"/></td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p><input type="button" value="Weiter"/></p>		Stimme überhaupt nicht zu	Stimme teilweise zu	Stimme vollkommen zu	Weiss nicht / k.A.	Das Image der Marke Kodak und das Schwingfest passen gut zueinander.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Meine Vorstellungen von der Marke Kodak sind vergleichbar mit meinen Vorstellungen vom Schwingfest.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Meine Assoziationen zur Marke Kodak decken sich mit meinen Assoziationen zum Schwingfest.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
	Stimme überhaupt nicht zu	Stimme teilweise zu	Stimme vollkommen zu	Weiss nicht / k.A.																	
Das Image der Marke Kodak und das Schwingfest passen gut zueinander.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>																	
Meine Vorstellungen von der Marke Kodak sind vergleichbar mit meinen Vorstellungen vom Schwingfest.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>																	
Meine Assoziationen zur Marke Kodak decken sich mit meinen Assoziationen zum Schwingfest.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>																	
<p>Pre-exposure <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> – <input type="checkbox"/> Post-exposure</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Treatment group</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Control group</p>	 <p>Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme am ersten Teil unserer Befragung!</p> <p>Es ist wichtig, dass Sie auch am zweiten Teil der Befragung teilnehmen - in ca. 6 Tagen erhalten Sie dazu per E-Mail einen neuen Website-Link. Wir sind Ihnen sehr dankbar, wenn Sie auch dann einen kleinen Teil Ihrer wertvollen Zeit für unsere Studie einsetzen.</p> <p>Bitte klicken Sie unten noch auf den "Weiter"-Button, so dass Ihre Angaben gespeichert werden und Sie für die Sammlung Ihrer GfK-Punkte sowie die Verlosung der 10 Einkaufsgutscheine à 50 Franken registriert sind.</p> <p>Mit freundlichen Grüßen,</p>  <p>Philip Gross – Universität Hannover Institut für Marketing & Management</p> <p>Für Fragen und Anregungen wenden Sie sich bitte unter gross@m2.uni-hannover.de an unseren Studienleiter.</p> <p><input type="button" value="Weiter"/></p>																				

Table 23: Online survey – pre-exposure.

Appendix C: Online survey – Post-exposure

<p>Pre-exposure <input type="checkbox"/> – <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Post-exposure</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Treatment group</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Control group</p>	 <p style="text-align: right;">2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%</p> <hr/> <p>Befragung zu Markenimages und Markenpersönlichkeiten - Zweiter Teil</p> <p>Liebe Studententeilnehmerin, lieber Studententeilnehmer</p> <p>Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme am ersten Teil unserer Befragung. Es ist für uns wichtig, dass Sie auch beim zweiten Teil auf den folgenden Seiten mitmachen!</p> <p>Einleitend zeigen wir Ihnen zwei kurze Texte sowie einige Illustrationen, in welchen wir Ihnen die neuen Hauptsponsoren des Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfests und deren Engagement vorstellen. Der abschliessende Abschnitt mit den Fragen ist in diesem zweiten Teil der Befragung etwas kürzer, als Sie dies vom ersten Teil kennen.</p> <p>Für Ihre Teilnahme am zweiten Teil der Befragung sammeln Sie wieder Ihre GfK® Punkte. Darüber hinaus verlosen wir unter allen Teilnehmer/innen 10 Einkaufsgutscheine à 50 Franken.</p> <p>Besten Dank für Ihre Unterstützung und freundliche Grüsse,</p>  <p>Philip Gross – Universität Hannover Institut für Marketing & Management</p> <p>Für Fragen und Anregungen wenden Sie sich bitte unter gross@m2.uni-hannover.de an unseren Studienleiter.</p> <hr/> <p style="text-align: center;">Weiter</p> <hr/>
<p>Pre-exposure <input type="checkbox"/> – <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Post-exposure</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Treatment group</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Control group</p>	 <p style="text-align: right;">2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%</p> <hr/> <p>Abschnitt A: Vorstellung der neuen Hauptsponsoren</p> <p>In diesem Abschnitt stellen wir Ihnen die neuen Hauptsponsoren des Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfests sowie deren Engagement vor.</p> <p><i>Bitte lesen Sie die Texte aufmerksam durch und schauen Sie sich die Illustrationen in Ruhe an.</i></p> <hr/> <p style="text-align: center;">Weiter</p> <hr/>

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



2% alle Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Das Organisationskomitee des Schwingfests hat am 23. November 2011 diese Medienmitteilung veröffentlicht.

Bitte lesen Sie die Mitteilung!

Klicken Sie [hier](#) für eine grossere Ansicht in PDF.

Unsere Königspartner:

MIGROS **Kodak**

Eidgenössisches Schwing- und Älplerfest 2013
Burgdorf | www.burgdorf2013.ch



Burgdorf, 23. November 2011

MEDIENMITTEILUNG

Zwei Königspartner für das "Eidgenössische" – Migros und Kodak unterstützen das Eidgenössische Schwing- und Älplerfest 2013

Im Schwingssport verbindet sich Tradition und Brauchtum mit kontinuierlichem Wandel und Fortschritt. Wir freuen uns deshalb, mit Migros und Kodak zwei Königspartner für das "Eidgenössische" 2013 zu präsentieren, welche ihre Herkunft würdigen und gleichzeitig als moderne Unternehmen in ihren Branchen führend sind.

Der Vertragsabschluss mit diesen zwei Sponsoren erlaubt uns bereits heute, rund zwei Jahre vor dem Schwingfest, notwendige Investitionen zu tätigen und Aufträge zu vergeben. Gleichzeitig erhalten Migros und Kodak ab sofort die Möglichkeit, ihren gemeinsamen Auftritt zu planen und als Partner des "Eidgenössischen" aufzutreten.

Neben finanziellen Zuwendungen werden die beiden Firmen den Grossanlass vor allem durch gemeinschaftliche Projekte unterstützen. Als erstes ist ein Fotowettbewerb mit und über Schweizer Bauern geplant. Die Gewinnrämien für die besten Bilder gehen dabei aber nicht an die teilnehmenden Hobbyfotografen, sondern werden von Migros und Kodak zur Organisation und Austragung eines Jungschwinger-Trainingslagers im Vorfeld des "Eidgenössischen" 2013 zur Verfügung gestellt.

Kontakte:

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[Weiter](#)

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

Es wurde auch schon eine Plakatkampagne entwickelt, welche zum Start des Ticketverkaufs ab März 2013 in der ganzen Schweiz ausgehängt wird.

Plakat 1: "Zusammengreifen"

Klicken Sie [hier](#) für eine grössere Ansicht in PDF.



[Weiter](#)

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

Es wurde auch schon eine Plakatkampagne entwickelt, welche zum Start des Ticketverkaufs ab März 2013 in der ganzen Schweiz ausgehängt wird.

Plakat 2: "Anschwingen"

Klicken Sie [hier](#) für eine grössere Ansicht in PDF.



[Weiter](#)

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet: 0% ... 50% ... 100%

Es wurde auch schon eine Plakatkampagne entwickelt, welche zum Start des Ticketverkaufs ab März 2013 in der ganzen Schweiz ausgehängt wird.

Plakat 3: "Guett!"

Klicken Sie hier für eine grössere Ansicht in PDF.



Weiter

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

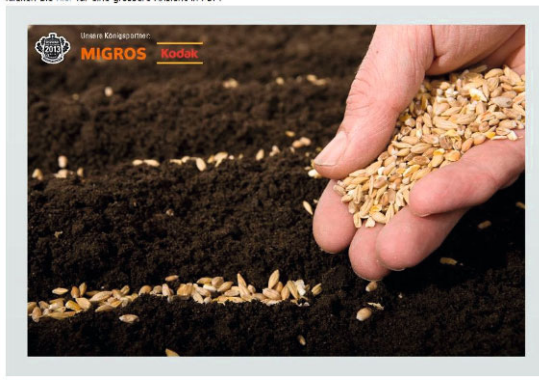


2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% ... 50% ... 100%

Die ersten drei Siegerbilder des erwähnten Fotowettbewerbs stehen bereits fest. Die Bilder können als Poster (120 x 80 cm) auf www.migros.ch und www.kodak.ch bestellt werden.

1. Platz: Foto von Pia Buri (Worb/BE)

Klicken Sie [hier](#) für eine grössere Ansicht in PDF.



Weiter

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

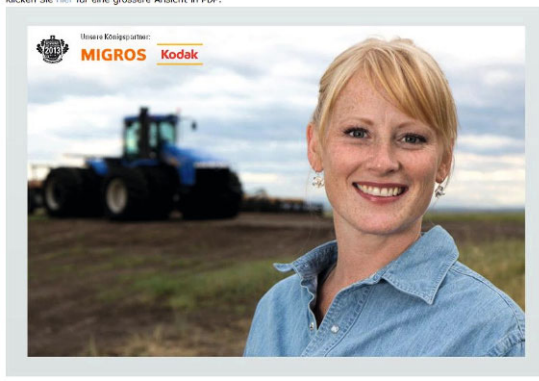


2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% ... 50% ... 100%

Die ersten drei Siegerbilder des erwähnten Fotowettbewerbs stehen bereits fest. Die Bilder können als Poster (120 x 80 cm) auf www.migros.ch und www.kodak.ch bestellt werden.

2. Platz: Foto von Ruedi Bärchtold (Gersau/LU)

Klicken Sie [hier](#) für eine grössere Ansicht in PDF.



Weiter

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Die ersten drei Siegerbilder des erwähnten Fotowettbewerbs stehen bereits fest. Die Bilder können als Poster (120 x 80 cm) auf www.migros.ch und www.kodak.ch bestellt werden.

3. Platz: Foto von Benedikt Casanova (Itanz/GR)

Klicken Sie [hier](#) für eine größere Ansicht in PDF.



Weiter

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Abschnitt B: Generelle Einstellung zu Sponsoring und Gönnerschaften

In diesem Abschnitt stellen wir Ihnen zwei Fragen zu Ihrer generellen Einstellung gegenüber Sponsoringaktivitäten von Unternehmen und Marken.

Bitte beantworten Sie alle Fragen ehrlich und spontan. Es gibt keine richtigen und falschen Antworten.

Weiter

Pre-exposure – Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Viele Sportevents werden von Sponsoren durch finanzielle Zahlungen oder materielle Leistungen unterstützt.

Was halten Sie von dieser Form von Unterstützung durch Sponsoren?

Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmen!

	Stimme überhaupt nicht zu	Stimme teilweise zu	Stimme vollkommen zu	Weiss nicht / B.A.
Generell finde ich es gut, wenn sich Unternehmen als Sponsoren für Sportevents engagieren.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sponsoren wollen durch Ihre Beiträge an Sportevents Ansehen bei Ihren Kunden gewinnen.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sponsoren tragen dazu bei, dass der Eintrittspreis bei Sportevents für alle erschwinglich bleibt.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Weiter

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

/ /
 Lohnd
 Universität
 Hannover

7% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

;; Produkte und Dienstleistungen von Sponsoren können Ihrem Image nach mehr oder weniger gut zu einem Sportevent passen (z.B. passt das Image von Energy Drinks eher gut zu Sportevents).

Wie gut passen die folgenden Produkte und Dienstleistungen Ihrem Image nach zu Sportevents?
 Bitte geben Sie Ihre Meinung für die folgenden Produkte/Dienstleistungen an!

	Passt sehr schlecht				Passt mehr oder weniger				Passt sehr gut	Weiss nicht / k.A.
Soft Drinks	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Zeitungen/Zeitschriften	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Alkoholische Getränke (z.B. Bier, Sekt)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Finanzdienstleistung/Banken	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Landmaschinen/Nutzfahrzeuge	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Zigaretten/Zigarren/Stumpfen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Öffentlicher Verkehr	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Bau-/Hobbymärkte	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reisen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Weiter

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

/ /
 Lohnd
 Universität
 Hannover

2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Abschnitt C: Ihre Beurteilung der Marken Migros und Kodak

In diesem Abschnitt möchten wir etwas über Ihre Beurteilung der Marken Migros und Kodak erfahren.

Bitte beantworten Sie alle Fragen ehrlich und spontan. Es gibt keine richtigen und falschen Antworten.

Weiter

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

/ /
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 Universität
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4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

;; Zwei Marken können hinsichtlich ihrer Markenimage besser oder schlechter zusammenspassen (z.B. passen Rolex und Audi inabemässig gut zusammen, während Rolex und Red Bull weniger gut zusammenspassen).

Wie gut passt das Markenimage von Migros zum Markenimage von Kodak?
 Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmt

	Stimme überhaupt nicht zu				Stimme teilweise zu				Stimme vollkommen zu	Weiss nicht / k.A.
Das Image der Marke Migros und das Image der Marke Kodak passen gut zusammen.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
Meine Vorstellungen von der Marke Migros sind vergleichbar mit meinen Vorstellungen von der Marke Kodak.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
Meine Assoziationen zur Marke Migros decken sich mit meinen Assoziationen zur Marke Kodak.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	

Weiter

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

/ /
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 Universität
 Hannover

2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Die folgenden 2 Fragen beziehen sich auf die Marke Migros.

MIGROS

Weiter

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

1 / 1
 1.0 / 2.0
 1.0 / 2.0
 1.0 / 2.0
 Lebens-
 universität
 Mannheim

4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet: 0% ... 50% ... 100%

⇒ Eine bestimmte Marke kann man persönlich eher gut oder eher schlecht finden, d.h. man ist gegenüber dieser Marke eher positiv oder eher negativ eingestellt.

Wie beurteilen Sie die Marke Migros?
Bitte geben Sie Ihre Einstellung anhand der folgenden Kriterien an!

MIGROS

	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
schlecht	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	gut
nicht ansprechend	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	ansprechend
unsympathisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	sympathisch
unattraktiv	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	attraktiv

[Weiter](#)

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

1 / 1
 1.0 / 2.0
 1.0 / 2.0
 1.0 / 2.0
 Lebens-
 universität
 Mannheim

4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet: 0% ... 50% ... 100%

⇒ Marken werden manchmal anhand von Charaktereigenschaften beschrieben, mit denen man normalerweise Menschen beschreibt (z.B. könnte man Red Bull mit "angriffslustig" oder "kühn" beschreiben).

Stellen Sie sich vor, die Marke Migros sei eine Person. Wie würden Sie diese beschreiben?
Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit die folgenden Kriterien für die Marke charakteristisch sind!

MIGROS

	Überhaupt nicht charakteristisch			Teilweise charakteristisch			Sehr charakteristisch	Weiss nicht / K.A.
bodenständig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
naturverbunden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
ausgeglichen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
verantwortungsvoll	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
lebhafte	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
dynamisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
innovativ	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
angriffslustig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
kühn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gewöhnlich	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
schlecht	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
romantisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
empfindsam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

[Weiter](#)

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

1 / 1
 1.0 / 2.0
 1.0 / 2.0
 1.0 / 2.0
 Lebens-
 universität
 Mannheim

2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet: 0% ... 50% ... 100%

Die folgenden 2 Fragen beziehen sich auf die Marke Kodak.

Kodak

[Weiter](#)

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

1/1 Likert
4/5 Antwort
1/1/1 Antwort

4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

☺ Eine bestimmte Marke kann man persönlich eher gut oder eher schlecht finden, d.h. man ist gegenüber dieser Marke eher positiv oder eher negativ eingestellt.

Wie beurteilen Sie die Marke Kodak?
Bitte geben Sie Ihre Einstellung anhand der folgenden Kriterien an!

Kodak

	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
schlecht	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐ gut
nicht ansprechend	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐ ansprechend
unsympathisch	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐ sympathisch
unattraktiv	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐ attraktiv

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

1/1 Likert
4/5 Antwort
1/1/1 Antwort

4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

☺ Marken werden manchmal anhand von Charaktereigenschaften beschrieben, mit denen man normalerweise Menschen beschreibt (z.B. könnte man Red Bull mit "angriffslustig" oder "kühn" beschreiben).

Stellen Sie sich vor, die Marke Kodak sei eine Person. Wie würden Sie diese beschreiben?
Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit die folgenden Kriterien für die Marke charakteristisch sind!

Kodak

	Überhaupt nicht charakteristisch	Teilweise charakteristisch	Sehr charakteristisch	Weiss nicht / K.A.
bodenständig	☐	☐	☐	☐
naturverbunden	☐	☐	☐	☐
ausgeglichen	☐	☐	☐	☐
verantwortungsvoll	☐	☐	☐	☐
lebhaft	☐	☐	☐	☐
dynamisch	☐	☐	☐	☐
innovativ	☐	☐	☐	☐
angriffslustig	☐	☐	☐	☐
kühn	☐	☐	☐	☐
gewöhnlich	☐	☐	☐	☐
schlicht	☐	☐	☐	☐
romantisch	☐	☐	☐	☐
empfindsam	☐	☐	☐	☐

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group

1/1 Likert
4/5 Antwort
1/1/1 Antwort

2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Abschnitt D: Ihre Beurteilung des Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfestes

In diesem Abschnitt stellen wir Ihnen Fragen zum Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfest. Aus Platzgründen nennen wir diesen Event in den Fragen teilweise einfach Schwingfest.

Bitte beantworten Sie alle Fragen ehrlich und spontan. Es gibt keine richtigen und falschen Antworten.

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group


Control group

1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. | 8. | 9. | 10. | 11. | 12. | 13. | 14. | 15. | 16. | 17. | 18. | 19. | 20. | 21. | 22. | 23. | 24. | 25. | 26. | 27. | 28. | 29. | 30. | 31. | 32. | 33. | 34. | 35. | 36. | 37. | 38. | 39. | 40. | 41. | 42. | 43. | 44. | 45. | 46. | 47. | 48. | 49. | 50. | 51. | 52. | 53. | 54. | 55. | 56. | 57. | 58. | 59. | 60. | 61. | 62. | 63. | 64. | 65. | 66. | 67. | 68. | 69. | 70. | 71. | 72. | 73. | 74. | 75. | 76. | 77. | 78. | 79. | 80. | 81. | 82. | 83. | 84. | 85. | 86. | 87. | 88. | 89. | 90. | 91. | 92. | 93. | 94. | 95. | 96. | 97. | 98. | 99. | 100.

0% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Einem bestimmten Event kann man persönlich eher gut oder eher schlecht finden, d.h. man ist gegenüber diesem Event eher positiv oder eher negativ eingestellt.

Wie beurteilen Sie das Eidgenössische Schwing- und Älplerfest?
Bitte geben Sie Ihre Einstellung anhand der folgenden Kriterien an:



	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
schlecht	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	gut
nicht ansprechend	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	ansprechend
unsympathisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	sympathisch
unattraktiv	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	attraktiv

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group


Control group

1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. | 8. | 9. | 10. | 11. | 12. | 13. | 14. | 15. | 16. | 17. | 18. | 19. | 20. | 21. | 22. | 23. | 24. | 25. | 26. | 27. | 28. | 29. | 30. | 31. | 32. | 33. | 34. | 35. | 36. | 37. | 38. | 39. | 40. | 41. | 42. | 43. | 44. | 45. | 46. | 47. | 48. | 49. | 50. | 51. | 52. | 53. | 54. | 55. | 56. | 57. | 58. | 59. | 60. | 61. | 62. | 63. | 64. | 65. | 66. | 67. | 68. | 69. | 70. | 71. | 72. | 73. | 74. | 75. | 76. | 77. | 78. | 79. | 80. | 81. | 82. | 83. | 84. | 85. | 86. | 87. | 88. | 89. | 90. | 91. | 92. | 93. | 94. | 95. | 96. | 97. | 98. | 99. | 100.

0% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Events werden manchmal anhand von Charaktereigenschaften beschrieben, mit denen man normalerweise Menschen beschreibt (z.B. könnte man sich Weltcup Athleten mit "angriffslustig" oder "kühn" beschreiben).

Stellen Sie sich vor, das Eidgenössische Schwing- und Älplerfest sei eine Person. Wie würden Sie diese beschreiben?
Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit die folgenden Kriterien für den Event charakteristisch sind!



	Überhaupt nicht charakteristisch		Teilweise charakteristisch		Sehr charakteristisch	Weiss nicht / k.A.
bodenständig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
naturverbunden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
ausgeglichen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
verantwortungsvoll	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
klüffelt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
dynamisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
innovativ	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
angriffslustig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
kühn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gewöhnlich	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
schlicht	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
romantisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
empfindsam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group


Control group

1. | 2. | 3. | 4. | 5. | 6. | 7. | 8. | 9. | 10. | 11. | 12. | 13. | 14. | 15. | 16. | 17. | 18. | 19. | 20. | 21. | 22. | 23. | 24. | 25. | 26. | 27. | 28. | 29. | 30. | 31. | 32. | 33. | 34. | 35. | 36. | 37. | 38. | 39. | 40. | 41. | 42. | 43. | 44. | 45. | 46. | 47. | 48. | 49. | 50. | 51. | 52. | 53. | 54. | 55. | 56. | 57. | 58. | 59. | 60. | 61. | 62. | 63. | 64. | 65. | 66. | 67. | 68. | 69. | 70. | 71. | 72. | 73. | 74. | 75. | 76. | 77. | 78. | 79. | 80. | 81. | 82. | 83. | 84. | 85. | 86. | 87. | 88. | 89. | 90. | 91. | 92. | 93. | 94. | 95. | 96. | 97. | 98. | 99. | 100.

0% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Eine Marke kann hinsichtlich ihres Markenimages besser oder schlechter zu einem Event passen (z.B. passen Red Bull und der Ski Weltcup inwieweitig gut, während Red Bull und der Grand Golf Open weniger gut passen).

Wie gut passt das Markenimage von Migros zum Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfest?
Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmen.

 **MIGROS**

	Stimme überhaupt nicht zu		Stimme teilweise zu		Stimme vollkommen zu	Weiss nicht / k.A.
Das Image der Marke Migros und das Schwingfest passen gut zueinander.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Meine Vorstellungen von der Marke Migros sind vergleichbar mit meinen Vorstellungen vom Schwingfest.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Meine Assoziationen zur Marke Migros decken sich mit meinen Assoziationen zum Schwingfest.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



0% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

☐ Eine Marke kann hinsichtlich ihres Markenimages besser oder schlechter zu einem Event passen (z.B. passen Red Bull und der Ski Weltcup inasemässig gut, während Red Bull und das Gstaad Golf Open weniger gut passen).

Wie gut passt das Markenimage von Kodak zum Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfest?
Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmen:



	Stimme überhaupt nicht zu	Stimme teilweise zu	Stimme vollkommen zu	Weiss nicht / k.A.
Das Image der Marke Kodak und das Schwingfest passen gut zueinander.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Meine Vorstellungen von der Marke Kodak sind vergleichbar mit meinen Vorstellungen vom Schwingfest.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Meine Assoziationen zur Marke Kodak decken sich mit meinen Assoziationen zum Schwingfest.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Weiter

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



0% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Befragung zu Markenimages und Markenpersönlichkeiten - Zweiter Teil

Liebe Studententeilnehmerin, lieber Studententeilnehmer

Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme am ersten Teil unserer Befragung. Es ist für uns wichtig, dass Sie auch beim zweiten Teil auf den folgenden Seiten mitmachen!

Es kann sein, dass Sie mit Fragen konfrontiert werden, welche Ihnen aus dem ersten Teil der Befragung bekannt vorkommen. Bitte beantworten Sie alle Fragen trotzdem spontan und entsprechend Ihrer aktuellen Meinung und Ihrem jetzigen Gefühl.

Für Ihre Teilnahme am zweiten Teil der Befragung sammeln Sie wieder **Ihre GfK-Punkte**. Darüber hinaus verlosen wir unter allen Teilnehmer/innen **10 Einkaufsgutscheine à 50 Franken**.

Besten Dank für Ihre Unterstützung und freundliche Grösse,

Philip Gross – Universität Hannover
Institut für Marketing & Management

Für Fragen und Anregungen wenden Sie sich bitte unter gross@m2.uni-hannover.de an unseren Studienleiter.

Weiter

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



0% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Ihre Beurteilung der Marken Migros und Kodak

In diesem Abschnitt möchten wir etwas über Ihre Beurteilung der Marken Migros und Kodak erfahren.

Bitte beantworten Sie alle Fragen ehrlich und spontan. Es gibt keine richtigen und falschen Antworten.

Weiter

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



1% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

;; Zwei Marken können hinsichtlich ihrer Markenimage besser oder schlechter zusammengesamt (z.B. passen Rolex und Audi inamgendig gut zusammen, während Rolex und Red Bull weniger gut zusammenspassen).

Wie gut passt das Markenimage von Migros zum Markenimage von Kodak?
Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern Sie den folgenden Aussagen zustimmen!



	Stimme überhaupt nicht zu	Stimme teilweise zu	Stimme vollkommen zu	Weiss nicht / k.A.
Das Image der Marke Migros und das Image der Marke Kodak passen gut zueinander.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Meine Vorstellungen von der Marke Migros sind vergleichbar mit meinen Vorstellungen von der Marke Kodak.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Meine Assoziationen zur Marke Migros decken sich mit meinen Assoziationen zur Marke Kodak.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

[Weiter](#)

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Die folgenden 2 Fragen beziehen sich auf die Marke Migros.



[Weiter](#)

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



1% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

;; Eine bestimmte Marke kann man persönlich eher gut oder eher schlecht finden, d.h. man ist gegenüber dieser Marke eher positiv oder eher negativ eingestellt.

Wie beurteilen Sie die Marke Migros?
Bitte geben Sie Ihre Einstellung anhand der folgenden Kriterien an!



	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
schlecht	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	gut
nicht ansprechend	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	ansprechend
unsympathisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	sympathisch
unattraktiv	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	attraktiv

[Weiter](#)

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



1% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

;; Marken werden manchmal anhand von Charaktereigenschaften beschrieben, mit denen man normalerweise Menschen beschreibt (z.B. könnte man Red Bull mit "angriffslustig" oder "kühn" beschreiben).

Stellen Sie sich vor, die Marke Migros sei eine Person. Wie würden Sie diese beschreiben?
Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern die folgenden Kriterien für die Marke charakteristisch sind!



	Überhaupt nicht charakteristisch	Teilweise charakteristisch	Sehr charakteristisch	Weiss nicht / k.A.
bodenständig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
naturverbunden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
ausgeglichen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
verantwortungsvoll	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
lebhaf	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
dynamisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
innovativ	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
angriffslustig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
kühn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gewöhnlich	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
schlicht	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
romantisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
empfindsam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

[Weiter](#)

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

Die folgenden 2 Fragen beziehen sich auf die Marke Kodak.



Weiter

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

;; Eine bestimmte Marke kann man persönlich eher gut oder eher schlecht finden, d.h. man ist gegenüber dieser Marke eher positiv oder eher negativ eingestellt.

Wie beurteilen Sie die Marke Kodak?
Bitte geben Sie Ihre Einstellung anhand der folgenden Kriterien an!



	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	
schlecht	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	gut
nicht ansprechend	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	ansprechend
unsympathisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	sympathisch
unattraktiv	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	attraktiv

Weiter

Pre-exposure - Post-exposure

Treatment group

Control group



4% aller Fragen sind beantwortet 0% 50% 100%

;; Marken werden manchmal anhand von Charaktereigenschaften beschrieben, mit denen man normalerweise Menschen beschreibt (z.B. könnte man Red Bull mit "angriffslustig" oder "kühn" beschreiben).

Stellen Sie sich vor, die Marke Kodak sei eine Person. Wie würden Sie diese beschreiben?
Bitte geben Sie an, inwieweit Sie folgenden Kriterien für die Marke charakteristisch sind!



	Überhaupt nicht charakteristisch				Teilweise charakteristisch			Sehr charakteristisch	Weiss nicht / k.A.
bodenständig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
naturverbunden	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
ausgeglichen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
verantwortungsvoll	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
lebhaft	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
dynamisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
invasiv	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
angriffslustig	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
kühn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
gewöhnlich	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
schlicht	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
romantisch	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
empfindsam	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Weiter


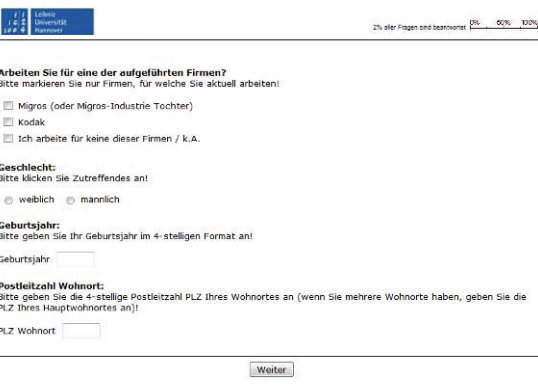
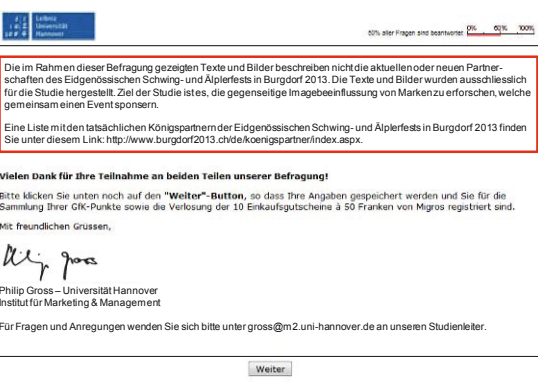


<p>Pre-exposure <input type="checkbox"/> – <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Post-exposure</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Treatment group</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Control group</p>	 <p>1/2 Lebensjahre 1/1 Hannover 0% 50% 100%</p> <p>3% aller Fragen sind beantwortet</p> <p>Angaben zu Ihrer Person</p> <p>Abschliessend benötigen wir zu statistischen Zwecken noch einmal Angaben zu Ihrer Person.</p> <p>Ihre Angaben werden vertraulich behandelt und ausschliesslich für diese Studie verwendet.</p> <p><input type="button" value="Weiter"/></p>
<p>Pre-exposure <input type="checkbox"/> – <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Post-exposure</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Treatment group</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Control group</p>	 <p>1/2 Lebensjahre 1/1 Hannover 0% 50% 100%</p> <p>2% aller Fragen sind beantwortet</p> <p>Arbeiten Sie für eine der aufgeführten Firmen?</p> <p>Bitte markieren Sie nur Firmen, für welche Sie aktuell arbeiten!</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Migros (oder Migros-Industrie Tochter)</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Kodak</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Ich arbeite für keine dieser Firmen / k. A.</p> <p>Geschlecht:</p> <p>Bitte klicken Sie Zutreffendes an!</p> <p><input type="radio"/> weiblich <input checked="" type="radio"/> männlich</p> <p>Geburtsjahr:</p> <p>Bitte geben Sie Ihr Geburtsjahr im 4-stelligen Format an!</p> <p>Geburtsjahr <input type="text"/></p> <p>Postleitzahl Wohnort:</p> <p>Bitte geben Sie die 4-stellige Postleitzahl PLZ Ihres Wohnortes an (wenn Sie mehrere Wohnorte haben, geben Sie die PLZ Ihres Hauptwohnortes an!)</p> <p>PLZ Wohnort <input type="text"/></p> <p><input type="button" value="Weiter"/></p>
<p>Pre-exposure <input type="checkbox"/> – <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Post-exposure</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Treatment group</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Control group</p>	 <p>1/2 Lebensjahre 1/1 Hannover 0% 50% 100%</p> <p>50% aller Fragen sind beantwortet</p> <p>Die im Rahmen dieser Befragung gezeigten Texte und Bilder beschreiben nicht die aktuellen oder neuen Partnerschaften des Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfests in Burgdorf 2013. Die Texte und Bilder wurden ausschliesslich für die Studie hergestellt. Ziel der Studie ist es, die gegenseitige Imagebeeinflussung von Marken zu erforschen, welche gemeinsam einen Event sponsoren.</p> <p>Eine Liste mit den tatsächlichen Königspartnern der Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfests in Burgdorf 2013 finden Sie unter diesem Link: http://www.burgdorf2013.ch/de/koenigspartner/index.aspx.</p> <p>Vielen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme an beiden Teilen unserer Befragung!</p> <p>Bitte klicken Sie unten noch auf den "Weiter"-Button, so dass Ihre Angaben gespeichert werden und Sie für die Sammlung Ihrer GfK-Punkte sowie die Verlosung der 10 Einkaufsgutscheine à 50 Franken von Migros registriert sind.</p> <p>Mit freundlichen Grüssen,</p>  <p>Philip Gross – Universität Hannover Institut für Marketing & Management</p> <p>Für Fragen und Anregungen wenden Sie sich bitte unter gross@m2.uni-hannover.de an unseren Studienleiter.</p> <p><input type="button" value="Weiter"/></p>

Table 24: Online survey – post-exposure.

Appendix D: Stimulus objects presented to treatment group

Unsere Königspartner:

Eidgenössisches Schwing- und Älplerfest 2013
Burgdorf | www.burgdorf2013.ch



Burgdorf, 23. November 2011

MEDIENMITTEILUNG

Zwei Königspartner für das "Eidgenössische" – Migros und Kodak unterstützen das Eidgenössische Schwing- und Älplerfest 2013

Im Schwingsport verbindet sich Tradition und Brauchtum mit kontinuierlichem Wandel und Fortschritt. Wir freuen uns deshalb, mit Migros und Kodak zwei Königspartner für das "Eidgenössische" 2013 zu präsentieren, welche ihre Herkunft würdigen und gleichzeitig als moderne Unternehmen in ihren Branchen führend sind.

Der Vertragsabschluss mit diesen zwei Sponsoren erlaubt uns bereits heute, rund zwei Jahre vor dem Schwingfest, notwendige Investitionen zu tätigen und Aufträge zu vergeben. Gleichzeitig erhalten Migros und Kodak ab sofort die Möglichkeit, ihren gemeinsamen Auftritt zu planen und als Partner des "Eidgenössischen" aufzutreten.

Neben finanziellen Zuwendungen werden die beiden Firmen den Grossanlass vor allem durch gemeinschaftliche Projekte unterstützen. Als erstes ist ein Fotowettbewerb mit und über Schweizer Bauern geplant. Die Gewinnprämien für die besten Bilder gehen dabei aber nicht an die teilnehmenden Hobbyfotografen, sondern werden von Migros und Kodak zur Organisation und Austragung eines Jungschwinger-Trainingslagers im Vorfeld des "Eidgenössischen" 2013 zur Verfügung gestellt.

Kontakte:

<p>ESAF 2013 Andreas Aebi OK Präsident a.aebi@burgdorf2013.ch</p>	<p>Migros-Genossenschafts-Bund Larisa Matkovic-Kilibarda Leiterin Sponsoring & Events larisa.matkovic@mgb.ch</p>	<p>Kodak Schweiz AG Monika Wermüller Leiterin Kommunikation monika.wermueller@kodak.ch</p>
--	---	---

Figure 22: Mock press release of ESAF 2013 organizing committee presenting fictitious sponsorship alliance of ESAF, Migros, and Kodak. Source: Own illustration.

Anschwingen –
Jetzt Tickets für's «Eidgenössische» sichern.

Unsere Kooperationspartner: **MIGROS** **Kodak**

Eidgenössisches Schwing- und Älplerfest 2013
www.burgdorf2013.ch
30. August bis 1. September 2013

Zusammengreifen –
Jetzt Tickets für's «Eidgenössische» sichern.

Unsere Kooperationspartner: **MIGROS** **Kodak**

Eidgenössisches Schwing- und Älplerfest 2013
www.burgdorf2013.ch
30. August bis 1. September 2013

Guet! –
Jetzt Tickets für's «Eidgenössische» sichern.

Unsere Kooperationspartner: **MIGROS** **Kodak**

Eidgenössisches Schwing- und Älplerfest 2013
www.burgdorf2013.ch
30. August bis 1. September 2013

Figure 23: Billboards announcing start of ticket sales for the ESAF 2013. Source: Own illustration.

The image shows a detailed mock-up of a news article on the '20 Minuten' website. The main headline is 'Migros und Kodak als Königspartner am "Eidgenössischen"'. Below the headline is a sub-headline: 'von Ueli Gerber – Die Migros und Kodak Schweiz wurden gestern an einer Medienkonferenz als neue Königspartner des Eidgenössischen Schwing- und Älplerfests 2013 vorgestellt. Die Unternehmen wollen gemeinsam den Wert der Bodenständigkeit stärken.' The article body contains a photo of two men shaking hands, a map of Switzerland, and several sidebar articles with titles like 'Aktuelle Lawnengefahr', 'Das sind die steilen Pisten der Alpen', and 'So entsteht eine Schneeflocke'. The page layout includes a navigation bar, a search box, and social media sharing options.

Figure 24: Mock news article in online edition of "20 Minuten" presenting fictitious sponsorship alliance of ESAP, Migros, and Kodak. Source: Own illustration.

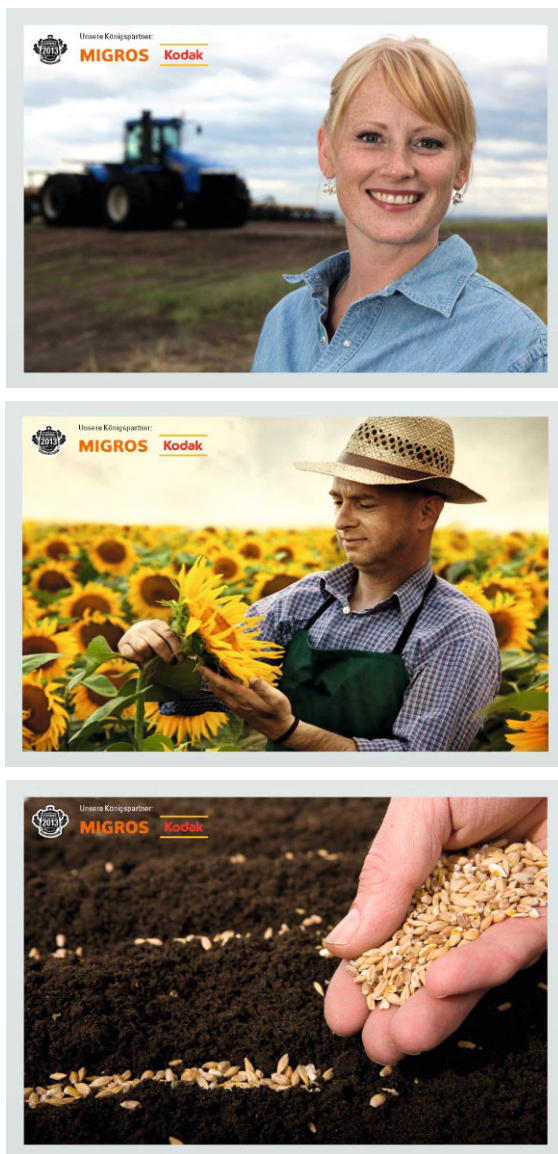


Figure 25: Photographs introduced as the winning pictures of a photo contest featuring Swiss farmers. Source: Own illustration.

Appendix E: Assessment of measurement scales

Pre-exposure brand image Migros – Attitude-based perspective
(Treatment group; n = 686)

Item:	Standardized factor loading	<i>p</i> -value ¹	Corrected item-total correlation
Bad/good	.890	n.a. ²	.818
Unappealing/appealing	.930	< .001	.873
Dislikeable/likeable	.912	< .001	.862
Unfavorable/favorable	.820	< .001	.795

Coefficient alpha	.93		
Average variance extracted	79%	Number of factors extracted	1
GFI	.961		
AGFI	.804		
RMSEA (90% CI)	.079 (.037 – .128)		
CFI	.860		

¹ Unstandardized factor loadings corresponding to *p*-values are not reported in this table.

² Loading on item constrained to 1 in order to scale latent variable (see section Model specification and identification, p.170E).

Table 25: Assessment of brand image scale for Migros (attitude-based perspective): Pre-exposure, treatment group.

Pre-exposure brand image Migros – Attitude-based perspective
(Control group; n = 130)

Item:	Standardized factor loading	p-value ¹	Corrected item-total correlation
Bad/good	.859	n.a. ²	.788
Unappealing/appealing	.954	< .001	.872
Dislikeable/likeable	.793	< .001	.765
Unfavorable/favorable	.779	< .001	.749
Coefficient alpha	.90		
Average variance extracted	72%	Number of factors extracted 1	
GFI	.990		
AGFI	.949		
RMSEA (90% CI)	.048 (.000 – .188)		
CFI	.998		

¹ Unstandardized factor loadings corresponding to p-values are not reported in this table.

² Loading on item constrained to 1 in order to scale latent variable (see section Model specification and identification, p.170f).

Table 26: Assessment of brand image scale for Migros (attitude-based perspective): Pre-exposure, control group.

Pre-/post-exposure brand image Kodak – Attitude-based perspective
(Treatment group; n = 686)

Item:	Standardized factor loading	p-value ¹	Corrected item-total correlation
Bad/good	.876/.846	n.a. ² /n.a. ²	.811/.808
Unappealing/appealing	.931/.930	< .001/< .001	.870/.880
Dislikeable/likeable	.891/.905	< .001/< .001	.831/.858
Unfavorable/favorable	.851/.871	< .001/< .001	.809/.832
Coefficient alpha	.93/.93		
Average variance extracted	79%/79%	Number of factors extracted 1/1	
GFI	.982/.990		
AGFI	.912/.948		
RMSEA (90% CI)	.082 (.040 – .131)/.051 (.000 – .103)		
CFI	.970/.988		

¹ Unstandardized factor loadings corresponding to p-values are not reported in this table.

² Loading on item constrained to 1 in order to scale latent variable (see section Model specification and identification, p.170f).

Table 27: Assessment of brand image scale for Kodak (attitude-based perspective): Pre-/post-exposure, treatment group.

Pre-/post-exposure brand image Kodak – Attitude-based perspective
(Control group; n = 130)

Item:	Standardized factor loading	p-value¹	Corrected item-total correlation
Bad/good	.824/.878	n.a. ² /n.a. ²	.787/.839
Unappealing/appealing	.912/.873	< .001/< .001	.842/.840
Dislikeable/likeable	.856/.931	< .001/< .001	.785/.888
Unfavorable/favorable	.775/.886	< .001/< .001	.739/.855
Coefficient alpha	.90/.94		
Average variance extracted	71%/80%	Number of factors extracted	1/1
GFI	.984/.993		
AGFI	.919/.963		
RMSEA (90% CI)	.091 (.000 – .217)/.000 ³ (.000 – .173)		
CFI	.994/1.000 ³		

¹ Unstandardized factor loadings corresponding to p-values are not reported in this table.

² Loading on item constrained to 1 in order to scale latent variable (see section Model specification and identification, p.170f).

³ If $\chi^2 \leq df$, then RMSEA = .000 and CFI = 1.000 (post-exposure model: $\chi^2 = 1.937$, df = 2); this result does not necessarily mean perfect fit (Kline 2010, pp.205 and 208).

Table 28: Assessment of brand image scale for Kodak (attitude-based perspective): Pre-/post-exposure, control group.

Pre-/post-exposure brand image ESAF – Attitude-based perspective
(Treatment group; n = 686)

Item:	Standardized factor loading	p-value¹	Corrected item-total correlation
Bad/good	.900/.914	n.a. ² /n.a. ²	.849/.887
Unappealing/appealing	.934/.944	< .001/< .001	.889/.912
Dislikeable/likeable	.912/.915	< .001/< .001	.859/.885
Unfavorable/favorable	.907/.919	< .001/< .001	.866/.892
Coefficient alpha	.94/.95		
Average variance extracted	83%/85%	Number of factors extracted	1/1
GFI	.950/.980		
AGFI	.752/.901		
RMSEA (90% CI)	.139 (.096 – .186)/.077 (.034 – .126)		
CFI	.920/.966		

¹ Unstandardized factor loadings corresponding to p-values are not reported in this table.

² Loading on item constrained to 1 in order to scale latent variable (see section Model specification and identification, p.170f).

Table 29: Assessment of brand image scale for ESAF (attitude-based perspective): Pre-/post-exposure, treatment group.

Pre-/post-exposure brand image fit Migros/Kodak
(Treatment group; n = 686)

Item:	Standardized factor loading	p-value¹	Corrected item-total correlation
The image of "brand A" and the image of "brand B" fit together well	.806/.841	n.a. ² /n.a. ²	.776/.806
The ideas that come to my mind when asked about "brand A" are related to the ideas I have about "brand B"	.935/.936	< .001/< .001	.875/.871
My associations with "brand A" are similar to those I have with "brand B"	.934/.909	< .001/< .001	.841/.857
Coefficient alpha	.92/.92		
Average variance extracted	80%/80%	Number of factors extracted	1/1
GFI	.993/1.000 ³		
AGFI	.955/.998		
RMSEA (90% CI)	.102 (.046 – .171)/.000 ³ (.000 – .081)		
CFI	.987/1.000 ³		

Note: Critical ratio difference method (Byrne 2009, p.132f) suggested imposing an equality constraint on the loadings of the latent variable on item 2 and item 3 in order to obtain overidentified pre-/post-exposure models.

¹ Unstandardized factor loadings corresponding to p-values are not reported in this table.

² Loading on item constrained to 1 in order to scale latent variable (see section Model specification and identification, p.170f).

³ If χ^2 is close to zero, GFI can become 1.000 or even exceed 1.000 (post-exposure model: $\chi^2 = 0.256$; if $\chi^2 \leq df$, then RMSEA = .000 and CFI = 1.000 (post-exposure model: $\chi^2 = 0.256$, df = 1); this result does not necessarily mean perfect fit (Kline 2010, pp.207f, 205 and 208).

Table 30: Assessment of brand image fit scale for Migros/Kodak: Pre-/post-exposure, treatment group.

Pre-/post-exposure brand image fit Migros/Kodak
(Control group; n = 130; pre-/post-exposure)

Item:	Standardized factor loading	p-value¹	Corrected item-total correlation
The image of "brand A" and the image of "brand B" fit together well	.861/.864	n.a. ² /n.a. ²	.809/.800
The ideas that come to my mind when asked about "brand A" are related to the ideas I have about "brand B"	.876/.911	< .001/< .001	.826/.886
My associations with "brand A" are similar to those I have with "brand B"	.882/.912	< .001/< .001	.802/.849

Coefficient alpha	.91/.92		
Average variance extracted	76%/80%	Number of factors extracted	1/1
GFI	.993/.968		
AGFI	.978/.903		
RMSEA (90% CI)	.000 ³ (.000 – .159)/.134 (.030 – .253)		
CFI	1.000 ³ /.985		

Note: Critical ratio difference method (Byrne 2009, p.132f.) suggested imposing equality constraints on the three error variances in order to obtain overidentified pre-/post-exposure models.

¹ Unstandardized factor loadings corresponding to p-values are not reported in this table.

² Loading on item constrained to 1 in order to scale latent variable (see section Model specification and identification, p.170f.).

³ If $\chi^2 \leq df$, then RMSEA = .000 and CFI = 1.000 (pre-exposure model: $\chi^2 = 1.453$, $df = 2$); this result does not necessarily mean perfect fit (Kline 2010, p.205 and p.208).

Table 31: Assessment of brand image fit scale for Migros/Kodak: Pre-/post-exposure, control group.

Post-exposure brand image fit Migros/ESAF

(Treatment group; n = 686)

Item:	Standardized factor loading	p-value¹	Corrected item-total correlation
The image of "brand A" and the image of "brand B" fit together well	.802	n.a. ²	.779
The ideas that come to my mind when asked about "brand A" are related to the ideas I have about "brand B"	.974	< .001	.909
My associations with "brand A" are similar to those I have with "brand B"	.919	< .001	.867
Coefficient alpha	.92		
Average variance extracted	81%	Number of factors extracted	1
GFI	.997		
AGFI	.982		
RMSEA (90% CI)	.038 (.000 – .116)		
CFI	.997		

Note: Critical ratio difference method (Byrne 2009, p.132f.) suggested imposing an equality constraint on the loadings of the latent variable on item 2 and item 3 in order to obtain an overidentified model.

¹ Unstandardized factor loadings corresponding to p-values are not reported in this table.

² Loading on item constrained to 1 in order to scale latent variable (see section Model specification and identification, p.170f.).

Table 32: Assessment of brand image fit scale for Migros/ESAF: Post-exposure, treatment group.

Post-exposure brand image fit Kodak/ESAF

(Treatment group; n = 686)

Item:	Standardized factor loading	p-value¹	Corrected item-total correlation
The image of "brand A" and the image of "brand B" fit together well	.777	n.a. ²	n.a. ²
<i>Item 2 (Post_fit_kod_esaf_2) eliminated from final measurement scale (see p.185)</i>			
My associations with "brand A" are similar to those I have with "brand B"	.777	n.a. ²	n.a. ²
Coefficient alpha	.87		
Average variance extracted	78%	Number of factors extracted	1
GFI	n.a. ²		
AGFI	n.a. ²		
RMSEA (90% CI)	n.a. ²		
CFI	n.a. ²		

¹ Unstandardized factor loadings corresponding to p-values are not reported in this table.² This model with two items is just-identified (even with an equality constraint imposed on the 2 error variances) which yielded an inadmissible solution.

Table 33: Assessment of brand image fit scale for Kodak/ESAF: Post-exposure, treatment group.

Pre-exposure brand familiarity Kodak
(Treatment group; n = 686)

Item:	Standardized factor loading	p-value¹	Corrected item-total correlation
Very unfamiliar/very familiar	.866	n.a. ²	.787
Very inexperienced/very experienced	.888	< .001	.817
Not knowledgeable at all/ very knowledgeable	.821	< .001	.776
Only few associations come to my mind quickly/Many associations come to my mind quickly	.760	< .001	.715
Coefficient alpha	.90		
Average variance extracted	70%	Number of factors extracted	1
GFI	.976		
AGFI	.878		
RMSEA (90% CI)	.120 (.078 – .168)		
CFI	.944		

¹ Unstandardized factor loadings corresponding to p-values are not reported in this table.

² Loading on item constrained to 1 in order to scale latent variable (see section Model specification and identification, p.170f).

Table 34: Assessment of brand familiarity scale for Kodak: Pre-exposure, treatment group.

Appendix F: Discriminant validity assessment for latent variables

Latent Variables Pair:	AVE			Discr. Vldt. ¹
	Squared Corr. Est.	left Construct	right Construct	
Pre_attd_mig ↔ Post_fit_kod_esaf				n.a.
Pre_attd_mig ↔ Post_fit_mig_kod	0.05	0.79	0.80	☑
Pre_attd_mig ↔ Post_fit_mig_esaf	0.06	0.79	0.81	☑
Pre_attd_mig ↔ Pre_fam_kod	0.02	0.79	0.70	☑
Pre_attd_kod ↔ Pre_attd_mig	0.03	0.79	0.79	☑
Pre_attd_kod ↔ Post_attd_esaf	0.06	0.79	0.85	☑
Pre_attd_kod ↔ Post_attd_kod	0.50	0.79	0.79	☑
Pre_attd_kod ↔ Post_fit_kod_esaf				n.a.
Pre_attd_kod ↔ Post_fit_mig_kod	0.15	0.79	0.80	☑
Pre_attd_kod ↔ Post_fit_mig_esaf	0.01	0.79	0.81	☑
Pre_attd_kod ↔ Pre_fam_kod	0.37	0.79	0.70	☑
Pre_attd_esaf ↔ Pre_attd_mig	0.02	0.83	0.79	☑
Pre_attd_esaf ↔ Pre_attd_kod	0.08	0.83	0.79	☑
Pre_attd_esaf ↔ Post_attd_esaf	0.69	0.83	0.85	☑
Pre_attd_esaf ↔ Post_attd_kod	0.07	0.83	0.79	☑
Pre_attd_esaf ↔ Post_fit_kod_esaf				n.a.
Pre_attd_esaf ↔ Post_fit_mig_kod	0.04	0.83	0.80	☑
Pre_attd_esaf ↔ Post_fit_mig_esaf	0.12	0.83	0.81	☑
Pre_attd_esaf ↔ Pre_fam_kod	0.01	0.83	0.70	☑
Post_attd_kod ↔ Pre_attd_mig	0.05	0.79	0.79	☑
Post_attd_kod ↔ Post_fit_kod_esaf				n.a.
Post_attd_kod ↔ Post_fit_mig_kod	0.37	0.79	0.80	☑
Post_attd_kod ↔ Post_fit_mig_esaf	0.05	0.79	0.81	☑
Post_attd_kod ↔ Pre_fam_kod	0.19	0.79	0.70	☑
Post_attd_esaf ↔ Pre_attd_mig	0.03	0.85	0.79	☑
Post_attd_esaf ↔ Post_attd_kod	0.14	0.85	0.79	☑
Post_attd_esaf ↔ Post_fit_kod_esaf				n.a.
Post_attd_esaf ↔ Post_fit_mig_kod	0.10	0.85	0.80	☑
Post_attd_esaf ↔ Post_fit_mig_esaf	0.21	0.85	0.81	☑
Post_attd_esaf ↔ Pre_fam_kod	0.01	0.85	0.70	☑
Post_fit_mig_kod ↔ Post_fit_mig_esaf	0.24	0.80	0.81	☑
Post_fit_mig_kod ↔ Pre_fam_kod	0.05	0.80	0.70	☑
Post_fit_mig_esaf ↔ Pre_fam_kod	0.00	0.81	0.70	☑
Post_fit_kod_esaf ↔ Post_fit_mig_kod				n.a.
Post_fit_kod_esaf ↔ Post_fit_mig_esaf				n.a.
Post_fit_kod_esaf ↔ Pre_fam_kod				n.a.

¹ Discriminant validity confirmed: ☑; discriminant validity not applicable: n.a. (no AVE available for Post_fit_kod_esaf since corresponding CFA model/-s yielded an inadmissible solution (see Table 33, p.317).

Table 35: Assessment of discriminant validity of latent variables.

Appendix G: T-test tables

Construct:	Exp. group ¹	M _{pre} (SD)	M _{post} (SD)	t	df	p-value
Brand attitude	Treat	0.86 (0.76)	0.64 (0.68)	3.88	125	< .01
	Contr	1.00 (0.78)	1.01 (0.99)	-0.24	125	.81

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

¹ Experimental groups: Treat ... Treatment group; Contr ... Control group

Table 36: T-test table on pre- versus post-exposure comparisons of means of Migros/Kodak attitude-similarity scores.

Item:	Exp. group ¹	M _{pre} (SD)	M _{post} (SD)	t	df	p-value
Down to earth	Treat	1.29 (1.09)	1.19 (1.02)	0.95	128	.34
	Contr	1.14 (1.13)	1.21 (1.03)	1.61	125	.11
Outdoorsy	Treat	2.01 (1.29)	1.36 (1.13)	5.30	129	< .01
	Contr	2.26 (1.49)	1.92 (1.39)	2.67	129	< .01
Stable	Treat	1.19 (1.08)	0.87 (0.87)	3.05	128	< .01
	Contr	1.11 (1.00)	1.09 (0.98)	0.20	127	.85
Responsible	Treat	1.19 (1.03)	0.83 (0.81)	3.68	126	< .01
	Contr	1.38 (1.15)	1.16 (1.10)	1.82	127	0.07
Active	Treat	1.38 (1.24)	0.75 (0.82)	5.50	129	< .01
	Contr	1.54 (1.14)	1.32 (1.08)	1.84	126	.07
Dynamic	Treat	1.36 (1.17)	0.80 (0.81)	5.58	128	< .01
	Contr	1.52 (1.16)	1.14 (0.99)	3.30	124	< .01
Innovative	Treat	1.38 (1.11)	0.76 (0.82)	6.12	124	< .01
	Contr	1.47 (1.09)	1.17 (1.15)	2.68	120	< .01
Aggressive	Treat	1.33 (0.99)	1.05 (0.93)	2.66	128	< .01
	Contr	1.58 (1.39)	1.42 (1.28)	1.29	128	.20
Bold	Treat	1.19 (0.98)	0.79 (0.81)	3.66	128	< .01
	Contr	1.36 (1.19)	1.11 (1.00)	1.98	126	.05
Ordinary	Treat	1.33 (1.18)	0.66 (0.78)	5.74	128	< .01
	Contr	1.22 (1.15)	1.12 (1.18)	0.85	128	.40
Simple	Treat	0.95 (1.03)	0.72 (0.83)	2.13	128	.04
	Contr	1.16 (1.13)	1.02 (1.07)	1.03	126	.31
Romantic	Treat	0.99 (0.94)	0.70 (0.75)	3.08	129	< .01
	Contr	1.06 (1.08)	0.76 (0.91)	2.58	128	< .01
Sentimental	Treat	0.98 (0.97)	0.76 (0.75)	2.16	126	.033
	Contr	1.07 (1.06)	0.79 (0.87)	2.69	128	< .01

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

¹ Experimental groups: Treat ... Treatment group, Contr ... Control group

Table 37: T-test table on pre- versus post-exposure comparisons of means of Migros/Kodak personality traits-similarity scores.

Appendix H: ANCOVA tables

Construct:	Source:	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Brand attitude	Corr. Model	68.24 ¹	2	34.12	70.07	< .01
	Intercept	5.73	1	5.73	11.77	< .01
	Covariate	59.48	1	59.48	122.14	< .01
	Exp. Group	5.21	1	5.21	10.70	< .01
	Error	121.25	249	0.49		
	Total	362.00	252			
	Corr. Total	189.49	251			

¹ R Squared = .360 (Adjusted R Squared = .355)

Table 38: ANCOVA table for dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Brand attitude".

Item:	Source:	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Down to earth	Corr. Model	22.01 ¹	2	11.01	11.59	< .01
	Intercept	73.09	1	73.09	76.94	< .01
	Covariate	21.98	1	21.98	23.14	< .01
	Exp. Group	0.01	1	0.01	0.01	.94
	Error	239.39	252	0.95		
	Total	631.00	255			
	Corr. Total	261.40	254			

¹ R Squared = .084 (Adjusted R Squared = .077)

Table 39: ANCOVA table for dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Down to earth".

Item:	Source:	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Outdoorsy	Corr. Model	92.52 ¹	2	46.26	35.02	< .01
	Intercept	52.56	1	52.56	39.79	< .01
	Covariate	72.58	1	72.58	54.94	< .01
	Exp. Group	13.47	1	13.47	10.20	< .01
	Error	339.50	257	1.32		
	Total	1130.00	260			
	Corr. Total	432.02	259			

¹ R Squared = .214 (Adjusted R Squared = .208)

Table 40: ANCOVA table for dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Outdoorsy".

Item:	Source:	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Stable	Corr. Model	7.56 ¹	2	3.78	4.48	.01
	Intercept	78.46	1	78.46	93.00	< .01
	Covariate	4.52	1	4.52	5.35	.02
	Exp. Group	3.35	1	3.35	3.97	.04
	Error	214.30	254	0.84		
	Total	467.00	257			
	Corr. Total	221.86	256			

¹ R Squared = .034 (Adjusted R Squared = .026)

Table 41: ANCOVA table for dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Stable".

Item:	Source:	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Responsible	Corr. Model	24.92 ¹	2	12.46	14.46	< .01
	Intercept	49.08	1	49.08	56.98	< .01
	Covariate	18.00	1	18.00	20.89	< .01
	Exp. Group	5.11	1	5.11	5.93	.02
	Error	217.07	252	0.86		
	Total	493.00	255			
	Corr. Total	241.98	254			

¹ R Squared = .103 (Adjusted R Squared = .096)

Table 42: ANCOVA table for dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Responsible".

Item:	Source:	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Active	Corr. Model	35.52 ¹	2	17.76	20.58	< .01
	Intercept	56.32	1	56.32	65.28	< .01
	Covariate	14.72	1	14.72	17.06	< .01
	Exp. Group	18.44	1	18.44	21.37	< .01
	Error	219.16	254	0.86		
	Total	530.00	257			
	Corr. Total	254.69	256			

¹ R Squared = .139 (Adjusted R Squared = .133)

Table 43: ANCOVA table for dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Active".

Item:	Source:	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Dynamic	Corr. Model	27.74 ¹	2	13.87	18.83	< .01
	Intercept	37.52	1	37.52	50.92	< .01
	Covariate	20.51	1	20.51	27.83	< .01
	Exp. Group	5.67	1	5.67	7.69	< .01
	Error	184.94	251	0.74		
	Total	449.00	254			
	Corr. Total	212.68	253			

¹ R Squared = .130 (Adjusted R Squared = .124)

Table 44: ANCOVA table for dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Dynamic".

Item:	Source:	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Innovative	Corr. Model	42.75 ¹	2	21.37	24.98	< .01
	Intercept	22.41	1	22.41	26.19	< .01
	Covariate	32.23	1	32.23	37.67	< .01
	Exp. Group	9.09	1	9.09	10.62	< .01
	Error	207.93	243	0.86		
	Total	479.00	246			
	Corr. Total	250.67	245			

¹ R Squared = .171 (Adjusted R Squared = .164)

Table 45: ANCOVA table for dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Innovative".

Item:	Source:	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Aggressive	Corr. Model	50.29 ¹	2	25.14	22.92	< .01
	Intercept	58.10	1	58.10	52.96	< .01
	Covariate	41.35	1	41.35	37.69	< .01
	Exp. Group	5.24	1	5.24	4.77	.03
	Error	279.76	255	1.10		
	Total	722.00	258			
	Corr. Total	330.05	257			

¹ R Squared = .152 (Adjusted R Squared = .146)

Table 46: ANCOVA table for dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Aggressive".

Item:	Source:	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Bold	Corr. Model	9.32 ¹	2	4.66	5.70	< .01
	Intercept	73.68	1	73.68	90.04	< .01
	Covariate	2.79	1	2.79	3.41	.07
	Exp. Group	5.82	1	5.82	7.11	< .01
	Error	207.02	253	0.82		
	Total	447.00	256			
	Corr. Total	216.34	255			

¹ R Squared = .043 (Adjusted R Squared = .036)

Table 47: ANCOVA table for dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Bold".

Item:	Source:	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Ordinary	Corr. Model	20.53 ¹	2	10.27	10.59	< .01
	Intercept	57.67	1	57.67	59.49	< .01
	Covariate	7.04	1	7.04	7.26	< .01
	Exp. Group	14.39	1	14.39	14.84	< .01
	Error	247.21	255	0.97		
	Total	471.00	258			
	Corr. Total	267.74	257			

¹ R Squared = .077 (Adjusted R Squared = .069)

Table 48: ANCOVA table for dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Ordinary".

Item:	Source:	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Simple	Corr. Model	10.39 ¹	2	5.20	5.76	< .01
	Intercept	72.00	1	72.00	79.77	< .01
	Covariate	4.53	1	4.53	5.02	.03
	Exp. Group	4.85	1	4.85	5.37	.02
	Error	228.36	253	0.90		
	Total	433.00	256			
	Corr. Total	238.75	255			

¹ R Squared = .044 (Adjusted R Squared = .036)

Table 49: ANCOVA table for dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Simple".

Item:	Source:	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Romantic	Corr. Model	4.25 ¹	2	2.13	3.12	.04
	Intercept	46.34	1	46.34	67.86	< .01
	Covariate	4.02	1	4.02	5.89	< .01
	Exp. Group	0.17	1	0.17	0.25	.62
	Error	174.83	256	0.68		
	Total	317.00	259			
	Corr. Total	179.08	258			

¹ R Squared = .024 (Adjusted R Squared = .016)

Table 50: ANCOVA table for dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Romantic".

Item:	Source:	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value
Sentimental	Corr. Model	8.93 ¹	2	4.46	7.09	< .01
	Intercept	43.79	1	43.79	69.51	< .01
	Covariate	8.88	1	8.88	14.10	< .01
	Exp. Group	0.01	1	0.01	0.01	.92
	Error	159.38	253	0.63		
	Total	323.00	256			
	Corr. Total	168.31	255			

¹ R Squared = .053 (Adjusted R Squared = .046)

Table 51: ANCOVA table for dependent variable "Post-exposure similarity Migros/Kodak: Sentimental".

Appendix I: Final structural model

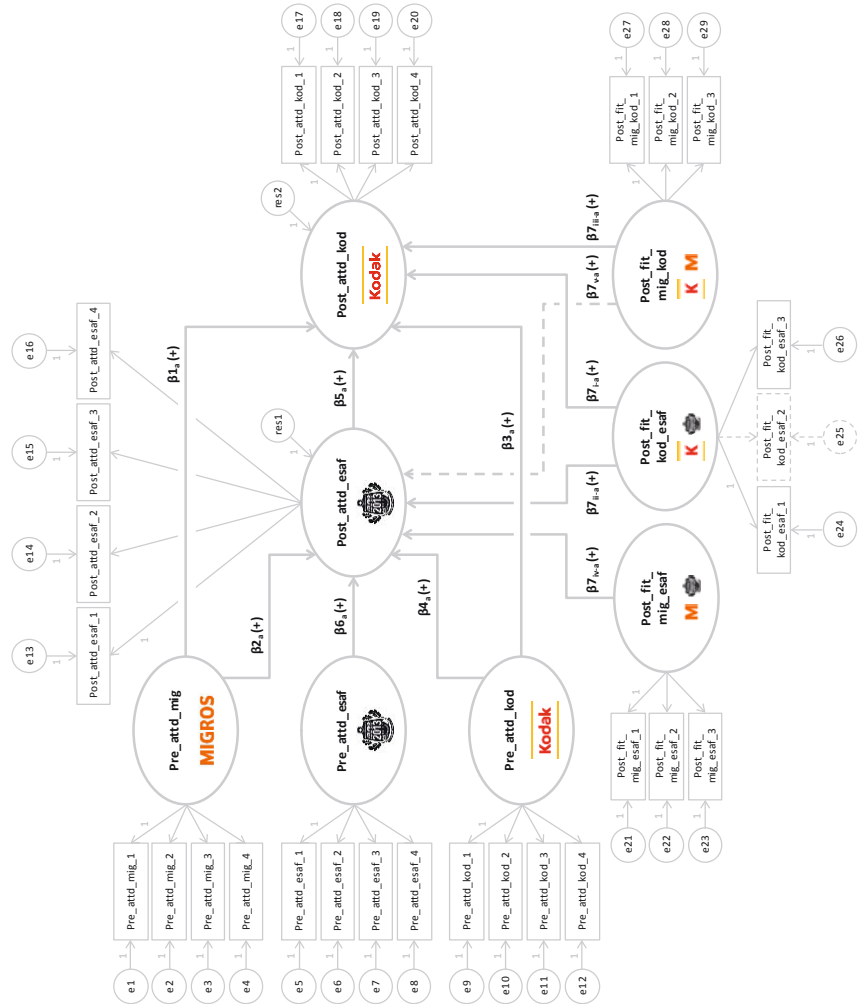


Figure 26: Structural model and measurement model as specified for estimating brand attitude transfer in a sponsorship alliance. Note 1: No covariances among exogenous factors and no autocorrelations of error terms indicated. Note 2: Dotted lines indicate paths/variables omitted for final model. Source: Own illustration.

Appendix J: Codes of latent variables and items

Measured variable:	Variable code	Item	Item code
Pre-exposure brand image Migros – Attitude-based perspective	Pre_attd_mig	Bad/good	Pre_attd_mig_1
		Unappealing/appealing	Pre_attd_mig_2
		Dislikeable/likeable	Pre_attd_mig_3
		Unfavorable/favorable	Pre_attd_mig_4

Table 52: Latent variable and item codes: Pre-exposure brand image Migros – Attitude-based perspective.

Measured variable:	Variable code	Item	Item code
Pre-exposure brand image Kodak – Attitude-based perspective	Pre_attd_kod	Bad/good	Pre_attd_kod_1
		Unappealing/appealing	Pre_attd_kod_2
		Dislikeable/likeable	Pre_attd_kod_3
		Unfavorable/favorable	Pre_attd_kod_4

Table 53: Latent variable and item codes: Pre-exposure brand image Kodak – Attitude-based perspective.

Measured variable:	Variable code	Item	Item code
Post-exposure brand image Kodak – Attitude-based perspective	Post_attd_kod	Bad/good	Post_attd_kod_1
		Unappealing/appealing	Post_attd_kod_2
		Dislikeable/likeable	Post_attd_kod_3
		Unfavorable/favorable	Post_attd_kod_4

Table 54: Latent variable and item codes: Post-exposure brand image Kodak – Attitude-based perspective.

Measured variable:	Variable code	Item	Item code
Pre-exposure brand image ESAF – Attitude-based perspective	Pre_attd_esaf	Bad/good	Pre_attd_esaf_1
		Unappealing/appealing	Pre_attd_esaf_2
		Dislikeable/likeable	Pre_attd_esaf_3
		Unfavorable/favorable	Pre_attd_esaf_4

Table 55: Latent variable and item codes: Pre-exposure brand image ESAF – Attitude-based perspective.

Measured variable:	Variable code	Item	Item code
Post-exposure brand image ESAF – Attitude-based perspective	Post_attd_esaf	Bad/good	Post_attd_esaf_1
		Unappealing/appealing	Post_attd_esaf_2
		Dislikeable/likeable	Post_attd_esaf_3
		Unfavorable/favorable	Post_attd_esaf_4

Table 56: Latent variable and item codes: Post-exposure brand image ESAF – Attitude-based perspective.

Measured variable:	Variable code	Item	Item code
Pre-exposure brand image Migros – Associative network-based perspective	Pre_pers_mig	Down to earth	Pre_pers_mig_1
		Outdoorsy	Pre_pers_mig_2
		Stable	Pre_pers_mig_3
		Responsible	Pre_pers_mig_4
		Active	Pre_pers_mig_5
		Dynamic	Pre_pers_mig_6
		Innovative	Pre_pers_mig_7
		Aggressive	Pre_pers_mig_8
		Bold	Pre_pers_mig_9
		Ordinary	Pre_pers_mig_10
		Simple	Pre_pers_mig_11
		Romantic	Pre_pers_mig_12
		Sentimental	Pre_pers_mig_13

Table 57: Latent variable and item codes: Pre-exposure brand image Migros – Associative network-based perspective.

Measured variable:	Variable code	Item	Item code
Pre-exposure brand image Kodak – Associative network-based perspective	Pre_pers_kod	Down to earth	Pre_pers_kod_1
		Outdoorsy	Pre_pers_kod_2
		Stable	Pre_pers_kod_3
		Responsible	Pre_pers_kod_4
		Active	Pre_pers_kod_5
		Dynamic	Pre_pers_kod_6
		Innovative	Pre_pers_kod_7
		Aggressive	Pre_pers_kod_8
		Bold	Pre_pers_kod_9
		Ordinary	Pre_pers_kod_10
		Simple	Pre_pers_kod_11
		Romantic	Pre_pers_kod_12
		Sentimental	Pre_pers_kod_13

Table 58: Latent variable and item codes: Pre-exposure brand image Kodak – Associative network-based perspective.

Measured variable:	Variable code	Item	Item code
Post-exposure brand image Kodak – Associative network-based perspective	Post_pers_kod	Down to earth	Post_pers_kod_1
		Outdoorsy	Post_pers_kod_2
		Stable	Post_pers_kod_3
		Responsible	Post_pers_kod_4
		Active	Post_pers_kod_5
		Dynamic	Post_pers_kod_6
		Innovative	Post_pers_kod_7
		Aggressive	Post_pers_kod_8
		Bold	Post_pers_kod_9
		Ordinary	Post_pers_kod_10
		Simple	Post_pers_kod_11
		Romantic	Post_pers_kod_12
		Sentimental	Post_pers_kod_13

Table 59: Latent variable and item codes: Post-exposure brand image Kodak – Associative network-based perspective.

Measured variable:	Variable code	Item	Item code
Pre-exposure brand image ESAF – Associative network-based perspective	Pre_pers_esaf	Down to earth	Pre_pers_esaf_1
		Outdoorsy	Pre_pers_esaf_2
		Stable	Pre_pers_esaf_3
		Responsible	Pre_pers_esaf_4
		Active	Pre_pers_esaf_5
		Dynamic	Pre_pers_esaf_6
		Innovative	Pre_pers_esaf_7
		Aggressive	Pre_pers_esaf_8
		Bold	Pre_pers_esaf_9
		Ordinary	Pre_pers_esaf_10
		Simple	Pre_pers_esaf_11
		Romantic	Pre_pers_esaf_12
		Sentimental	Pre_pers_esaf_13

Table 60: Latent variable and item codes: Pre-exposure brand image ESAF – Associative network-based perspective.

Measured variable:	Variable code	Item	Item code
Post-exposure brand image ESAF – Associative network-based perspective	Post_pers_esaf	Down to earth	Post_pers_esaf_1
		Outdoorsy	Post_pers_esaf_2
		Stable	Post_pers_esaf_3
		Responsible	Post_pers_esaf_4
		Active	Post_pers_esaf_5
		Dynamic	Post_pers_esaf_6
		Innovative	Post_pers_esaf_7
		Aggressive	Post_pers_esaf_8
		Bold	Post_pers_esaf_9
		Ordinary	Post_pers_esaf_10
		Simple	Post_pers_esaf_11
		Romantic	Post_pers_esaf_12
		Sentimental	Post_pers_esaf_13

Table 61: Latent variable and item codes: Post-exposure brand image ESAF – Associative network-based perspective.

Measured variable:	Variable code	Item	Item code
Post-exposure brand image fit between Migros and Kodak	Post_fit_mig_kod	The image of the Migros brand and the image of the Kodak brand fit together well	Post_fit_mig_kod_1
		The ideas that come to my mind when asked about the Migros brand are related to the ideas I have about the Kodak brand	Post_fit_mig_kod_2
		My associations with the Migros brand are similar to those I have with the Kodak brand	Post_fit_mig_kod_3

Table 62: Latent variable and item codes: Post-exposure brand image fit between Migros and Kodak.

Measured variable:	Variable code	Item	Item code
Post-exposure brand image fit between Migros and ESAF	Post_fit_mig_esaf	The image of the Migros brand and the image of the Schwingfest fit together well	Post_fit_mig_esaf_1
		The ideas that come to my mind when asked about the Migros brand are related to the ideas I have about the Schwingfest	Post_fit_mig_esaf_2
		My associations with the Migros brand are similar to those I have with the Schwingfest	Post_fit_mig_esaf_3

Table 63: Latent variable and item codes: Post-exposure brand image fit between Migros and ESAF.

Measured variable:	Variable code	Item	Item code
Post-exposure brand image fit between Kodak and ESAF	Post_fit_kod_esaf	The image of the Kodak brand and the image of the Schwingfest fit together well	Post_fit_kod_esaf_1
		The ideas that come to my mind when asked about the Kodak brand are related to the ideas I have about the Schwingfest	Post_fit_kod_esaf_2 (item excluded from analysis, see p.185)
		My associations with the Kodak brand are similar to those I have with the Schwingfest	Post_fit_kod_esaf_3

Table 64: Latent variable and item codes: Post-exposure brand image fit between Kodak and ESAF.

Measured variable:	Variable code	Item	Item code
Pre-exposure brand familiarity of Kodak	Pre_fam_kod	Very unfamiliar/ very familiar	Pre_fam_kod_1
		Very inexperienced/ very experienced	Pre_fam_kod_2
		Not knowledgeable at all/ very knowledgeable	Pre_fam_kod_3
		Only few associations come to my mind quickly/ Many associations come to my mind quickly	Pre_fam_kod_4

Table 65: Latent variable and item codes: Pre-exposure brand familiarity of Kodak.

Appendix K: Sample covariance matrix (1/2)

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N
A	2.95													
B	1.14	1.48												
C	1.26	1.28	1.74											
D	1.12	1.08	1.27	1.40										
E	1.26	1.15	1.41	1.26	1.78									
F	0.94	0.33	0.35	0.33	0.33	1.73								
G	1.13	0.33	0.40	0.41	0.42	1.68	2.63							
H	1.16	0.31	0.42	0.39	0.47	1.63	2.46	2.88						
I	1.77	0.93	1.05	0.93	1.12	0.84	1.13	1.20	2.77					
J	1.71	0.95	1.08	0.94	1.07	0.83	1.05	1.13	2.27	2.58				
K	1.70	0.97	1.05	0.94	1.07	0.78	0.93	0.94	1.91	1.89	2.24			
L	2.32	0.94	1.07	1.03	1.20	0.93	1.50	1.73	1.92	1.80	1.61	3.04		
M	0.25	0.19	0.20	0.15	0.15	0.42	0.44	0.40	0.26	0.26	0.26	0.24	0.74	
N	0.28	0.18	0.23	0.17	0.21	0.44	0.44	0.40	0.29	0.25	0.29	0.26	0.66	0.88
O	0.22	0.19	0.20	0.18	0.18	0.50	0.54	0.54	0.33	0.32	0.29	0.26	0.70	0.79
P	0.37	0.24	0.26	0.20	0.29	0.44	0.47	0.49	0.41	0.39	0.41	0.41	0.63	0.77
Q	0.79	0.42	0.48	0.46	0.48	0.61	0.83	0.83	0.54	0.47	0.53	0.73	0.15	0.17
R	0.94	0.46	0.61	0.56	0.60	0.73	1.06	1.09	0.66	0.59	0.68	0.97	0.18	0.21
S	0.71	0.37	0.47	0.46	0.47	0.64	0.84	0.89	0.44	0.40	0.47	0.73	0.12	0.14
T	0.95	0.45	0.55	0.53	0.65	0.69	1.00	1.03	0.71	0.63	0.68	1.02	0.12	0.15
U	0.65	0.78	0.86	0.72	0.77	0.16	0.18	0.15	0.61	0.56	0.56	0.55	0.12	0.12
V	0.72	0.78	0.97	0.79	0.87	0.16	0.21	0.21	0.62	0.59	0.64	0.64	0.12	0.14
W	0.74	0.70	0.84	0.77	0.79	0.18	0.22	0.25	0.60	0.55	0.57	0.61	0.13	0.17
X	0.79	0.75	0.92	0.79	0.93	0.12	0.20	0.21	0.67	0.62	0.62	0.71	0.11	0.15
Y	0.55	0.31	0.36	0.29	0.35	0.41	0.61	0.64	0.33	0.30	0.35	0.58	0.15	0.15
Z	0.74	0.31	0.43	0.35	0.45	0.53	0.81	0.83	0.47	0.40	0.49	0.81	0.21	0.21
AA	0.52	0.20	0.28	0.28	0.29	0.49	0.73	0.73	0.36	0.31	0.37	0.56	0.10	0.13
AB	0.81	0.30	0.41	0.37	0.44	0.53	0.83	0.89	0.55	0.48	0.55	0.86	0.15	0.20

Appendix L: Detailed results of SR model estimation

Hypothesis H1_a

Construct:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Brand attitude	0.164	.045	3.655	< .001	.101

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 67: Parameter estimate of path *Pre_attd_mig* → *Post_attd_kod* (H1_a).

Hypothesis H2_a

Construct:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Brand attitude	0.064	.046	1.385	.166	.035

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 68: Parameter estimate of path *Pre_attd_mig* → *Post_attd_esaf* (H2_a).

Hypothesis H3_a

Construct:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Brand attitude	0.550	.034	16.216	< .001	.573

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 69: Parameter estimate of path *Pre_attd_kod* → *Post_attd_kod* (H3_a).

Hypothesis H4_a

Construct:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Brand attitude	0.105	.027	3.920	< .001	.097

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 70: Parameter estimate of path *Pre_attd_kod* → *Post_attd_esaf* (H4_a).

Hypothesis H5_a

Construct:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Brand attitude	0.181	.028	6.370	< .001	.205

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 71: Parameter estimate of path *Post_attd_esaf* → *Post_attd_kod* (H5_a).

Hypothesis H6_a

Construct:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Brand attitude	0.719	.027	26.761	<.001	.737

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 72: Parameter estimate of path Pre_attd_esaf → Post_attd_esaf (H6_a).

Hypothesis H7_{i-a}

Construct:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Brand attitude	0.106	.032	3.285	.001	.180

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 73: Parameter estimate of path Post_fit_kod_esaf → Post_attd_kod (H7_{i-a}).

Hypothesis H7_{ii-a}

Construct:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Brand attitude	-0.040	.026	-1.513	.130	-.059

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 74: Parameter estimate of path Post_fit_kod_esaf → Post_attd_esaf (H7_{ii-a}).

Hypothesis H7_{iii-a}

Construct:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Brand attitude	0.056	.038	1.483	.138	.078

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 75: Parameter estimate of path Post_fit_mig_kod → Post_attd_kod (H7_{iii-a}).

Hypothesis H7_{iv-a}

Construct:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Brand attitude	0.245	.039	6.211	<.001	.238

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 76: Parameter estimate of path Post_fit_mig_esaf → Post_attd_esaf (H7_{iv-a}).

Hypothesis H7_{v-a}

Construct:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Brand attitude	Hypothesis rejected preliminary during model estimation and respecification procedure (see p.187f.)				

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 77: Parameter estimate of path Post_fit_mig_kod → Post_attd_esaf (H7_{v-a}).

Appendix M: Detailed results of PA model estimations

Hypothesis H1_b

Item:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Down to earth	0.091	0.054	1.671	.095	.065
Outdoorsy	0.160	0.050	3.181	.001	.118
Stable	0.065	0.041	1.582	.114	.057
Responsible	0.110	0.044	2.506	.012	.093
Active	0.168	0.046	3.666	< .001	.153
Dynamic	0.128	0.041	3.114	.002	.111
Innovative	0.088	0.047	1.880	.060	.070
Aggressive	0.143	0.033	4.372	< .001	.155
Bold	0.147	0.035	4.148	< .001	.145
Ordinary	0.125	0.035	3.555	< .001	.133
Simple	0.144	0.041	3.540	< .001	.146
Romantic	0.186	0.042	4.429	< .001	.181
Sentimental	0.051	0.041	1.253	.210	.052

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 78: Parameter estimates of path *Pre_pers_mig* → *Post_pers_kod* (H1_b).

Hypothesis H2_b

Item:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Down to earth	0.025	0.013	1.987	.047	.069
Outdoorsy	0.050	0.023	2.158	.031	.085
Stable	0.054	0.040	1.371	.170	.050
Responsible	0.041	0.040	1.025	.306	.038
Active	0.057	0.035	1.626	.104	.068
Dynamic	0.043	0.039	1.099	.272	.040
Innovative	0.038	0.041	0.914	.361	.026
Aggressive	0.014	0.038	0.375	.708	.015
Bold	0.029	0.044	0.655	.512	.026
Ordinary	0.120	0.043	2.762	.006	.113
Simple	0.146	0.046	3.205	.001	.132
Romantic	0.119	0.046	2.596	.009	.106
Sentimental	0.212	0.041	5.233	< .001	.204

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 79: Parameter estimates of path *Pre_pers_mig* → *Post_pers_esaf* (H2_b).

Hypothesis H3_b

Item:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Down to earth	0.513	0.037	13.793	< .001	.519
Outdoorsy	0.563	0.036	15.781	< .001	.545
Stable	0.410	0.041	9.959	< .001	.428
Responsible	0.408	0.038	10.819	< .001	.436
Active	0.452	0.039	11.729	< .001	.468
Dynamic	0.506	0.036	14.157	< .001	.532
Innovative	0.544	0.035	15.506	< .001	.564
Aggressive	0.481	0.037	12.862	< .001	.475
Bold	0.437	0.040	10.827	< .001	.430
Ordinary	0.306	0.039	7.791	< .001	.311
Simple	0.311	0.042	7.424	< .001	.316
Romantic	0.433	0.044	9.915	< .001	.411
Sentimental	0.457	0.045	10.247	< .001	.448

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 80: Parameter estimates of path *Pre_pers_kod* → *Post_pers_kod* (H3_b).

Hypothesis H4_b

Item:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Down to earth	-0.004	0.008	-0.430	.667	-.014
Outdoorsy	0.025	0.015	1.689	.091	.055
Stable	0.057	0.032	1.755	.079	.062
Responsible	0.132	0.030	4.379	< .001	.152
Active	0.079	0.025	3.146	.002	.106
Dynamic	0.083	0.034	2.463	.014	.093
Innovative	0.068	0.031	2.162	.031	.061
Aggressive	0.103	0.038	2.737	.006	.097
Bold	0.124	0.042	2.960	.003	.109
Ordinary	0.064	0.044	1.473	.141	.057
Simple	0.139	0.046	3.027	.002	.126
Romantic	0.079	0.049	1.605	.108	.069
Sentimental	0.054	0.046	1.165	.244	.049

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 81: Parameter estimates of path *Pre_pers_kod* → *Post_pers_esaf* (H4_b).

Hypothesis H5_b

Item:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Down to earth	0.148	0.106	1.400	.162	.039
Outdoorsy	0.165	0.070	2.352	.019	.071
Stable	0.208	0.041	5.140	< .001	.200
Responsible	0.258	0.037	6.949	< .001	.240
Active	0.190	0.047	4.069	< .001	.145
Dynamic	0.160	0.035	4.529	< .001	.150
Innovative	0.122	0.030	4.064	< .001	.142
Aggressive	0.158	0.030	5.240	< .001	.166
Bold	0.217	0.032	6.862	< .001	.243
Ordinary	0.237	0.035	6.802	< .001	.269
Simple	0.155	0.037	4.151	< .001	.174
Romantic	0.228	0.036	6.291	< .001	.249
Sentimental	0.251	0.038	6.662	< .001	.268

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 82: Parameter estimates of path *Post_pers_esaf* → *Post_pers_kod* (H5_b).

Hypothesis H6_b

Item:	β	SE	t	p-value	b
Down to earth	0.452	0.074	6.112	< .001	.440
Outdoorsy	0.452	0.042	10.730	< .001	.514
Stable	0.517	0.034	15.253	< .001	.566
Responsible	0.500	0.033	14.962	< .001	.550
Active	0.522	0.042	12.359	< .001	.527
Dynamic	0.559	0.036	15.705	< .001	.589
Innovative	0.706	0.027	26.223	< .001	.719
Aggressive	0.503	0.035	14.361	< .001	.551
Bold	0.510	0.035	14.452	< .001	.541
Ordinary	0.427	0.039	11.019	< .001	.431
Simple	0.362	0.042	8.649	< .001	.373
Romantic	0.577	0.038	15.192	< .001	.575
Sentimental	0.515	0.042	12.297	< .001	.506

Note: Boldface p-values indicate significance level < .05.

Table 83: Parameter estimates of path *Pre_pers_esaf* → *Post_pers_esaf* (H6_b).

Appendix N: Result on moderating effects of focal sponsor brand familiarity

Hypothesis H9_{i-a}

Construct:	High familiarity		Low familiarity		Multigroup invariance test			Mod ¹
	β	<i>p</i>	β	<i>p</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>	
Brand attitude	0.788	<.001	0.633	<.001	36.499	27	.105	☒

Note 1: Separation into High familiarity versus Low familiarity groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface *p*-values indicate significance level < .05.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$: ☒

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} < \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$: ☒

Table 84: Results on moderating effect of Kodak brand familiarity on path *Pre_attd_kod* → *Post_attd_kod* (H9_{i-a}).

Hypothesis H9_{i-b}

Item:	High familiarity		Low familiarity		Multigroup invariance test			Mod ¹
	β	<i>p</i>	β	<i>p</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>	
Down to earth	0.476	<.001	0.556	<.001	1.018	1	.313	☒
Outdoorsy	0.573	<.001	0.511	<.001	0.730	1	.393	☒
Stable	0.427	<.001	0.378	<.001	0.355	1	.551	☒
Responsible	0.415	<.001	0.405	<.001	0.015	1	.902	☒
Active	0.528	<.001	0.384	<.001	3.608	1	.058	☒
Dynamic	0.570	<.001	0.429	<.001	3.728	1	.054	☒
Innovative	0.584	<.001	0.560	<.001	0.124	1	.725	☒
Aggressive	0.409	<.001	0.524	<.001	2.257	1	.133	☒
Bold	0.402	<.001	0.430	<.001	0.126	1	.723	☒
Ordinary	0.361	<.001	0.255	<.001	1.757	1	.185	☒
Simple	0.290	<.001	0.334	<.001	0.280	1	.597	☒
Romantic	0.410	<.001	0.442	<.001	0.119	1	.730	☒
Sentimental	0.422	<.001	0.488	<.001	0.515	1	.473	☒

Note 1: Separation into High familiarity versus Low familiarity groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface *p*-values indicate significance level < .05.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$: ☒

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} < \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$: ☒

Table 85: Results on moderating effect of Kodak brand familiarity on path *Pre_pers_kod* → *Post_pers_kod* (H9_{i-b}).

Hypothesis H9_{ii-a}

Construct:	High familiarity		Low familiarity		Multigroup invariance test			Mod ¹
	β	<i>p</i>	β	<i>p</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>	
Brand attitude	0.069	.250	0.081	.100	36.119	27	.113	☒

Note 1: Separation into High familiarity versus Low familiarity groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface *p*-values indicate significance level < .05.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$: ☒

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} < \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$: ☒

Table 86: Results on moderating effect of Kodak brand familiarity on path *Pre_attd_kod* → *Post_attd_esaf* (H9_{ii-a}).

Hypothesis H9_{ii-b}

Item:	High familiarity		Low familiarity		Multigroup invariance test			Mod ¹
	β	<i>p</i>	β	<i>p</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>	
Down to earth	-0.003	.795	-0.008	.531	0.109	1	.742	☒
Outdoorsy	0.017	.386	0.040	.059	0.647	1	.421	☒
Stable	0.030	.540	0.064	.167	0.256	1	.613	☒
Responsible	0.116	.018	0.141	<.001	0.151	1	.698	☒
Active	0.096	.009	0.050	.161	0.819	1	.365	☒
Dynamic	0.135	.014	0.022	.594	2.670	1	.102	☒
Innovative	0.075	.121	0.025	.562	0.603	1	.437	☒
Aggressive	0.169	.005	0.035	.468	2.923	1	.087	☒
Bold	0.173	.006	0.079	.187	1.192	1	.275	☒
Ordinary	0.081	.215	0.035	.538	0.275	1	.600	☒
Simple	0.195	.005	0.056	.297	2.459	1	.117	☒
Romantic	0.161	.032	-0.001	.994	2.541	1	.111	☒
Sentimental	0.049	.423	0.047	.473	0.001	1	.980	☒

Note 1: Separation into High familiarity versus Low familiarity groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface *p*-values indicate significance level < .05.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$: ☒

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} < \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$: ☒

Table 87: Results on moderating effect of Kodak brand familiarity on path *Pre_pers_kod* → *Post_pers_esaf* (H9_{ii-b}).

Hypothesis H9_{iii-a}

Construct:	High familiarity		Low familiarity		Multigroup invariance test			Mod ¹
	β	<i>p</i>	β	<i>p</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>	
Brand attitude	0.163	.008	0.079	.211	37.038	27	.094	☒

Note 1: Separation into High familiarity versus Low familiarity groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface *p*-values indicate significance level < .05.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$: ☒

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} < \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$: ☒

Table 88: Results on moderating effect of Kodak brand familiarity on path *Pre_att_mig* → *Post_att_kod* (H9_{iii-a}).

Hypothesis H9_{iii-b}

Item:	High familiarity		Low familiarity		Multigroup invariance test			Mod ¹
	β	<i>p</i>	β	<i>p</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>	
Down to earth	0.080	.409	0.114	.069	0.085	1	.771	☒
Outdoorsy	0.195	.010	0.121	.063	0.543	1	.461	☒
Stable	0.086	.158	0.041	.449	0.304	1	.581	☒
Responsible	0.116	.060	0.107	.095	0.009	1	.923	☒
Active	0.196	.002	0.104	.085	1.057	1	.304	☒
Dynamic	0.113	.043	0.122	.038	0.012	1	.914	☒
Innovative	0.047	.524	0.071	.228	0.063	1	.802	☒
Aggressive	0.189	<.001	0.118	.007	1.124	1	.289	☒
Bold	0.244	<.001	0.069	.134	6.439	1	.011	☒
Ordinary	0.079	.122	0.160	.001	1.288	1	.256	☒
Simple	0.173	.003	0.103	.076	0.722	1	.396	☒
Romantic	0.256	<.001	0.111	.061	2.530	1	.112	☒
Sentimental	0.112	.033	-0.037	.553	3.068	1	.080	☒

Note 1: Separation into High familiarity versus Low familiarity groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface *p*-values indicate significance level < .05.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$: ☒

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} < \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$: ☒

Table 89: Results on moderating effect of Kodak brand familiarity on path *Pre_pers_mig* → *Post_pers_kod* (H9_{iii-b}).

Hypothesis H9_{iv-a}

Construct:	High familiarity		Low familiarity		Multigroup invariance test			Mod ¹
	β	<i>p</i>	β	<i>p</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>	
Brand attitude	0.203	<.001	0.109	.048	38.395	27	.072	☒

Note 1: Separation into High familiarity versus Low familiarity groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface *p*-values indicate significance level < .05.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$: ☒

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} < \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$: ☒

Table 90: Results on moderating effect of Kodak brand familiarity on path Post_attd_esaf → Post_attd_kod (H9_{iv-a}).

Hypothesis H9_{iv-b}

Item:	High familiarity		Low familiarity		Multigroup invariance test			Mod ¹
	β	<i>p</i>	β	<i>p</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>	
Down to earth	0.364	.056	0.003	.977	2.442	1	.118	☒
Outdoorsy	0.246	.020	0.114	.223	0.827	1	.363	☒
Stable	0.234	<.001	0.187	<.001	0.335	1	.563	☒
Responsible	0.303	<.001	0.223	<.001	1.155	1	.282	☒
Active	0.224	<.001	0.157	.019	0.502	1	.479	☒
Dynamic	0.161	<.001	0.155	.005	0.009	1	.925	☒
Innovative	0.132	.004	0.103	.027	0.199	1	.656	☒
Aggressive	0.242	<.001	0.091	.035	6.276	1	.012	☒
Bold	0.268	<.001	0.159	<.001	2.994	1	.084	☒
Ordinary	0.235	<.001	0.243	<.001	0.012	1	.912	☒
Simple	0.204	<.001	0.120	.024	1.279	1	.258	☒
Romantic	0.235	<.001	0.232	<.001	0.001	1	.976	☒
Sentimental	0.341	<.001	0.167	.002	4.694	1	.030	☒

Note 1: Separation into High familiarity versus Low familiarity groups according to median split

Note 2: Larger β value highlighted by gray shading

Note 3: Boldface *p*-values indicate significance level < .05.

¹ Moderation effect fully supported with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ positive and significant at level $p < .05$: ☒

Moderation effect not supported with either $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} > \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$ and $\Delta\chi^2$ not significant at level $p < .05$ or with $\beta_{\text{High image fit}} < \beta_{\text{Low image fit}}$: ☒

Table 91: Results on moderating effect of Kodak brand familiarity on path Post_pers_esaf → Post_pers_kod (H9_{iv-b}).