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Sponsorship Effects on Music Festival Participants

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Abstract

While worldwide investments in sole sponsorship fees were expected to reach $53.3 billion in 2013, findings from the academic research on sponsorships' ability to impact customers' perception of a sponsor are inconsistent; ranging from positive, small or ambiguous effects to negative or no effects at all.

Thus, the objective of the current research was to contribute by researching if participation in a music festival, NorthSide 2013, would influence festival participants' perception of the main sponsor Royal Beer.

To do so, the chosen research design was a pre-post event quasi experimental design with independent samples. It was crucial to have both pre and post event measurements of event participants to investigate a potential change. Moreover, the quasi-experimental strategy was deemed relevant since it features the use of a control group to identify the source of an effect.

Identified as one of the reasons for the inconsistent academic findings, the aim was to avoid conscious processing of the respondents by eliciting sponsorships or the two entities together, so that answers collected would account for the effects rather than respondents' opinions about how this sponsorship affected them.

In pursuance of this research several practical steps have been undertaken: a thorough literature review, a face-to-face interview of the Royal Beer brand manager, creation of a beer brand personality scale fitted to the Danish setting, a focus group to translate the brand personality facets and most importantly; the design and data collection of three distinct questionnaires that resulted in a total of 950 valid responses.

As a result of the analysis, while participation in NorthSide 2013 very significantly increased recognition of Royal Beer as the event's sponsor, it did not have any significant effect on event participants' brand recall, brand personality and brand attitude of Royal Beer. However, additional findings lead to the assumption that overall sponsorship stimuli, where event participation's share is unknown, might have a significant effect on brand personality and brand attitude.

From a theoretical perspective, these findings support the absence of significant sponsorship effects, in this instance of event participation effects, on selected key consumer-related objectives for the sponsor.

From a corporate standpoint, since Royal Beer actually used considerable on-site activation to leverage its NorthSide sponsorship, it leads to question the effectiveness of event sponsorships beyond immediate on-site sales effect. It would be relevant for event sponsors to systematically research the return on investment of their sponsorships.

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1. Introduction

1.1. Research Topic

Topic of this thesis is sponsorship which refers to the provision of resources by an entity to another in exchange for a direct association (Myung-Soo Lee, Sandler, & Shani, 1997). Objects of sponsorships are multiple and can range from a sport team to a television program or a charity event. In an attempt to give an account of the split, in 2012 in North America, 69% of the sponsorship expenditure went into sports, 10% was allocated to entertainments, 9% to causes, 5% to arts, 4% to festivals, fairs and events and lastly 3% to associations and membership organizations (IEG, 2013a). Therefore, sports is undoubtedly the object receiving the most sponsorship investments - at least in North America - while festivals, fairs and events where music festivals belong can be considered more of a "niche" object of sponsorship.

Sponsorship is a worldwide growing phenomenon. While back in 1996 worldwide sponsorships expenditures amounted to $13.4 billion (Mao & Zhang, 2013), they were expected to reach $53.3 billion in 2013 (IEG, 2013a). Despite this 400% growth over 17 years being primarily justified by a fast development in the late 1990's early 2000's, worldwide sponsorship expenditures have still kept increasing by a steady 5% yearly average over the last 4 years (IEG, 2013a). Yet, due to cultural and economic disparities there are differences in the investment level in sponsorships per region. In 2012, 37% of sponsorship expenditures were made in North America ($18.9 billion), 28% in Europe ($14.1 billion), 23% in Asia Pacific ($12 billion) and 8% in Central or South America ($3.9 billion) (IEG, 2013a).

Furthermore, companies' appetite for sponsorship investment is larger than for other traditional marketing communication supports. Taking North America as an example, sponsorship expenditures were forecasted to grow by 5.5% in 2013 in comparison to 2.6% for advertising expenditures (e.g. TVC's, radio, Internet) and 3% for sales promotion (e.g. direct marketing, sampling events) (IEG, 2013a). Companies' interest in sponsorships is also shown with the following all-time high figure: in 2012, 93 American companies spent more than $15 million in sponsorships targeted at the North American population (IEG, 2013b).

It becomes evident to question the reason behind companies' growing interest in sponsorships. Several arguments advanced by scholars are the opportunity for sponsors to reach a particular population segment (T. B. Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; T. B. Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005; Gardner & Shuman, 1987; T. Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999) and force trial (Jalleh, Donovan, Giles-Corti, & Holman, 2002), the opportunity to get involved with an entity valued by their target customer (Crimmins & Horn, 1996; Grohs, Wagner, & Vsetecka, 2004; Mao

& Zhang, 2013; T. Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999) or a way to establish "financial power" or "international status" (McDonald, 1991). However, the most accurate answer to this question - often induced in the above elements - is sponsorships' supposed ability to impact customers' brand awareness, brand image, brand attitude and other customer-oriented objectives (Crimmins & Horn, 1996; Gi-Yong Koo, Quarterman, & Flynn, 2006; Grohs et al., 2004; K. Gwinner, 1997; Javalgi, Traylor, Gross, & Lampman, 1994; McDaniel, 1999; P. Quester & Farrelly, 1998; Rowley & Williams, 2008; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Zdravkovic, Magnusson, & Stanley, 2010).

1.2. Problem Formulation

Despite the supposed efficiency attributed to sponsorships in achieving consumer-related objectives for the sponsors, such benefits have rarely been proven with consistency, raising marketing practitioners and researchers' doubts (T. B. Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; K. Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Harvey, 2001; Mao & Zhang, 2013; T. Meenaghan & O' Sullivan, 2001).

On the one hand, sponsoring companies do not systematically investigate effects of their sponsorships on consumers (Grohs et al., 2004; McDonald, 1991). McDonald (1991) advocates that companies would actually rather spend money in additional advertising to leverage the sponsorship than invest in a research to track the outcomes of the sponsorship. Moreover when they do, it appears that the majority of the companies use media exposure and direct exposure indicators (Grohs et al., 2004) which are inappropriate tools to track effects since they do not provide any insight about the actual impact on consumers (T. B. Cornwell & Maignan, 1998). In that regard, the Royal Beer management team only monitors one outcome: sales at the sponsored music festival venue, based on the belief that any effect on consumers would prove difficult to quantify (see appendices section 1).

On the other hand, academia fails to provide a clear and consistent answer to what effects sponsorships have on consumers. In their literature review Cornwell & Maignan (1998) argue that empirical studies resulted in "small or ambiguous effects", while for Gwinner & Swanson (2003) these are "unknown" and it still seems to be the case nowadays. For instance, while positive effects can often be found but with different valence and strength, Jalleh, Donovan, Giles-Corti, & Holman (2002), using a yet quite thorough research design, did not encounter effect for commercial sponsors on brand image and attitude. Moreover, others found that sponsorships could be harmful to sponsors (Javalgi et al., 1994; McDonald, 1991).

To begin with the reasons of this inconsistency, most research on sponsorship effects takes place in a sport specific sponsorship context leaving other objects of sponsorships, such as a cause or music festivals, with potential generalization issues (Abreu Novais & Arcodia, 2013; Olson, 2010; Rowley & Williams, 2008). Even if one was to assume the generalization valid, as suggested by (Olson, 2010), findings from the sponsorship effects literature are often inconsistent and sometimes contradictory which can be explained by several methodological limitations. First, there is a lack of empirical studies taking place in real-life settings (Javalgi et al., 1994; Myung-Soo Lee et al., 1997; Olson, 2010) which seems critical when it comes to an experience-influenced topic such as sponsorships. Furthermore, when studies focus on a real-life object (e.g. 2012 Summer Olympics), researchers have difficulties to identify with certainty the sponsorship arrangement as the source of the observed effects and isolate it from other extraneous variables (T. B. Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Grohs et al., 2004; Lardinoit & Quester, 2001; Sneath, Finney, & Close, 2005). Lastly, numerous researchers draw conclusions on sponsorship effects following a conscious processing of the respondents where they elicit the research topic (e.g. "Do you hold a better attitude towards Coca Cola now that it sponsors this event?") (Alexandris, Tsaousi, & James, 2007; Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012; D'Astous & Bitz, 1995; Madrigal, 2000; Mao & Zhang, 2013; Sneath et al., 2005; Speed & Thompson, 2000). Pointed out as a limitation by Cornwell, Weeks & Roy (2005), present authors also argue that respondents' belief about how a certain sponsorship affected them will not produce exploitable and unbiased data.

The above stated limitations are introduced in-depth in the literature review of this thesis.

1.3. Research Question

In the light of these various methodological limitations and doubts about the actual effects sponsorships can have on consumers, present authors will attempt to contribute to the field of research by researching potential sponsorship effects of Royal Beer's (Denmark's 3rd beer brand) sponsorship of NorthSide 2013 (music festival in Aarhus). Hence, the following research question is formulated:

> What effect does participation in NorthSide 2013 have on "typical" festival participants' brand awareness, brand personality, brand attitude and purchase intention of the sponsor Royal Beer?

The research question can then be decomposed into the following 4 sub-questions:

- Sub-question 1: What effect does participation in NorthSide 2013 have on "typical" festival participants' brand awareness about Royal Beer?
- Sub-question 2: What effect does participation in NorthSide 2013 have on "typical" NorthSide participants' perception of Royal Beer's brand personality and can a potential effect be explained by a brand personality transfer from NorthSide to Royal Beer?
- Sub-question 3: What effect does participation in NorthSide 2013 have on "typical" NorthSide participants' brand attitude towards Royal Beer?
- Sub-question 4: What effect does participation in NorthSide 2013 have on "typical" NorthSide participants' purchase intention of the Royal Beer brand?

In this research question and sub-questions, the unit of analysis "typical NorthSide participants" refers to men or women living in Aarhus with an age comprised between 18 and 35 years old and is explained and justified in section 5.1.3.1. Moreover, the variables under scrutiny are the most commonly researched variables in the sponsorship effects literature, namely: brand awareness, brand attitude and purchase intention as well as a novel topic: brand personality. Further details about these topics will be given in the literature review.

This research is both of a descriptive and explanatory nature. Descriptive first, since present authors want to uncover the outcomes, if any, of this sponsorship for the sponsor which is a "factive reality" (Arbnor & Bjerke, 2009). Furthermore, it is also partly explanatory since present authors aim at establishing a causal link between some potential effects observed on Royal Beer and the participation in NorthSide (Maxwell & Mittapalli, 2008).

1.4. Purpose and Academic Relevance

The purpose and main relevance of this thesis is to provide an element of response to the following identified gap in the sponsorship literature: the lack of certainty about the effects of sponsorship on consumers' perception of a sponsor. In pursuance of this objective, present authors plan to rely on a real-life sponsorship case - a music festival sponsored by a beer brand - and a fitted research design to state whether sponsorship has an effect on brand awareness, brand personality, brand attitude and purchase intention on festival participants of this case.

Moreover, this thesis has additional degrees of relevance. First of all, this thesis is a new contribution to the "scant" domain of art/festival sponsorships (Rowley & Williams, 2008). Besides it is, to the present author knowledge, the first study about the specific sponsorship case of a beer brand sponsoring a music festival - a yet widespread arrangement. Also to the present authors' knowledge, this thesis is the first research investigating sponsorship effects on brand personality and a potential brand personality transfer from the sponsored identity to the sponsor (more details about this choice in the literature review). Lastly, if the proposed research design proves to be internally and externally valid it could be a great contribution to the field of research which lacks a clear method to measuring sponsorship effectiveness (Dolphin, 2003; Javalgi et al., 1994) which is the key to findings consistency.

1.5. Problem Owners

The main problem owner of this research is the Royal Beer management team. Indeed, Royal Beer pursues an extensive sponsorship strategy where NorthSide is one out of many but do not track the effects of their sponsorships on festival participants (more details about Royal Beer's strategy and practices in the case introduction). Hence if valid, the findings of this research could bring the Royal Beer management valuable insights about the marketing relevance of this specific sponsorship and to a larger extent, of their sponsorship strategy.

Findings of this research are also of interest for the NorthSide management team who, thanks to this thesis, will get an opportunity to assess the attractiveness of their sponsorship offer. Hence, NorthSide's future bargaining power in sponsorship contracts negotiation could be increased.

Thereby potential problem owners of this thesis are the other beverage companies involved or interested in music festival sponsorships. Not only is this sponsorship arrangement type widespread but beverage companies are also big spenders when it comes to sponsorships. As an example, the three biggest spenders in sponsorship fees for the North American market in 2012 were beverage companies: PepsiCo (app. $330 million), The Coca Cola Co. (app. $275M million) and Anheuser-Busch InBev (app. $235 million) (IEG, 2013b).

1.6. Scope and Delimitations

This thesis focuses on measurement of sponsorship effects, only one of the five sponsorship research streams identified by Rowley & Williams (2008); the other being: nature of sponsorship, managerial aspect of sponsorship, strategic use of sponsorship, legal and ethical considerations in sponsorship. Even then, present authors chose to solely investigate the effects on festival participants' perception of the sponsor, not of the sponsored entity.

Then, academics have highlighted the existence of potential antecedents to sponsorship effects that are beyond the scope of this research: sponsor familiarity (Carrillat, Lafferty, & Harris, 2005), event involvement (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012), goodwill (Rifon, Choi, Trimble, & Li, 2004), congruence (Zdravkovic et al., 2010) and sponsors' various managerial choices (Sneath et al., 2005). To the present authors' opinion, not only is it very challenging to investigate the effects of these antecedents in the given time frame, it is also premature. Indeed as stated earlier there is a legitimate concern from both the academia and the practitioners about sponsorship effectiveness. Hence present authors will attempt to provide an answer to this issue by researching the effects in order to maybe, set the ground for other researchers to accurately research the antecedents of these effects. However, since present authors are aware that antecedents might have an impact on the outcomes of this research, they will be introduced in the literature review and acknowledged.

In a similar fashion, it was deemed premature to research the process of how the sponsorship effects actually occur - again, focus was on stating whether or not such sponsorship effects exist before undertaking any further research on the topic.

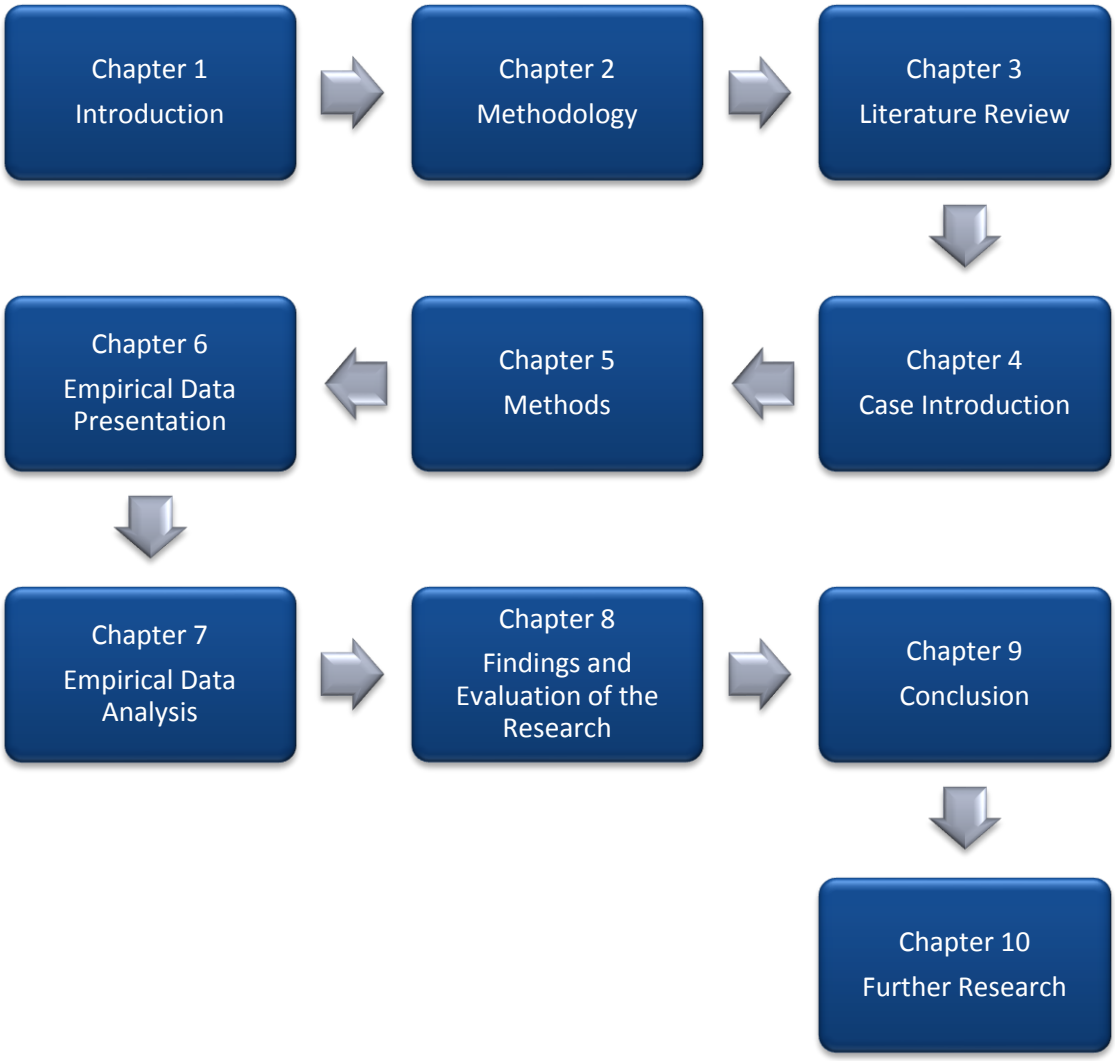
Moreover, not all potential sponsorship effects topics are the objects of this research since it would have increased the length of the questionnaires, which in turn, could have resulted in respondents' loss of attention and invalid outcomes. Thus, only brand awareness, brand personality, brand attitude and purchase intention of the sponsor are under scrutiny. However, present authors believe these topics still give an accurate picture of overall potential effects on consumers since they represent 4 distinct stages in a brand-consumer relationship: knowledge of (awareness), brand associations (brand personality), opinion (brand attitude) and intention (purchase intention).

Finally, findings from this thesis should be directly generalizable to NorthSide's typical participant and to a larger extent to all NorthSide participants. Present authors do believe that the findings could be generalized to

other beer brands sponsoring a similar music festival in Denmark. However, it remains an assumption since no replication study could be undertaken within the time given.

1.7. Thesis Structure

- **Composition of the Thesis**



Chapter 1 that the reader is about to leave have provided the setting for the thesis, mainly with the formulation of the overall research question and its five sub-questions. Chapter 2 introduces the overall research methodology including research philosophy and approach. The current authors reveal their positivistic

beliefs. These beliefs are then reflected upon the literature review in chapter 3, where they set out to explore the subjects of sponsorship, sponsorship effects and antecedents of sponsorship effects in an effort to reveal gaps in the sponsorship effects' literature. From these gaps in the review, 5 hypotheses are formulated. Chapter 4 introduces the cases on which these hypotheses are to be tested and in chapter 5 the researchers will explain the methods they find appropriate in order to test their hypotheses. In chapter 6 the thesis moves into the more practical setting with a presentation, testing and transformation of the empirical data, before the grand finale in chapter 7, where the 5 hypotheses are tested with fitting statistical analysis tools upon the data collected. The findings are introduced and reflected upon in chapter 8. Chapter 9 sums up the whole thesis, so that the reader might feel tempted to investigate the same research topic without limitations or perhaps the authors' suggested further research found in chapter 10.

1.7.1. Verification for the Reader

The current authors suggest that the reader, at least for the chapters 6 and 7, follow the statistical SPSS output from the sections 7, 8 and 9 in the appendices in order to verify the findings. The accompanying CD contains: sound recordings from the interview with the Royal Beer brand manager; sound recordings of the focus group interview; and the raw excel data files extracted from SurveyXact.

2. Methodology

In order to elaborate on the most logic and fitted research design, present authors have relied on Saunders, Lewis, & Thornwill's research "onion" framework (2012). Below is a graphic representation of this framework fitted to this thesis' research process.

To the present authors' opinion, the onion analogy of a research design is accurate in the sense that each layer represents an important methodological choice to be made and where an outer layer (initial decision taken) would always influence its inner layers (subsequent decisions taken). Therefore, both the methodology section and the method section of this thesis will be structured following the logical order of this framework.

In this section, the first two outer layers will be introduced: the research philosophy (positivism) and the research approach (deductive). For further explanations about the methods chosen, readers are invited to go to section 5 as detailed in the structure of the paper section.

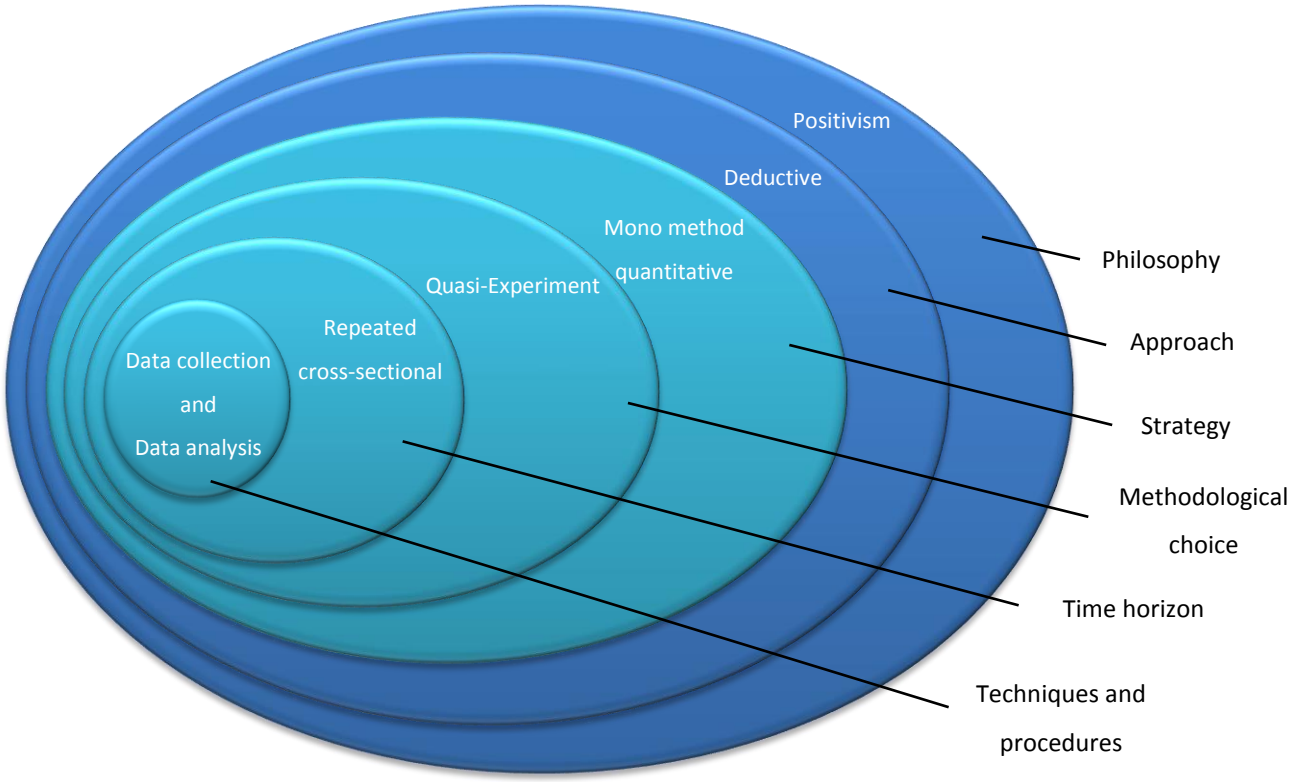


Figure 1: Adapted version of Saunders, Lewis, & Thornwill's research "onion" framework (2012).

2.1. Research Philosophy

It is important for the present authors to explain their research philosophy, so that readers can understand the logic behind the various methodological choices made in this thesis. A research philosophy is concerned with ontology: "*the nature of reality*" and "*the way the world operates*" and epistemology: "*what is considered acceptable knowledge*" (Saunders et al., 2012). As this thesis aims at creating knowledge, it becomes evident to expose present authors' view on what can be considered knowledge and how can it be developed.

This thesis is written in the light of positivism. Stemming from natural sciences, this research philosophy "*emphasizes the importance of observation for the growth of knowledge and thus considers the measurement of phenomena as central to the development of understanding*." (Fox, 2008a, p.660) Positivists rely on quantifiable fact-based data that can be tested statistically and reject soft or rich data types as unscientific sources of knowledge (J. Brewer, 2003c). Hence a typical positivist paper would statistically analyse relationships in the data (Paley, 2008), use criteria such as "*internal and external validity, reliability, and objectivity*" (Bhattacharya, 2008, p. 466) to assess the acceptability of the findings and test for generalization (Paley, 2008). It would also follow a structured methodology that can be replicated (Saunders et al., 2012). Present authors agree with the above stated assumptions as the only scientific way to create and develop academic knowledge that can be used and applied beyond a specific context. While they are interested in uncovering a potential effect on consumers' opinion, attitude towards a brand - which could be assimilated as soft data if gathered through subjectivist lenses - they would do so in the only acceptable manner from a positivist standpoint: by operationalizing these opinions so that they can be quantified.

Positivist research is "*undertaken in a value-free way*" (Saunders et al., 2012, p.135). Indeed, the assumption is that researchers are independent from the data collected and that their values will not alter their research, the quality and meaning of the data and therefore the conclusions. Such stance is, to the present authors' opinion, slightly controversial. As pointed out by Saunders, Lewis & Thornwill (2012), the sole fact of choosing a topic of interest to research and defining research objectives involve some values. Yet again, present authors lean towards this positivist stand on values from a perspective on how to conduct research. They believe data and values can be separated in the data collection and data analysis process.

However, present authors insist on their non-Manichean view on research philosophies and believe relevant precepts can be found in each of them and that a research would gain from understanding other philosophies' logic. For instance, post-positivism advocates that research should be taken from subjects' perspective since they are actors, contributors of the reality (Fox, 2008a). While doing so would at best result in subjects' opinion

about what the reality is rather than the factual reality, present authors still understand the need for monitoring subjects' understanding in their research. Indeed, even though the data collected through questionnaires will be unconsciously retrieved (non-unveiled topic) and quantified, it is important to make sure that all subjects share the same understanding of the questionnaires so that the data is valid.

2.2. Research Approach

In line with positivism that "*assumes a measurable objective reality about which a claim or prediction can be made and tested*" (Davis, 2008, p. 409), this research will be conducted following a deductive approach, also named hypothetico-deductive method (J. Brewer, 2003a; Fox, 2008b).

Roughly defined, deduction "*involves the development of a theory that is then subjected to a rigorous test through a series of propositions.*" (Saunders et al., 2012, p.145) In practice, researchers would develop a theoretical proposition based on academic literature and observed data on the topic, that would then be broken down in a series of hypotheses and tested against empirical observation to either confirm or refute this theory (J. Brewer, 2003a).

A proper deductive research, and thus what present authors commit to, would have the following characteristics: a decomposition of constructs to the simplest elements, operationalization of the concepts so that they can be measured quantitatively, a structured methodology that enables replication and lastly, a generalization of the findings beyond a sample (Saunders et al., 2012).

The deduction approach was deemed the most appropriate for this topic. First, the sponsorship academic literature contains a lot of relevant contributions present authors could build on to adopt a novel angle. Then, deduction is particularly useful to research causal relationships between variables (O'Leary, 2007; Saunders et al., 2012) as it is the case in this paper with the participation in NorthSide and potential effects on selected consumer oriented marketing objectives.

Often opposed to induction where researchers stem from the data to form a theory, deduction test hypotheses derived from a theory against data (J. Brewer, 2003b). Nonetheless, this opposition between the two only holds at a general approach level since, in effect, induction might involve parts of deductive reasoning and vice versa. Indeed if one takes the deduction approach as an example, the formulation of premises and hypotheses

requires researchers to gather and review existing theories and secondary data which is assimilated to an inductive reasoning (J. Brewer, 2003a; Shank, 2008; Walliman, 2006).

3. Literature Review

As detailed in the presentation of the deductive research approach, a literature review is essential to form a theoretical proposition and hypotheses to be tested. Present authors have thoroughly and critically reviewed the academic literature on sponsorship effects to: understand the various concepts at stake; acknowledge the advancements on the topic; and identify potential gaps. These will be introduced to the reader following a logical and relevant structure.

First, sponsorship is defined and its corporate relevance stated. Afterwards, the various sponsorship effects that have been researched will be detailed. Then, antecedents to these sponsorship effects - theorized and sometimes evidenced - will be explained. Finally, present authors will share several gaps commonly identified in this topic literature.

To conclude, hypotheses will be stated in the light of this literature review.

3.1. Sponsorships

The word sponsorship encompasses a variety of meanings and since it is a cornerstone of this thesis it was important to introduce this concept and its mechanics in-depth in this review. First, the concept will be defined, then the diversity in its application and execution will be explained and lastly, the reasons behind sponsorship growth will be listed.

3.1.1. Sponsorship Definition

The present authors perceive Lee, Sandler & Shani's (1997, p. 162) following definition of sponsorship as the most exhaustive and accurate. It is *"the provision of resources (e.g., money, people, equipment) by an organization directly to an event, cause or activity in exchange for a direct association (link) to the event, cause or activity. The providing organization can then engage in sponsorship-linked marketing to achieve either their corporate, marketing or media objectives.*" This provision of resources may be of financial assistance if a company seeks image related objectives and/or an "in-kind assistance" where the sponsor provides its products or services (e.g. basketball for a competition) in order to demonstrate a "functional soundness" in a particular setting and assert brand legitimacy (Carrillat & D'Astous, 2012).

While most sponsorship definitions convey the idea of an investment in an activity to achieve corporate objectives e.g. (Gardner & Shuman, 1987; Javalgi et al., 1994; McDonald, 1991), the above definition stands out by including a key aspect of sponsorships: the use of sponsorship-linked marketing. On this latter notion, also referred to as sponsorship leverage and understood as "*the act of using collateral marketing communications to exploit the commercial potential of the association between a sponsee and sponsor*" (p.639)(Weeks, Cornwell, & Drennan, 2008) , depends partly the sponsorship success for the sponsor (Crimmins & Horn, 1996; Fahy, Farrelly, & Quester, 2004; Grohs et al., 2004; T. Meenaghan, 1991).

Besides, leverage is the main difference between sponsorships implementation and other traditional advertising tools. In the case of a TV commercial or a radio ad, companies would pay a fee, air and harvest outcomes while for sponsorships, *"paying the sponsorship fee is only the starting point."* (Grohs et al., 2004, p. 133) Indeed, companies need to get involved in sponsorship-linked marketing (such as related advertising campaigns, on-site signage or sampling) before, during and after the event in order to make it productive. As provocatively written by Crimmins & Horn (1996, p. 16), "*if the brand cannot afford to spend to communicate its sponsorship, then the brand cannot afford sponsorship at all*."

3.1.2. Diversity in Sponsorship Arrangements

There is a wide array of sponsorship opportunities and setups available, giving companies interested in sponsoring an extensive choice to appropriately select an event or a cause matching their objectives – be it brand awareness, corporate image, brand image or sales increase.

Sponsorships vary in nature since they may happen in various industries such as the music industry (music festivals), cinema (movie scenes and movie festivals), sports (tournaments, teams and stadium naming rights), television (programs) or arts (performances, exhibitions) (G. Smith, 2004).

Further, sponsorships differ in terms of size and scope (it could be a local, regional or a global event) and duration (one-day cause/event versus a week long or seasonal) (Javalgi et al., 1994; McDaniel, 1999).

In addition, sponsorship arrangements can be simple (only one exclusive sponsor), composites (few major sponsors) or complex (several major and minor sponsors) (G. Smith, 2004).

Finally, sponsorship offers vary in terms of how much the sponsor can activate and leverage its brand and the total reach of the event. Indeed, potential sponsors may be on the look-out for causes and events dragging

important media coverage to increase their reach and investigate what are the sponsorship-linked marketing activities the event organizer is willing to allow (McDaniel, 1999).

Hence, the attractiveness of a sponsorship opportunity is conditioned by various factors, and the level of investment commitment expected for each sponsor would change accordingly.

3.1.3. Reasons for Sponsorship Growth

The main reason for sponsorship growth is arguably its alleged effectiveness in achieving a variety of consumer-oriented objectives for the sponsor. Even though it is not a clear consensus, various researchers demonstrated that sponsorships could for instance help create brand awareness, convey a brand image, influence brand attitude or increase sales (Crimmins & Horn, 1996; Gi-Yong Koo et al., 2006; Grohs et al., 2004; K. Gwinner, 1997; Javalgi et al., 1994; McDaniel, 1999; P. Quester & Farrelly, 1998; Rowley & Williams, 2008; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Zdravkovic et al., 2010). As such, sponsorships may be able to impact parts of a sponsor's brand knowledge, defined as "*the awareness of the brand (in terms of brand recall and recognition) and the favourability, strength, and uniqueness of the brand associations in consumer memory*" by Keller (1993, p. 3) . Ultimately, this impact on brand knowledge could lead to an increase of sponsors' brand equity (Keller, 1993), defined as "*the value, usually defined in economic terms, of a brand beyond the physical assets associated with its manufacture or provision*" (Biel, 1992, p. 7) and as "*the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand*" from a customer-based perspective (Keller, 1993, p. 8).

In addition to this main explanation, further reasons for sponsorship growth can be classified into two sections: external reasons (reasons attributable to the macro-environment) and internal reasons (reasons directly attributable to sponsored events and sponsoring companies' strategy). The next two sections will describe these in detail.

3.1.3.1. External Reasons

First and foremost, event and other activity managers are seeking for sponsors due to the overall lack of public funding (Zdravkovic & Till, 2012). Hence, sponsorship arrangements are trade-offs between the object of a sponsorship looking for an investment or a (free) service and a sponsor interested in associating with an event to achieve determined objectives.

Next, advertising bans on certain products – especially alcohol and cigarettes – have popularized sponsorships as a subtle substitute for advertising; hence making it an alternative communication tool for companies (Abreu Novais & Arcodia, 2013; Zdravkovic & Till, 2012).

Ultimately, the "*escalating cost of traditional advertising space*" (Zdravkovic & Till, 2012, p. 114) combined with an advertising clutter in certain platform (television, internet) have pressured companies into seeking cost-efficient alternatives such as sponsorships (Abreu Novais & Arcodia, 2013). Besides, thanks to new technologies (video sharing platforms and social networks); events have an increasing media coverage allowing sponsors to aim at a bigger reach than solely event participants (Abreu Novais & Arcodia, 2013).

3.1.3.2. Internal Reasons

Events and venues, often subjects to sponsorships, are cost-efficient ways for companies to reach a specific demographic and/or psychographic segment (T. B. Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; T. B. Cornwell et al., 2005; Gardner & Shuman, 1987; T. Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999). For instance, as stated by Rowley & Williams (2008), music festivals tend to be relevant venues for brands targeting a young demographic segment. Moreover, once a sponsor has its desired segment at reach, it is able to force the trial of its products and eventually count on future purchase (e.g. Heineken beer available at sponsored golf tournaments) (Jalleh et al., 2002).

Sponsorships give sponsors the opportunity to get associated with an event or a cause whose participants and potential customers highly value. Thus sponsors may benefit from an image rub-off effect or a transfer of some of the sponsored entity's attributes to their brands (Crimmins & Horn, 1996; Grohs et al., 2004; Mao & Zhang, 2013; T. Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999). As mentioned by Fahy et al. (2004), a strong and repeated association with a popular event is then likely to turn into a competitive advantage for the sponsor.

Lastly, thanks to awareness and corporate image enhancement via sponsorships, sponsors are perceived as dynamic and attractive work places helping them with staff recruitment (Zdravkovic & Till, 2012). Also, companies able to invest in sponsorships send signals of "financial muscle" and "international status" – in the instance of a global event – to their marketplace and competitors (McDonald, 1991).

3.2. Sponsorship Effects

In this section, the most researched topics of sponsorship effects found by the present authors – brand awareness, brand image, brand attitude and purchase intention – will be defined, their corporate relevance

assessed and the way they are impacted by sponsorships explained. In addition, brand personality, a concept present authors chose to investigate in relation to sponsorship effects will be introduced.

3.2.1. Brand Awareness

3.2.1.1. Brand Awareness Definition and Corporate Relevance

According to Keller (1993) brand awareness is one of two elements that determine brand knowledge, the other being brand image. The current authors agree with Hoyer & Brown's (1990, p. 140) definition of brand awareness as "*a rudimentary level of brand knowledge involving, at the least, recognition of the brand name. Awareness represents the lowest end of a continuum of brand knowledge that ranges from simple recognition of the brand name to a highly developed cognitive structure based on detailed information.*"

To measure brand awareness Keller (1993) mentions brand recognition and brand recall as the two overall categorizations. He defines brand recognition as the "*consumers' ability to confirm prior exposure to the brand when given the brand as a cue.*" And brand recall he defines as the "*consumers' ability to retrieve the brand when given the product category, the needs fulfilled by the category, or some other type of probe as a cue.*" (p. 3) Here, Keller refers to sub-categorizations such as aided and unaided brand recall. Aided brand recall is when the respondent is given a list of brands to recognize in a given product category. Unaided brand recall is then when there is no list of brands, but the respondent must come up with the brand names for the product category him/herself. As such, a top-of-mind awareness would be the first name that comes into mind when cued with a product category.

Especially, indicators of memorability such as aided and unaided brand recall and top-of-mind awareness have been of interest to practitioners and consumer researchers since they play an important role in consumers' purchase intention (Nedungadi & Hutchinson, 1985). For companies to raise brand awareness, D. A. Aaker (1991) suggests that they should simply expose the brand to as many potential customers as possible. However, it might be more subtle than that. Indeed, studies from Nedungadi & Hutchinson (1985) and Ward & Loken (1986) both evidenced that an important determinant of brand awareness is the strength of brand association with the product category. Furthermore, Hoyer & Brown (1990) found that there is an effect of brand awareness on consumers' choice of a common, repeat-purchase product. It keeps the brand in the consumer's evoked set of brands which leads to an increase in the probability of purchase intention.

3.2.1.2. Brand Awareness in Sponsorships

From an empirical standpoint a number of studies use brand awareness as a way of measuring sponsorship's success/effectiveness, in particular in regards to sports events (Jalleh et al., 2002; McDaniel & Kinney, 1996; Nicholls & Roslow, 1994). Others take a more broad approach and include both sports and art events (Javalgi et al., 1994).

McDonald (1991) argues that measures of awareness alone fail to evaluate a potential change of attitudes toward the sponsor. He writes that brand awareness rather tells how effective the publicity surrounding the sponsorship has been. Alone, it is indeed a weak indicator for sponsorship effectiveness.

For companies, a sponsorship can be a powerful tool to increase brand awareness, and is one of the most common reasons for entering into one along with the desire for change in brand image (T. B. Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Crowley, 1991; K. Gwinner, 1997; Marshall & Cook, 1992; T. Meenaghan, 1991).

Just as Nedungadi & Hutchinson (1985) wrote about the strength of the association between a brand and its product category, Crimmins and Horn (1996) take the discussion about brand awareness in a sponsorship setting a step further by introducing the term "exclusive awareness". They coin it as "*the percent of the target who recognize the link between the sponsoring brand and the event or organization minus the highest percent who mistakenly believe there is a link between a non-sponsoring competitor and the event or organization.*" (Crimmins & Horn, 1996, p. 13)

Crimmins & Horn (1996) examine the success and failures of a number of sponsorships, where one of their main criteria is exclusive awareness. An example of success would be the credit card company Visa's sponsorship of the 1992 Summer Olympics, where they maintained a 20 percentage point lead in exclusive awareness compared to their competitors. Coca Cola's sponsorship of the NFL between 1994 and 1995 showed only a 1 percentage point difference in awareness of the sponsorship between them and Pepsi.

However, ambivalent effects of sponsorship on brand awareness have been evidenced. Jalleh, Donovan, Giles-Corti & Holman (2002) designed a study to evaluate sponsorship effectiveness by measuring brand awareness and brand attitude of 4 profit seeking sponsors and 2 non-profit seeking sponsors before and after two major sporting events in Australia. Their findings suggest that the 4 profit seeking sponsors did not benefit from any brand awareness effects in comparison with the 2 non-profit sponsors that did.

3.2.2. Brand Image

3.2.2.1. Brand Image Definition and Corporate Relevance

Keller (1993, p. 3) defines brand image as "*perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in consumer memory.*" There are three kinds of brand associations and they range from attributes (product or service features such as price or appearance) to benefits (advantages and value brought by the product) and attitudes (evaluation and behaviour) (Keller, 1993). In a similar pattern, Biel (1992) distinguishes between "soft" and "hard" types of brand associations; the former being tangible features (attributes) and the latter being emotional responses (benefits and attitudes).

Thus, in opposition to brand identity which is in full-control of the marketers (the image the brand owner attempt to transmit), brand image resides in the consumer mind (Kapferer, 2008; T. Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999) . Yet, marketers should still attempt to influence the brand image formed by consumers. Indeed, a brand's success and its superiority over competitors depend on the brand associations' strength, favourability and uniqueness (Keller, 1993).

In effect, a relevant brand image may be what consumers identify with. Based on the self-congruity theory, the greater the congruence between the brand image and consumers' actual self-image (image they have of themselves), the greater the chances of persuasion as it would appear as a reasonable product for them to consume (Johar & Sirgy, 1991). Besides, if the brand image appeals to their ideal self-image (image they aspire to have), consumers would logically develop a positive brand attitude and look up to it (Johar & Sirgy, 1991). In the event of a public consumption context where consumption is socially visible (Wysong, Beldona, Munch, & Kleiser, 2012), consumers tend to use brands whose images are in line with their reference group expectations (Bearden & Etzel, 1982) and capable of expressing their personality (D. A. Aaker, 1996b).

3.2.2.2. Brand Image Transfer in Sponsorships

- **From the Sponsored Entity to the Sponsor**

Originating from the celebrity endorsement literature, the brand image transfer concept has been defined by McCracken (1989) as a meaning residing in celebrities that is partly transferred to a brand or a product as the result of an endorsed advertisement. Keller (1993) enlarged the field of application of brand image transfer to events by specifying that an event also has a set of attributes and meaning that can partly and indirectly

transfer to a brand. Lastly, Gwinner & Eaton (1999) explicitly suggested that consumers may well transfer event's meanings to a sponsoring brand.

From an empirical standpoint, the hypothesis of image transfer from a sponsored entity to its sponsor has been supported by various authors (Chien, Cornwell, & Pappu, 2011; Grohs et al., 2004; K. P. Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Javalgi et al., 1994; Martensen, Grønholdt, Bendtsen, & Jensen, 2007; Zdravkovic & Till, 2012). As an example, in their longitudinal study of the Alpine World Ski Championship 2001, Grohs et al. (2004) found evidence of image transfer from the skiing event to all 6 concurrent event sponsors – yet, with variations in transfer's strength from one sponsor to another.

Other researchers were also able to uncover that sponsorships do have an impact on sponsors' brand image but without investigating the exact source: whether or not it was due to an image transfer between the two entities, a simple exposure effect or something else (D'Astous & Bitz, 1995; Lacey, Sneath, Finney, & Close, 2007).

Regarding the process of brand image transfer, evidence suggests that rather than a full "halo" effect from the event to the sponsor, it should be seen as a transfer of one or several associations affecting certain dimensions of the sponsor's image (while other dimensions might not be affected) (Javalgi et al., 1994).

In spite of general theoretical consensus that sponsorship can have an effect on brand image and several empirical examples, few authors advocated for a better understanding of how the brand image transfer occur in sponsorships (Abreu Novais & Arcodia, 2013; G. Smith, 2004). Moreover, while replicating Javalgi et al.'s (1994) methodology, Pope & Voges (1999) did not encounter any sponsorship effects on brand image.

- Reversed and Fortuitous Brand Image Transfer

As previously reviewed, most of the academic research on brand image transfer adopt the sponsor's perspective. However, a few authors chose to study the reverse image transfer to investigate if sponsors brand image could actually transfer to the sponsored entity's image e.g. (Charbonneau & Garland, 2010; Henseler, Wilson, & De Vreede, 2009). Indeed, based on knowledge from multiple-brand marketing activities theories (such as co-branding) one could expect a sponsor's brand image to affect a sponsored entity (Ruth & Simonin, 2003). In the field of endorsement for instance, it has been shown that endorsed product types had the potential to have an effect on the way the endorsers were perceived by consumers (Charbonneau & Garland, 2010).

Henseler et al. (2009) have confirmed the existence of a reverse brand image transfer in sponsorships. They asked respondents about the image of a fictitious ski competition event sponsored by Quicksilver, a board sport-related brand, in one case or a telecommunication company in the other. It appeared that the Quicksilver sponsored event was rated more positively on adjectives such as "cool", "alternative" and "sporty".

It has further been supported that a "fortuitous" image transfer may take place between sponsors of a similar event in concurrent sponsorship setups (Carrillat, Harris, & Lafferty, 2010). Indeed, results from their research showed a higher congruency between Gatorade and Nike brand images in the situation where respondents evaluated these brands after being exposed to these two brands sponsoring the Olympics, rather than when they evaluated them after being exposed to only one of these brands sponsoring the Olympics (Carrillat et al., 2010).

As a result, it has been established that sponsors and events should carefully select the entities they want to enter into a sponsorship with. Furthermore, sponsors should as well evaluate the consequences of a concurrent sponsorship and how other sponsors' images could affect them.

3.2.3. Brand Personality

Present authors have chosen to research potential sponsorship effects on sponsors' brand personality since, to their knowledge; it has never been investigated by academia. Further justification about this choice can be found in section 3.5. Thereafter the reader will be introduced to the brand personality's definition and corporate relevance as well as to Aaker's brand personality scale which is present authors' scale of choice for measuring brand personality.

3.2.3.1. Brand Personality Definition and Corporate Relevance

- **Definition and Sources of Brand Personality**

Sometimes inaccurately used as a synonym of brand image (Freling & Forbes, 2005a; Kim, 1990), brand personality has been defined as "*the set of human characteristics associated with a brand.*" (J. L. Aaker, 1997, p. 347) Hence, as human personality, brand personality is "*distinctive*" (D. A. Aaker, 1996b; Freling & Forbes, 2005b) and "*enduring*" (D. A. Aaker, 1996b; Plummer, 1984), meaning that a brand's personality is singular for each brand and remains fairly consistent in most situations. Then, similarly to brand image versus brand identity, there is a difference between the brand personality statement: the personality the company intend to transmit; and the actual brand personality or brand personality profile: the brand personality as perceived by

consumers (Plummer, 1984). A difference explained by consumers' individual experiences, cultures and value filters (Plummer, 1984).

"*Consumers automatically ascribe personality to brands*" (Heding, Knudtzen, & Bjerre, 2009, p. 136) using various sources: product related attributes such as price (e.g. casual, snob) or packaging (e.g. trustworthy, sophisticated) and non-product related characteristics such as the advertising style (e.g. aggressive, ingenious) or country-of-origin (e.g. romantic for France) (D. A. Aaker, 1996b). Furthermore, Gupta and Pandey (2007), in their working paper, insist on the critical role played by the persons in touch with a brand in the brand personality's formation process. For instance, a Chief Executive Officer's personality, an endorser's personality and the brand's user imagery defined as "*the set of human characteristics associated with the typical user of a brand*" (D. A. Aaker, 1996b) have the potential to directly affect the overall brand personality consumers will shape. Thus, as brand personality sources are not solely product-related, the concept is applicable to both product and service brands (Freling & Forbes, 2005a).

- **Corporate Benefits of Brand Personality**

The brand personality approach offers various benefits to brand owners; the first and probably the most important being personality's differentiation power versus competitors' brands. For instance, Chung & Ahn (2013) mention how, thanks to its brand personality, a Harley & Davidson motorcycle can bring out a rider's masculinity, freedom or patriotism while some competitors motorcycles might strictly serve as a mean of transportation. Personality's differentiation ability becomes even more relevant in industries where brands can hardly differentiate on product attributes (D. A. Aaker, 1996b). As an example, Freling & Forbes (2005b) researched the bottled mineral water industry and found that even though consumers value "competent" brand personalities (probably because water quality is important); bottled water brands playing the "sophisticated" personality card had higher purchase intention thanks to a differentiated offer.

Furthermore, brand personality plays an important role in consumers' symbolic consumption (Heding et al., 2009). Indeed, consumers may choose to consume a brand for the personality it conveys and how it can contribute to the expression of their own identities (D. A. Aaker, 1996b; A. C. T. Smith, Graetz, & Westerbeek, 2006). In line with the self-congruity theory previously detailed in the brand image section of this review, there can be an inward consumption situation where consumers choose a brand because they feel its personality matches their own and an outward consumption, where consumers use a brand's personality to send a signal about themselves (Heding et al., 2009).

Another important interest of brand personality for companies is its ability to deliver feelings to the consumers that can potentially carry them away from a rational purchase decision and make them pay a premium price (D. A. Aaker, 1996b; Freling & Forbes, 2005a).

Finally, as a brand personality is not built over one day and therefore difficult to replicate, it is a sustainable differentiation point (D. A. Aaker, 1996b).

3.2.3.2. Review of Aaker's Brand Personality Scale

- **Introduction to Aaker's Brand Personality Scale**

Brand personality scales originate from psychology and the human personality scales where, thanks to factor analysis, researchers e.g. Cattel (1945), Goldberg (1990) and Tupes & Christal (1992) have reduced many personality traits (e.g. 1431 traits for Goldberg) into a few human personality factors/dimensions (often 5 (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003), also coined the "*Big Five*" by Goldberg (1990)) said to embrace the whole population's personalities. Likewise, researchers have been interested in tailoring a personality scale applicable to brands.

J. L. Aaker (1997) was one of the first to thoroughly research the personality concept in relation to brands and her brand personality scale has ever since been the most used tool to measure brand personality (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003; Cian, 2011; G. Smith, 2004). In order to conceive her scale, Aaker (1997) collected a list of 309 non-redundant personality traits (from prior research and free association tasks (Hyung-Seok Lee & Chang-Hoan Cho, 2009)) that was reduced to 114 by solely keeping traits perceived by consumers as "very descriptive" in a brand context. Then a panel of 631 respondents was asked to rate 37 symbolic or utilitarian well-known brands on these 114 personality traits using a five-point Likert scale. Besides, these 114 personality traits were deliberately positively valenced since for Aaker (1997), the scale should "*determine the extent to which brand personality affects the probability that consumers will approach (versus avoid) products.*" (p. 350). Hence no negatively valenced traits were included.

After running exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis on these results, as well as validity and reliability tests, Aaker obtained a final scale made of 42 personality traits grouped into 15 facets resulting in 5 final brand personality dimensions labelled: Sincerity, Excitement, Competence, Sophistication and Ruggedness (see appendices section 2 for the full list of brand personality traits/facets/dimensions).

- Replication and Critics of Aaker's Brand Personality Scale

Several authors successfully applied Aaker's brand personality scale. For instance, Diamantopoulos, Smith & Grime (2005) qualified the scale as "readily applicable" after using it to research if brand extensions could have an impact on brand personalities. Furthermore, Wysong (2012) investigated whether people buy brands with different personalities depending on the open/public aspect of the consumption setting using Aaker's scale and did not encounter any issues.

However, while no author denies the existence of brand personality (at least to the present authors' knowledge), some authors criticized the soundness of Aaker's brand personality scale to measure this concept. First, Austin, Siguaw & Mattila (2003) expressed that Aaker's scale lacks clear indication about its areas of applicability and postulate that while it is highly appropriate to measure brand personality at a product-category aggregate level (e.g. fast foods), it is not generalizable to a situation where one wants to measure personality at an individual brand level (e.g. Mc Donald's). In order to check if Aaker's 5 factors solution was applicable to data, they gathered about 9 separate restaurants, and used confirmatory factor analysis to find that results were unsatisfactory -they found different factors for each restaurant. However, once they grouped these restaurants per food types (e.g. fast food, Italian), they found the same factors as Aaker's. In fact one of their explanations, also advanced by Caprara, Barbaranelli & Guido (2001), is that the adjectives used for the personality traits are very context and brand-relative, leading to unique factor structures for each brand. As an example, Austin et al. (2003) uncovered that two restaurants scored very high on the "family-oriented" trait but for different reasons. In the first case, it was because the restaurant was family owned and the whole staff was family members while for the second restaurant it was because it offered food for the whole family with children's menus.

Even though it has been successfully applied in the United Kingdom (Diamantopoulos et al., 2005), Aaker's brand personality scale might not be culturally robust. Indeed, Aaker herself points out this potential limitation as the scale was elaborated from data gathered using Americans and American companies. Thus in order to assess its applicability to other cultures, Aaker, Benet-Martinez & Garolera (2001) researched the construct in an East Asian (Japan) and a Latin culture (Spain). Results shows a 5 factors solution for the Japanese culture with 4 similar factors to the American context and the apparition of Peacefulness instead of Ruggedness and a 5 factors solution also for Spain but with only 3 similar factors to the American scales, where Ruggedness and Competence were replaced by Peacefulness (as per Japan) and Passion. Moreover, Smith, Graetz & Westerbeek (2006) researched the brand personality of Netball teams (an Australian sport) in Australia which

resulted in a 6 factors solution – 5 similar factors as Aaker and an extra "Innovation" dimension. If they could not clearly attribute the 6 factors solution to the cultural difference or its specific application to Netball, they still wrote that Aaker's scale is a great measurement tool that could always need final tuning depending on the context of application. An argument Aaker et al. (2001) would probably agree with in the light of their results.

Finally, it should be noted that some authors, even though they do not attempt using Aaker's scale, prefer developing their own brand personality scales in order to make sure it fits their specific topic and field of application. For instance, Tsiotsou (2012) developed a sport team brand personality scale (in Greece) that resulted in 5 different factors (Competitiveness, Prestige, Morality, Authenticity, Credibility); D'Astous, Colbert & D'Astous (2006) developed a brand personality scale for a cultural festival that also resulted in 5 factors (Dynamism, Sophistication, Reputation, Openness to the world and Innovation) and Lee &Cho (2009) came up with a 5 factors solution for a sporting event brand personality scale (Diligence, Uninhibitedness, Fit, Tradition and Amusement).

3.2.4. Brand Attitude

3.2.4.1. Brand Attitude Definition and Corporate Relevance

As previously mentioned in the brand image construct definition, attitudes are one the three brand associations types composing brand image, the other being attributes and benefits (Keller, 1993).

Defined in a general context, attitudes "*are the general evaluations people make of themselves, other people, objects and issue.*" (Heding et al., 2009, p. 68) Once transposed in a branding setting, brand attitude is simply defined as consumers' overall evaluations of a brand (Heding et al., 2009; Keller, 1993; Percy & Rossiter, 1992). Objects of these evaluations and hence determinants of consumers' brand attitude are the various heuristics consumers can have with a brand or product: ads, past experience with the brands, corporate image (Suh & Yi, 2006). As such, brand attitude is a relative construct since its formation will depend upon consumers' consumption motivations and the alternative brands available to fulfil these motivations (Percy & Rossiter, 1992). In addition, product category can also be an important determinant of brand attitude (Keller, 1993). For instance, one could think banks are unfriendly and would therefore hold a similar negative attitude towards all brands pertaining to this product category.

Brand attitudes vary in favourability (also named valence), which is whether the attitude is positive or negative and in strength, which is how accessible in the memory the attitude belief is (Keller, 1993; Whan Park,

MacInnis, Priester, Eisingerich, & Iacobucci, 2010). Hence, a favourable brand attitude is not enough, it should also be strong. Indeed, a research from Fazio, Powell & Williams (1989) on attitude towards advertising evidenced that attitude strength was crucial to influence purchase intention. As stated by Keller "*highly accessible brand attitudes are more likely to be activated spontaneously upon exposure to the brand*" (1993, p. 7).

Thus, from a managerial standpoint a positive and strong brand attitude is of utmost importance since it drives consumers' behaviour - be it brand consideration, purchase intention or willingness to pay a premium price (Heding et al., 2009; Keller, 1993; Whan Park et al., 2010).

3.2.4.2. Brand Attitude in Sponsorships

There is a strong theoretical support for a potential brand attitude transfer from a sponsored entity to its sponsor (Keller, 1993; Ruth & Simonin, 2003) since such spill over effect has been evidenced in the case of brand alliances (Simonin & Ruth, 1998) and in the field of endorsement (Keller, 1993). In practice, many authors evidenced positive sponsorship effects on sponsors' brand attitudes (Carrillat et al., 2005; Crimmins & Horn, 1996; Carrillat & D'Astous, 2012; Gi-Yong Koo et al., 2006; Lacey et al., 2007; Martensen et al., 2007; Rowley & Williams, 2008) even though the actual transfer between the two entities has not often been demonstrated. As an example, Crimmins & Horn (1996) uncovered that credit card provider VISA had a 15 percentage point's brand attitude superiority over MasterCard during the 3 months preceding the 1992's Summer Olympics - an event they sponsored. During the event, their superiority doubled to 30 percentage points and dropped to 20 percentage points the next month. Hence, this sponsorship has undoubtedly had a positive effect on VISA even though one can only allegedly attribute it to an attitude transfer from the Olympics to VISA.

Despite various authors evidencing positive sponsorship effects on sponsors' brand attitude, Jalleh, Donovan, Giles-Corti & Holman (2002) did not encounter any effect on brand attitude for 4 commercial sponsors (out of 4 researched) in 2 separate studies while they still found a positive effect on brand attitude for 2 non-commercial sponsors (out of 2). These results for commercial sponsors caught present authors' attention since the research design used in their research seems quite thorough with a pre- and post-event survey on independent samples and the use of a replication study.

Finally, Ruth & Simonin (2003) questioned whether a controversial sponsor choice could lead respondents to form a negative brand attitude about the event. Results from their research show that if a same event was to

be sponsored by a controversial tobacco brand with a low brand attitude, the event would have a lower brand attitude than if it was to be sponsored by a high brand attitude ice-cream brand. Hence, a sponsor's brand attitude is likely to influence the sponsored event's brand attitude.

3.2.5. Purchase Intention

3.2.5.1. Purchase Intention Definition and Corporate Relevance

Purchase intention is part of a larger group of commonly named behavioural intention that entails consumers' intention towards a brand such a buying, using or recommending it (T. B. Cornwell et al., 2005). Despite the prominence of purchase intention in the academic journal articles and books, present authors failed to find a formal concept definition, allegedly due to its unambiguous nature. Referring to the various mentions of this concept in the literature, its straightforward meaning is a consumer's intention or plan to buy a good or a service. Though when researched, this concept would be refined with a time frame such as "next time a similar product is purchased" (p.22) (Haley & Case, 1979) or "when it becomes available in your area" (p.134) (MacKenzie, Lutz, & Belch, 1986) so that it can accurately be meaningful to the respondent.

Lavidge & Steiner (1961) in their theorization of advertising effectiveness provide a model of effects leading to purchase. In a normal scheme, consumers would go through an awareness, knowledge, liking, preference and a conviction stage before purchasing a product. While this representation is typical since consumers could make an impulse purchase, it conveys the important notion that purchasing is the result of a chain of effects. Hence, all the marketing concepts introduced in the previous sections play a role in purchasing intention. Brand awareness for instance is a driver of purchase intention, especially with brand recognition for an in-store situation where the consumer is faced with a variety of products (Gi-Yong Koo et al., 2006; Percy & Rossiter, 1992). Then, Freling & Forbes (2005b) evidenced through experimentation that consumers would develop twice the purchase intention towards brands imbued with a specific brand personality rather than no personality at all. Lastly, brand attitude where consumers would form a general evaluation and preference for a brand is naturally a direct influencer of purchase intention (Gi-Yong Koo et al., 2006; Kotler, 2002; Percy & Rossiter, 1992).

However, a purchase intention is not equal to a purchase decision and some authors such as Kassarjian (1971) would argue that it is an unreliable indicator of actual purchase. Kotler (2002) claims two reasons as an explanation of this discrepancy. First, consumers can change their purchase intention due to others' negative attitude towards this choice and might influence a new decision. Then, there are several unanticipated

situational factors that might get on the way between a consumer's purchase intention and the actual purchase situation such as an offer or a lack of money. This latter point is actually in line with Keller's argument (1993) that purchase intention can be context-dependent. Indeed, consumers might exceptionally favour a fast service provider over their habitual service provider because they are delayed. Lastly, a purchase intention for a low-involvement product is less binding and likely to actually occur than for a high-involvement product for evident reasons of involvement (Heding et al., 2009; Percy & Rossiter, 1992).

As an indicator of sales, purchase intention's corporate relevance is quite simple to understand. Not only can it tell if an ad or a product/service is successful but buyer-intention surveys are also important to forecast and plan supply chain or logistic needs when it comes to industrial goods (Kotler, 2002).

3.2.5.2. Purchase Intention in Sponsorships

From a theoretical perspective, Sneath, Finney, & Close (2005) postulate that it is common for sponsoring companies not to see any, or just a little, immediate effects on purchase intentions. However, they state that if a sponsor should see important effects on sales during or immediately after the event sponsored, the effects could be even greater in the following months. Then, Meenaghan (1983) advocates that sponsorship, as any other element of the marketing mix, should somewhat enhance purchase intention.

Regarding the actual research and effects observed; Martensen, Grønholdt, Bendtsen, & Jensen (2007) evidenced a significant purchase intention effect, even though relatively small, on Bang & Olufsen's products thanks to a pre- post event study at a golf tournament they sponsor. Also, a sponsorship effect on sponsor's brand image can result in a positive effect on purchase intention (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012) - which is logical and in-line with brand image being an influencer of purchase intention as stated above. Moreover, it has been proven that respondents showing the highest level of brand image transfer from the sponsored entity to the sponsor also had the highest purchase intention of the sponsor's product (K. P. Gwinner, Larson, & Swanson, 2009). Yet again, such correlation would seem logical since both brand image transfer's strength and a positive effect on sponsor's purchase intention can be assimilated to indicators of sponsorship success.

However, several studies did not evidence any sponsorship effects on purchase intention. To start with, a research on users and non-users of a World Cup sponsor brand found that their exposure to the sponsorship stimuli did not elicit any effect on their purchase intention (Hoek, Gendall, Jeffcoat, & Orsman, 1997). Pope & Voges (1999), in a fictitious experiment, did not observe any difference in purchase intention between a group of respondents believing the brand in question was a sport sponsor and the other group of respondents that

did not. Lastly, Gardner & Shuman (1987) conducted a survey among businesses engaged in sponsorships and asked whether they believed a sponsorship had an effect on consumers purchase intention. It is a matter of interpretation to see it as a positive or negative result but 48% indicated they do not think such an effect happen.

As a recap it appears that some researchers have evidenced a positive effect of sponsorship on purchase intention towards the sponsors while some others have not seen any effect at all. Such ambivalence is not surprising for the present authors. Indeed, this ambivalence was already present in the previous sponsorship section effects' sections such as brand image or brand attitude hence, as they are influencer of purchase intentions; it was expected to come to a similar conclusion.

3.3. Antecedents of Sponsorship Effects

Now that the various sponsorship effects a sponsor can hope for have been introduced, the present authors will review antecedents of these sponsorship effects: factors identified as having a positive or negative impact on the sponsorship effects' strength and valence, namely: prior sponsor familiarity, event involvement, goodwill, event-sponsor congruence and sponsorships management.

3.3.1. Prior Familiarity with the Sponsor

A few authors have researched whether the degree of a person's existing familiarity with an event's sponsor could affect the level of outcomes for the sponsor (Carrillat et al., 2005; G. Smith, 2004). Carrillat's et al. (2005) findings support the fact sponsors with a low consumer familiarity will achieve greater sponsorship effects on consumers. In their case, it resulted in a greater effect on sponsor's brand attitude and on purchase intention in comparison to event's sponsors which consumers were already quite familiar with prior to the event.

Smith (2004) looked at how familiarity could influence the brand image transfer between the different entities part of the sponsorship arrangement: sponsors and event. Results indicate that the more familiar consumers are with a sponsor, the more likely they are to transfer its image to the event and the other sponsors but in return, the less likely it is to be influenced by the event and other sponsors' images. In an opposite fashion, the less familiar consumer are with a sponsor, the more likely its image will be influenced by the event and the other sponsors and in return, the less likely it is to influence the event and other sponsors' images.

In a nutshell, less familiar sponsors will experience greater sponsorship effects than sponsors which consumer are already familiar with. Thus, as understood by Smith (2004), it is critical for these lesser known sponsors to

carefully select the event they plan to sponsor as consumers will shape the sponsors' image based on other entities they are more familiar with: the event itself and the concurrent sponsors.

3.3.2. Event Involvement

Sponsorship research has been interested in uncovering if the involvement level in an event– for instance whether the spectator of a football game is random or a big fan - could have an influence on the perception of the event's sponsor.

Alexandris & Tsiotsou (2012) and Gwinner & Swanson (2003) have looked at sport sponsorships and both confirmed that team identification/attachment is a positive antecedent for sponsorship effects to take place. In a first experiment, fans of an American university's football team showed significantly better sponsor recognition and satisfaction/attitude towards the team's sponsors than the other respondents (K. Gwinner & Swanson, 2003). Likewise in another study, respondents showing high attachment to a Greek basketball team had a more positive image of the team's sponsor, a better acceptance of the sponsorship and higher behavioural intentions (purchase intention and brand recommendation) towards the team's sponsor than the other respondents (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012).

Still in the sport sponsorship literature but from a more event experience perspective, Pham (1992) researched the effects of involvement, pleasure and arousal one can experience during a soccer game on sponsor's recognition. First, involvement, or interest in the football game has a curvilinear (inverted U shape) effect on recognition where average involvement gives better recognition. It is justified by the fact that at a low game involvement level, people don't process the sponsorship stimuli because of overall lack of interest in what is happening while at a high game involvement level, people are too focused on the game to actually process any sponsorship stimuli (in this case: billboards). Then, arousal was found to have a negative effect on sponsor recognition as the viewer's ability and capacity to process the billboards decrease. Finally, pleasure has no particular effect on recognizing a sponsor.

Hence event involvement, understood as either participants'/viewers' interest in the event or people's attachment to an event, has its importance in the strength of sponsorship outcomes. As one could expect, a higher attachment to a sponsored entity (be it a sports team or a music festival) will result in better outcomes for the event's sponsor (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012; K. Gwinner & Swanson, 2003). Furthermore, a too little or too high interest in an ongoing event would not drive the best sponsorship effects, or at least recognition of sponsors (Pham, 1992).

3.3.3. Goodwill

Despite the lack of a formal definition in the literature (at least to the present authors' knowledge), there is a consensus in literature about what is understood with "the goodwill concept": consumers perceiving a sponsor's action as genuine, benevolent and with no business oriented objectives. For instance, authors refer to goodwill for sponsorships perceived as "a good thing" (McDonald, 1991) by consumers, more "philanthropic" (D'Astous & Bitz, 1995) than commercial and where consumers attribute "altruistic sponsor motives" to a company showing good citizenship (Rifon et al., 2004) – desirable characteristics for a company. Besides, as it is impossible to achieve with traditional advertising means, the goodwill opportunity is one of the reasons for sponsorship growth (T. Meenaghan, 1991; T. Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999).

From a theoretical point of view, consumers' attribution of goodwill to the sponsor is likely to happen for several reasons. To start with and as suggested by the attribution theory (Rifon et al., 2004), consumers will always infer a reason to the sponsor's engagement. For example, sponsorship motive might appear as goodwill in the case of a company sponsoring a health or social cause, or as a commercial move in the case of an overly exploited sport sponsorship. Moreover, it is coherent to expect an activity's audience, participants and fans to be grateful towards a company that sponsors, supports and somehow makes possible (P. G. Quester & Thompson, 2001) , an event they enjoy being part of (T. Meenaghan, 1991).

However from an empirical perspective, the goodwill hypothesis is not fully supported. On the one hand, D'Astous & Bitz (1995), using fictitious scenarios, demonstrated people had better esteem for a sponsor's corporate image in the case of a philanthropic sponsorship (money going to a cause) than for a commercial one. Even then, results were greater for philanthropic scenarios where the company was sponsoring an unrelated event (e.g. Nike organizing an art event and redistributing the profit) than a closely related one (Nike organizing a youth clothing designers contest and redistributing the profits). Indeed, while still acknowledging the philanthropic character of these sponsorships, people believed sponsor would still try to extract commercial benefits out of it. On the other hand, Javalgi et al. (1994) did not uncover any significant difference in respondents' evaluation of sponsors when they were told the sponsored entity was a "*Special Olympics for Handicapped Children, a theatre production of Hamlet, or the U.S. Men's Olympic Basketball Team*".

Thus there are two critical aspects influencing the sponsor's goodwill level perceived by consumers. First, there is the nature of the sponsored entity: if it is associated with a philanthropic image (such as a social cause) or a commercial image (such as a professional sport competition) (T. Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999), and whether or not it is closely related to the sponsor's core business (Javalgi et al., 1994). Second, consumers are sensitive to

the level of sponsors' marketing activation at the event (e.g. signage, promotional crew). Indeed, too much commercial exploitation leads to a loss of genuine interest and a goodwill aspect no longer credible for consumers (Carrillat & D'Astous, 2012).

As a conclusion, even if there is a lack of empirical support it appears logical to assume that goodwill can positively influence a sponsor's brand image or attitude. However, findings from D'Astous & Bitz (1995) and Carrillat & D'Astous (2012) suggest consumers are well-aware of sponsors' commercial motives and will not easily believe in a genuine philanthropic sponsorship or patronage setup.

3.3.4. Event-sponsor Congruence

In generic terms, congruence is defined as "*the extent to which a brand association shares content and meaning with another brand association.*" (Keller, 1993, p. 7) As an illustration, this concept is also named the "match-up congruence" in the endorsing literature and implies that the spokesperson's relevant characteristics are similar to the brand's attributes. (Misra & Beatty, 1990) Hence in a sponsorship context, congruence – also referred to as "fit" or "similarity" (Zdravkovic et al., 2010) – is the extent to which the sponsor and the event or sponsored entity share the same characteristics and meaning in the eyes of the consumers. However, when referred to fit in the sponsorship literature it is understood as "natural fit": the genuine congruence; "*independent of efforts to create a perceived fit between the organizations.*" (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006, p. 156) Indeed, companies could engage in communication campaigns in order to create fit and ensure consumers perceive it as a sound sponsorship. Otherwise, a fit or similarity can be either functional, image related or both (K. Gwinner, 1997). A functional-based similarity is when the sponsor's products are used during an event either by the event participants or the arrangement itself (e.g. Seiko chronometers at a tennis competition) and an image-based similarity is when the two entities share common associations (e.g. Rolex sponsoring Wimbledon tennis tournament – both sharing a prestige image).

Congruence can act as an antecedent of sponsorship effects as it has the potential to facilitate viewers' memory work and the image transfer from an entity to another (T. B. Cornwell et al., 2005). In the same way, a low-fit sponsorship may even go unnoticed for the viewer, or filtered out, as it stands as incongruent, non-fitting information (Misra & Beatty, 1990).

In their literature review, Zdravkovic et al. (2010) indicate a sponsor/sponsored entity fit can positively influence brand awareness, attitude towards sponsorship, brand image, brand attitude and brand favourability. First, a research in the field of endorsement reveals that a high fit association leads to better brand awareness

results (brand recall in this case) than a low fit association (Misra & Beatty, 1990). However, it should be noted that incongruent sponsorships are still able to increase a sponsor's brand awareness but to a lesser extent than a congruent one (T. B. Cornwell, Humphreys, Maguire, Weeks, & Tellegen, 2006) .

In addition, as they found evidence of brand image transfer from events to sponsors in various experiments, Grohs et al. (2004) attributed the variance in the brand image transfers' strength to the level of sponsorship fit. This hypothesis has been empirically proven by Simmons & Becker-Olsen (2006), who also uncovered that a low fit sponsorship can actually dilute a sponsor's brand image and positioning as it was originally suggested by Keller (1993). Indeed, respondents were more confused about a brand's positioning and intention in the case of a low-fit sponsorship than in the case of a control experiment with no sponsorship.

There is evidence that when faced with a congruent sponsorship, consumers form a better brand attitude of the sponsor than when it is an incongruent or neutral sponsorship (Misra & Beatty, 1990; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Zdravkovic et al., 2010). For instance, individuals familiar with a Breast Cancer Foundation and its actions had a better opinion about a congruent sponsor (Cuisine - a brand supporting healthy living) than towards a sponsor with a poor fit (computer manufacturer Dell) (Zdravkovic et al., 2010).

Lastly, sponsor-event functional similarity was proven to have a positive effect on sponsors' share price (T. B. Cornwell, Pruitt, & Van Ness, 2001). Indeed, by using historical data it appeared that sponsors of motorsports that were a part of the automotive industry (e.g. STP Corporation) had a higher rise in their share price when their team won than the sponsors that were not related to this industry.

Nevertheless, as mentioned, an over-exploited sponsorship arrangement might bring scepticism about a sponsor's motives and goodwill, Zdravkovic et al. (2010) formulate the assumption that a too perfectly congruent sponsorship would rather lead to a perception of commercial motives rather than goodwill. To back-up their assumption, they mention a research that even though it is not conducted in the field of sponsorship, supports the idea that a middle fit provides better effects than a total incongruity or a perfect fit (Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989). One could assume that a slight level of incongruity sparks consumer's curiosity and makes it a more memorable association.

To conclude, it is empirically supported that high event-sponsor congruence increase the following sponsorship effects: sponsor's brand awareness, brand image transfer, brand attitude and its share price. Therefore, brand owners should ensure they sponsor the right event. A great way to do so, if there is no functional-related fit, would be to check for an image-related fit by comparing compare both entities brand personalities (Hyung-

Seok Lee & Chang-Hoan Cho, 2009). Again, if a sponsor seeks to benefit from a goodwill effect, it should look for an event that is not an obvious fit in order to demonstrate a genuine interest rather than a commercial one.

3.3.5. Sponsor's Managerial Choices

Decisions taken by a sponsor's management can have an influence on the outcomes of a sponsorship and the sponsorship effects to expect.

3.3.5.1. One-time Sponsorship versus Repeated Sponsorship

On the one hand, there is evidence to support that companies sponsoring the same event over time will have a better impact on repeated attendees. Indeed, a research on the cycling event Tour de Georgia demonstrated that repeated attendees had a better brand image, attitude and purchase intention towards historical sponsors of the event than the first year attendees had (Lacey et al., 2007). On the other hand, Quester & Farrelly (1998) and D'Astous & Bitz (1995) did not find support for any cumulative impact of repeated sponsorships on sponsorship effects. For instance, in a three years consecutive sponsorship an event's sponsor recall rate was 40% on the first year, dropped to 32% on the second and back to 41% on the third year (P. Quester & Farrelly, 1998). As stated by D'Astous & Bitz (1995) and as one could imagine from the above example, it is difficult to isolate the sole effects of a sponsorship repetition as other factors come into play (e.g. maybe there was less signage at the second year's event). Finally, Smith (2004) finds a middle ground with the assumption that in terms of brand image transfer, a repeated sponsorship can be beneficial up until the sponsor becomes invisible to the event attendees.

3.3.5.2. Exclusive sponsorship versus multiple sponsors

As one would commonly assume, it has been suggested that the level of sponsorship effects for a sponsor is moderated by the number of concurrent sponsors of a same event (K. P. Gwinner & Eaton, 1999). However, Carrillat et al. (2005) rejected this hypothesis. Multiple sponsors' sponsorships were not found to weaken sponsors' brand attitude and purchase intentions in comparison to sponsorship arrangements where they were the unique sponsors.

3.3.5.3. Sponsorship leverage

As briefly mentioned in the sponsorship definition section, leverage or sponsorship-linked marketing has a great impact on sponsorship effects. First, leverage was found to significantly increase sponsors' brand awareness (P. Quester & Farrelly, 1998; P. G. Quester & Thompson, 2001). In a first experiment, Formula 1

sponsors paying a premium price to be featured in the team name or to have their name on the most visible panel of the car were the ones the most recalled by respondents (P. Quester & Farrelly, 1998). In another case, the only sponsor out of three sponsors of an art festival which achieved a brand awareness effect was the one engaging in additional promotional support (e.g. outdoor signage, print media) (P. G. Quester & Thompson, 2001).

Also, sponsorship-linked marketing can increase the amount of brand image transfer from the event to the sponsor (Grohs et al., 2004). Sponsors of a World Ski Championship were found to enjoy an image transfer relative to their communication spending and potential reach (a TV commercial driving more image transfer than a logo on a billboard).

Companies can leverage their sponsorships using two kinds of activation: "activational communication" or "non-activational communication" (Weeks et al., 2008). Non-activational communication would be medium and message that do not require the viewer to engage in the processing of the information (e.g. signage, naming) and activational communication would be medium and message where the consumer needs to get involved, interact with the sponsor (e.g. on-site competition, sponsored app providing details about the event). Results show better effects for activational communication. Furthermore, in order to provide hands-on insights to marketers, Sneath, Finney & Close (2005) did a comparison of the different marketing tools impact (e.g. signage, naming, merchandising) on sponsor's brand attitude and identified "experience with the product" (an "activational communication" type) as the most convincing one. Of course it is not a possibility for all companies but if brands have the opportunity to make their products available at an event, they should.

In a nutshell, sponsors have the opportunity to influence the outcomes of their sponsorships by taking appropriate strategic decisions. Even though research fails to provide clear guidelines to companies about whether they should engage in exclusive/concurrent or one-time/repeated sponsorships, it is clear that sponsors can positively increase their sponsorship effects by leveraging/activating their sponsorships.

3.4. Identified Gaps in the Sponsorship Effects' Literature

Qualified as "under researched" and "under conceptualized" in 2001 (T. Meenaghan & O' Sullivan, 2001), sponsorship literature still holds a variety of gaps as pointed out by recent contributions (Abreu Novais & Arcodia, 2013; Mao & Zhang, 2013; Zdravkovic & Till, 2012). Present authors will in this part review the current

gaps of sponsorship effects literature, namely: little knowledge about consumers' response to sponsorship, methodological limitations, obstacles to better findings and generalization.

3.4.1. Brand Image Transfer and Consumers' Response to Sponsorships

Consumer's response and processing of sponsorships is partly unknown (T. B. Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Mao & Zhang, 2013; T. Meenaghan & O' Sullivan, 2001). Discussions have often been about which scales to use to measure sponsorship effects but no theoretical framework, built on valid consumer's data, has been developed to provide insights about consumer's response (T. B. Cornwell & Maignan, 1998). Moreover, researchers have most often applied measurement tools originally used with conventional media (such as exposure count of a billboard) which does not bring any value in terms of how consumer react to the sponsorship stimuli (T. Meenaghan & O' Sullivan, 2001). Therefore, the lack of clear theoretical guidelines leave sponsored events and sponsoring brands with concerns about how event participants process a sponsorship (Mao & Zhang, 2013) .

Literature about sponsorship effects on brand image is lagging (Abreu Novais & Arcodia, 2013; T. Meenaghan & O' Sullivan, 2001; Myung-Soo Lee et al., 1997; G. Smith, 2004; Zdravkovic & Till, 2012). Indeed, even if both brand awareness and brand image are often stated as key sponsorships objectives (T. Meenaghan & O' Sullivan, 2001), research has mostly focused on the impact on brand awareness (T. Meenaghan & O' Sullivan, 2001; Myung-Soo Lee et al., 1997; Zdravkovic & Till, 2012) - allegedly since it is an easier and less problematic concept to measure (T. Meenaghan & O' Sullivan, 2001). If the area of brand image building in sponsorships is incomplete, it is also due to an "under-studied" brand image transfer topic (Zdravkovic & Till, 2012). First, there are very few empirical studies on the topic which almost exclusively took place in the field of sport sponsorships (Grohs et al., 2004). Then, the studies out there lack innovative approaches and significant contributions (Abreu Novais & Arcodia, 2013) – which overall, makes for a little understanding of brand image transfer in sponsorships.

3.4.2. Methodological Limitations

3.4.2.1. Lack of Empirical Studies in Real-life Settings

The present authors make the assumption that if, as previously mentioned, there is a lack of knowledge about consumer's response to sponsorships (T. B. Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Mao & Zhang, 2013; T. Meenaghan & O' Sullivan, 2001), it is due to a lack of real-life setting empirical studies. "Very little" (Javalgi et al., 1994) or

"only a handful" (Myung-Soo Lee et al., 1997), it is in these terms that authors qualify the amount of empirical studies in the sponsorship literature. Even then, all empirical studies do not take place in a real-life setting. Indeed, in its sponsorship effects literature review, Olson (2010) counted a total of twenty eight empirical studies where fourteen were actually lab experiments or the result of authors' manipulation. For instance, Gwinner & Eaton (1999) researched brand image transfer thanks to self-created posters featuring fictive sponsorship's events and sponsors names.

The relevance of simulated experiments to research a complex process such as sponsorship exposure and effects can be questioned. Sponsorship effects on brand image or brand attitude might be the result of repeated stimuli or an event's experience (Olson, 2010). Moreover, the use of fictitious brands to research brand image transfer seems obsolete as consumers cannot have existing brand attitudes or associations to transfer from a brand to another (Ruth & Simonin, 2003).

3.4.2.2. Sample Limitations

First, many studies exclusively use students for their samples (Carrillat et al., 2005; D'Astous & Bitz, 1995; Gi-Yong Koo et al., 2006; K. P. Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Hoek et al., 1997; Lardinoit & Quester, 2001; Pope & Voges, 1999; Rifon et al., 2004; Ruth & Simonin, 2003; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Speed & Thompson, 2000) which is an issue if students are not the target population. This issue could actually be addressed if findings were then generalized thanks to a replication study with another sample but it has rarely been the case, at least to the present authors' knowledge.

In addition, several studies use students in business/marketing (D'Astous & Bitz, 1995; Gi-Yong Koo et al., 2006; K. P. Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Hoek et al., 1997; Speed & Thompson, 2000) which might be a bias supposedly due to their knowledge in the field, especially if they are made aware of the research topic.

Then, several quantitative studies' samples do not meet the sample size requirements (Carrillat et al., 2005; D'Astous & Bitz, 1995; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006) which is one of the reasons cited by Comwell & Maignan (1998) to explain inconsistent findings in the field.

Lastly, the use of a same sample for longitudinal studies (Grohs et al., 2004; Hoek et al., 1997; P. G. Quester & Thompson, 2001; Woisetschläger & Michaelis, 2012), instead of a renewed sample before/after, may result in biases in the context of the sponsorship effects research. Indeed, a pre-event survey can sensitize respondents about the research objectives, lead them be more attentive to the event's stimuli and result in more educated answers to the post-event survey (Grohs et al., 2004; P. Quester & Farrelly, 1998). As an example,

Woisetschläger & Michaelis (2012) researched the sponsorship effects of the FIFA 2006 world cup on the T-Mobile sponsor using a pre-post event survey on the same sample. They mentioned in their limitations section that the methodology might have encouraged participants to "*watch the event more closely*" and increase their "*level of attention displayed during the event*", resulting in bias in the post survey answers.

3.4.2.3. Conscious Processing of Respondents

Many researchers collect data by asking respondents their opinion about how a sponsorship might affect them or by eliciting the sponsorship research topic, hence openly cuing them about the reason of the research (Alexandris et al., 2007; D'Astous & Bitz, 1995; Mao & Zhang, 2013; Sneath et al., 2005; Speed & Thompson, 2000).

The use of conscious processing of respondents is widespread in the sponsorship literature. For example, survey designs often feature questioning such as "*the sponsorship improves my perceptions about the team sponsor and its products*" (disagree / agree) (Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012), "*had (a brand name) sponsored the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, to what extent would your evaluation of the following aspects of the brand change?"* (Mao & Zhang, 2013) or *"respondents were told to assume that they were aware of a company's sponsorship of the football team and asked about their intentions toward buying that company's products or services."* (Madrigal, 2000)

Even though the present authors of this paper failed to find further support/critics to conscious questioning, they assume that making respondents aware that the research is about sponsorship or asking them to rate how they have been impacted by a sponsorship would not lead to the same results as an unconscious processing. Indeed, one can assume that some respondents would be tempted to answer "no, sponsorship has no effect on me" to assert their resistance to marketing stimuli and others would say "yes, I am more likely to buy this brand's products since they sponsor my favourite event" while not doing so in effect. Moreover, it is in line with Cornwell et al.'s (2005) recommendation: sponsorship effects researchers should tap into respondents' implicit memory rather than explicit memory and consider non-conscious processing methods.

3.4.2.4. Caveats Common in other Academic Research Fields

Sponsorship effects research also includes caveats or issues common to other fields of academic research. First, researchers sometimes use a single instrument scale for which validity and reliability has not been asserted (while it is recognized by Churchill (1979) and Plummer (1984)) to measure a multi-dimensional concept such as brand image or brand attitude e.g. (D'Astous & Bitz, 1995; Rowley & Williams, 2008). As an example, Rowley

& Williams (2008) mention they used a single question to assess if respondents' sponsor brand attitude was affected by a sponsorship. While they concede it is a limitation and not equivalent to a multi-instrument measure, they justify using it in order to keep the survey short and direct.

Then, some of the scales used do not measure the concept they are meant to measure. For instance, Woisetschläger & Michaelis (2012) investigated an event and sponsors' brand images using the following scale: "[Brand/event] is likeable", "I can identify myself with [brand/event]", "[brand/event] is attractive". However, this scale does not measure brand image but brand attitude as researchers learn about respondents' evaluation of the brand rather than the associations.

Finally, some survey administration designs are not well-suited for sponsorship effects research. As an example, in order to check, if a company involved in a sponsorship benefits from a better public image than one that does not. Javalgi et al. (1994) asked respondents to rate a company's image, informed them that this company sponsors a particular cause and asked again respondents to rate the brand image to check if there was any difference. Such a process is to the present authors' opinion, likely to lead to biases in responses.

3.4.3. Obstacles to Better Findings and Results Generalization

It is difficult to ensure that the sponsorship effects researched and identified are solely imputable to the sponsorship itself and not to any external variable (T. B. Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Grohs et al., 2004; Lardinoit & Quester, 2001; Sneath et al., 2005). For instance, these external influencers could be coming from the long term communication strategy of the brand (T. B. Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Sneath et al., 2005) or the competitive environment (a competitor could start a campaign at the same time) (Grohs et al., 2004). Moreover, if one is interested in researching the effects of the actual participation in a sponsored event, it is very delicate to separate the event participation from the other sponsor leveraging activities taking place before the event to which a participant might be exposed (Grohs et al., 2004; Lardinoit & Quester, 2001). Thus, difficulty in isolating the sponsorship from the extraneous variables might be one of the reasons for inconsistent findings in the sponsorship effects literature (T. B. Cornwell & Maignan, 1998).

Empirical research about sponsorship effects has mainly taken place in a sport context, limiting the generalization of the findings to other contexts (Abreu Novais & Arcodia, 2013; Olson, 2010; Rowley & Williams, 2008). While Rowley & Williams (2008) qualified research about art sponsorships effects on brand awareness and attitude as "relatively scant", it becomes relevant to question whether participants in a cultural event would be affected in the same manner as with sport events (K. P. Gwinner et al., 2009). Indeed, sport

events tend to drag important media attention (Abreu Novais & Arcodia, 2013) and offer sponsors bolder communication tools (billboard signs, banners) than in less mainstream contexts such as art. As a first contribution, a study replication in both a sport and a cultural context yielded the conclusion that both event types influence sponsor's brand attitude in the same way (Olson, 2010).

3.5. Conclusion and Research Hypotheses Formulation

Sponsorship growth over the last decades is mostly explained by the supposed efficiency attributed to sponsorships in achieving corporate objectives such as increasing brand awareness, communicating brand image, improving brand attitude and increasing purchase intentions for the sponsors. However, there is a lack of consistency in research literature's findings - raising marketing professionals and researchers' doubts (T. B. Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; K. Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; T. Meenaghan & O' Sullivan, 2001). Indeed, sponsorship effects have sometimes been weakly or strongly supported by some and not evidenced at all by others. Reason for these contradictory results is that there is no established tool and methodology to empirically measure sponsorship effects (Dolphin, 2003; Javalgi et al., 1994) which leads to weak methodologies and difficulties in isolating sponsorship effects.

Moreover, a thorough research methodology led to very weak sponsorship effects observed on commercial sponsors. Indeed, Jalleh et al. (2002) researched sponsorship effects on brand awareness and brand attitude of 3 concurrent sponsors (1 non-profit and 2 commercial) of an Australian football event using a pre – post event design and using distinct samples. Also, they replicated the same study design at a motor racing event with 3 other sponsors. In both cases, out of the 4 commercial sponsors (among which Coca Cola) none benefited from a significant effect on brand awareness and only one benefited from an effect on brand attitude. On the other hand, both non-profit sponsors benefited from significant awareness effect and one had a significant attitude improvement.

Since on the one hand weak research methodologies and methodologies failing to isolate sponsorship effects tend to evidence different, and sometimes contradictory, sponsorship effects and on the other hand one of the few thorough research methodologies shows very little evidence of sponsorship effects - present authors choose to research the phenomenon to clarify whether or not, sponsorship can lead to positive effects for a commercial sponsor.

In order to do so, present authors will elaborate a robust research methodology able to isolate sponsorship effects and investigate sponsorship's impact on most commonly researched constructs in the literature: brand awareness, brand attitude and purchase intention. However, brand image - the last construct usually researched in the literature - will not be object of this research but replaced by brand personality instead. This choice is justified by two reasons:

As previously stated, one of the reasons for sponsorship effects literature's inconsistent findings is the lack of established and replicable measurement tool (Dolphin, 2003; Javalgi et al., 1994). Since brand image refers to all types of brand associations held in consumers' memory (Keller, 1993) it is, to present authors' opinion, a construct that would always need a measurement relevant to the brand or context researched - hence making it hard to replicate. While the more specific nature of brand personality, "*the set of human characteristics associated with a brand.*" (J. L. Aaker, 1997, p. 347) and Aaker's well established brand personality scale (1997) makes it possible to replicate in various researches. From a conceptual standpoint, even though it does not substitute brand image, brand personality could be seen as a subset of brand image since it embraces one type of brand associations: the human personality associations. Thus, as stated by Caprara et al. (2001, p. 378) brand personality "*may be a viable metaphor for understanding consumers' perception of brand images.*" Lastly, David Aaker includes brand personality as one of the ten variables to use to measure brand equity in its Brand Equity Ten (1996b).

Since potential sponsorship effects on brand personality have, to the present authors' knowledge, never been researched, it is an opportunity to bring a novel contribution to the sponsorship effects academic literature. However, while being novel in this context, brand personality is a well-established construct consumers/respondents are familiar with and have no issues addressing in a research context (D. A. Aaker, 1996b; Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003).

Hence, the following research hypotheses have been formulated for the 4 research sub-questions:

Sub-question 1: What effect does participation in NorthSide 2013 have on "typical" festival participants' brand awareness about Royal Beer?

- H1: Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on typical festival participants' awareness of Royal Beer.

Sub-question 2: What effect does participation in NorthSide 2013 have on "typical" NorthSide participants' perception of Royal Beer's brand personality and can a potential effect be explained by a brand personality transfer from NorthSide to Royal Beer?

- H2: Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on festival participants' perception of Royal Beer's brand personality.
- $H2_{conditional}$: A potential effect is explained by a brand personality transfer from NorthSide to Royal Beer.

Sub-question 3: What effect does participation in NorthSide 2013 have on "typical" NorthSide participants' brand attitude towards Royal Beer?

- H3: Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on typical festival participants' attitude towards Royal Beer.

Sub-question 4: What effect does participation in NorthSide 2013 have on "typical" NorthSide participants' purchase intention of the Royal Beer brand?

- H4: Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on typical festival participants' purchase intention of the Royal Beer brand.

4. Case Introduction: Royal Beer and NorthSide

Since details such as Royal Beer's strategy or NorthSide participants' satisfaction might be of interest to explain the results of this research, present authors chose to introduce relevant information about Royal Beer, NorthSide and their sponsorship setup in the coming sections.

4.1. The Sponsor Royal Beer

4.1.1. A Royal Unibrew A/S Beer Brand

Royal Beer is part of Royal Unibrew A/S, a Copenhagen stock exchange listed beverage company (Royal Unibrew, 2013a) which is Scandinavia's leading beer exporter and Denmark's second largest beer provider (Royal Unibrew, 2013b). Royal Beer is Royal Unibrew's flagship beer brand on the Danish market but the beer assortment also includes Albani, Ceres, Thor, Slots and Faxe brands. Furthermore, Royal Unibrew also competes within domestic and international cider, malt and soft drinks markets; the latter including soda, mineral water and fruit juices (Royal Unibrew, 2013a).

4.1.2. Royal Beer

The Royal Beer brand was created in 2004 and took over the Aarhus-based beer brand Ceres' main assortment. Nowadays, the Royal Beer range is made of two volume drivers: Royal Pilsner and Royal Export, various strategic variants: Royal Classic, Royal Stout, Royal Brown Ale, Royal Red, Royal Free and two seasonal ones: Royal X-mas and Royal Easter (Royal Beer, 2014).

From a strategic perspective, Royal Beer targets urban males from 18 to 35 years old. Morten Wilms, Royal Beer brand manager, justifies targeting urban males since they tend to be outspoken, trend-setters and a group of the population where word of mouth spreads fast. Royal Beer positions itself as a music beer and more particularly a niche, rock music, beer (see appendices section 1). In terms of communication, it results in the ongoing, nationwide "Tak Rock!" (Thanks Rock!) campaign launched in 2010: television commercials shot in concert settings or featuring rock artists, limited edition cans featuring rock bands, sponsoring of up and coming rock bands festivals (e.g. SPOT festival) and niche rock music festivals (e.g. Copenhell). In order to engage deeper with the rock fans, Royal Beer created an online platform (royalbeer.tv) where upcoming bands can upload their music and seek for bookings as well as a "Tak Rock!" Facebook page (Royal Beer, 2014).

In 2012, Royal Beer was Denmark's 3rd beer brand in terms of sales volume with a market share of 10.7%, behind Carlsberg, 2nd with 21.7%, and Tuborg, 1st with a 30.5% market share (see appendices section 3). Nonetheless, the Royal Beer strategy seems to payoff. Indeed, the brand has continuously risen in total volume market shares since 2007 (from 9.5% to 10.7% in 2012) while Tuborg (from 31.7% to 30.5%) and to a lesser extent Carlsberg (from 22.3% to 21.5%) have both lost volume market shares (see appendices section 3). Finally, Royal Beer has a strong regional foothold in Jutland and especially in Aarhus (due to a common heritage with Ceres), while Carlsberg and Tuborg best performing region is Zealand and the Copenhagen area (see appendices section 1).

4.1.3. Royal Beer's Music Festival Sponsorship Strategy

Royal Beer sponsors a multitude of music festivals which are chosen according to two criterions: financial return on investment and strategic relevance of the event.

First, Royal Beer management evaluates each event's expected financial return on investment. They take into consideration the fixed sponsor fee plus the money needed to market/leverage the sponsorship versus how much beer sales can be expected at the event (see appendices section 1). Also, sponsorships are chosen because they fit a strategic purpose for Royal Beer. Below is a classification provided by Royal Beer brand manager explaining how an event can be of interest (see appendices section 1):

- **Royal Beer relevant sponsorships**: Music events with a big on-site sales volume potential (Tivoli Fredagsrock, Smukfest, NorthSide, Copenhell).
- **"Tak Rock!" campaign relevant sponsorships**: Rock music and up and coming rock bands festivals that give Royal Beer the opportunity to reinforce its rock music beer brand positioning (Copenhell, SPOT Festival, Uhørt).
- **Young & Urban segment relevant sponsorships**: Niche music events taking place in urban areas and attracting a young, urban, usually opinionated and first mover crowd (Distortion, Trailerpark, Frost).

Some of the events exclusively belonging to the two last categories would sometimes not meet the purely financial return on investment requirements and would then be chosen for image-related benefits (e.g. Frost festival taking place in February). However, for which exact benefits?

The answer to this question is unclear as Royal Beer management does not track event sponsorships effects. Actually, Royal Beer manager's opinion about sponsorship effects tracking is rather defeatist: "*when you evaluate on sponsorship you can find thousands of things that say – get out of the sponsorship* ." Even though

he admits aiming at "*a long term effect*", an (image-related) "*something*", he stresses how difficult it is to measure brand image or equity and identify the source of a shift. For instance, thanks to a brand tracking technique used by Royal Beer[1], it has been observed that consumers now perceive Royal Beer as Denmark's music beer, ahead of Tuborg (which has been pursuing a music beer positioning over 30 years with Grøn Concert, Skive Festival and Roskilde Festival). However, according to Morten Wilms "*nobody really knows*" which specific marketing tool, if any, made this achievement possible - even though his gut feeling tells him it was thanks to various "*Tak Rock!*" television commercials.

Other than that, Royal Beer often receives results from surveys conducted by the event organizer where they can check participants' demographics, average spending per capita and at best, a sponsor recall question (see appendix). Finally, when asked whether or not Royal Beer sponsorships generates a sales boost in particular regions, Morten Wilms answered "*not something that I recall being noticeable*" essentially because it is hard to isolate sponsorship effects on sales from other factors such as a price promotion and competitors' actions.

4.2. NorthSide Music Festival

NorthSide is a pop-rock music festival taking place every June in Aarhus, Denmark. As described by Morten Wilms, NorthSide could be considered a contemporary festival setup: it is an in-city festival with no camping area, hence attracting an urban crowd for a daily dose of 12 hours of live music (see appendices section 1). Since Royal Beer has been NorthSide main sponsor from the start, it has witnessed NorthSide's quick expansion. Indeed, what initially started in 2010 as a one-day event that welcomed 5 Danish artists and 5.000 participants quickly developed into a 3-days sold-out event, welcoming 41 international artists and 25.000 participants in 2013 (NorthSide, 2013a). Festival goers increasing enthusiasm for NorthSide is also noticeable in ticket sales: in September 2012, 3.000 "early-bird tickets" (3-days tickets at a discounted price) were sold in a week while no artist had yet been announced for the 2013 edition (NorthSide, 2013f).

In terms of demographics, NorthSide tends to attract slightly more women than men (56% of women in 2012; 56% of women in 2013) and participants' age average was 28.4 years old in 2012. Then, roughly half of NorthSide participants (46% in 2012; 49% in 2013) come from the Aarhus commune, a quarter from the Copenhagen area (20% in 2012; 27% in 2013), a bit less than 5% come from foreign countries (3% in 2012; 4%

[1] Every month a media agency administer by phone the same questionnaire about Royal Beer to a renewed panel of a thousand people

in 2013) and the approximately 20% left come from other areas of Denmark (NorthSide, 2012; NorthSide, 2013d).

4.3. Royal Beer and NorthSide's 2013 Sponsorship Arrangement

Royal Beer is NorthSide 2013's main sponsor and one of the only two commercial sponsors together with Spotify, an online music streaming platform (NorthSide, 2014).

In order to be NorthSide's main sponsor, Royal Beer pays an annual "flat fee" and an "activation fee" which usually equals half of the annual fee. This activation fee is money that Royal Beer commits to invest in promoting the event (see appendices section 1).

While negotiating any sponsorship, Royal Beer tries to push the Royal Unibrew's brand assortment. Thus, at NorthSide 2013 one could find not only Royal Beer but also Tempt ciders, Pepsi sodas (under license), Egekilde mineral water and Faxe Kondi Booster energy drinks. Lastly, and to be as precise as possible, Royal Beer only sold Royal Pilsner on tap; served in plastic cups and in pitchers during NorthSide 2013 (see appendices section 1).

Prior to the festival, both Royal Beer and NorthSide conjointly engaged in promotional campaigns in order to: gain awareness and sell tickets for NorthSide and to strengthen the link between the two entities for Royal Beer (see appendices section 1). As an example, Royal Beer invested some of the sponsorship activation money, on NorthSide's management request, in a nationwide outdoor campaign featuring both NorthSide's line-up and a Royal Beer pack shot (see appendices section 1). Another example of collaboration was the opening of a pop-up shop in downtown Aarhus for 10 days. The idea was to welcome Aarhus' youth population into a lounge area and discuss the organization of the event while a few bands from the *royalbeer.tv* platform would be playing on evenings (NorthSide, 2013b). In addition, a concert was organized at Pumpehuset venue in Copenhagen (NorthSide, 2013e) and a music-quiz at Aarhus University (NorthSide, 2013c).

On the festival site, Royal Beer did a conventional use of merchandise and signage to assert its presence. Regarding merchandise, the Royal Beer logo was placed on beer cups and pitchers, on participants' entrance wristbands and the bar staff handed out disposable Royal Beer branded rain jackets when it rained. In terms of signage, Royal Beer had fully decorated bars with banners and the Royal Beer logo was placed at the top of both main stages. Since there was television coverage and since participants shared pictures on various social media platforms, one could assume that Royal Beer reached a visibility that goes beyond the sole event's participants.

4.4. Justification for Choice of Case

4.4.1. A Beer Brand Sponsoring a Music Festival

As stated by various authors, most of the empirical research about sponsorship effects takes place in a sport sponsorship context (Abreu Novais & Arcodia, 2013; Grohs et al., 2004; Olson, 2010). Even though Olson (2010) evidenced that brand attitude could be influenced in the same way by a sport sponsorship or a cultural sponsorship, it appears relevant to conduct a research about other sponsorship effects than just brand attitude on a cultural case such as a music festival.

Moreover, a beer brand sponsoring a music festival is a rather common sponsorship arrangement so findings from this present case could be relevant for many beer brands and music festivals. One could assume the reasons for this widespread collaboration are: an obvious functional fit (K. Gwinner, 1997), since beers are often served in music festivals and a relevant segment at reach for beer brands. Indeed, music festivals tend to be great venues for brands targeting a young demographic segment (Rowley & Williams, 2008), which is often the case of beer brands interested in entering consumers ' lives before they shape their preferences. Thus, depending on findings, both beer brands and music festivals' sponsorship bargaining power could be affected.

4.4.2. Royal Beer Sponsoring NorthSide

Present authors, even though it is mostly based on subjective criterions, perceive Royal Beer sponsoring 2013 NorthSide as a well-suited case to research a beer brand sponsoring a music festival. To begin with, this sponsorship is free from any previous sponsors of NorthSide that could influence the outcomes of this research since Royal Beer has been NorthSide's main sponsor and only beer sponsor since its humble beginning in 2009. Moreover, three years - the duration of this ongoing sponsorship, seems to be an appropriate duration to research sponsorship effects in opposition to longer sponsorships that are quite embedded in people's minds such as the 42 years old Roskilde festival sponsored by Tuborg.

Then, Royal Beer leverages its NorthSide 2013 sponsorship with conventional on-site communication tools (signage, branded cups etc.) in comparison, for instance, with the wooden tailor-made on-site tools used in their Smukfest sponsorship. Thus, as sponsorship-linked marketing can be a great influencer of sponsorship outcomes (Crimmins & Horn, 1996; Fahy et al., 2004; Grohs et al., 2004; T. Meenaghan, 1991), results from this research would be free of any out-of-the-box sponsorship-linked marketing methods that would not be generalizable to other setups.

Moreover, there seems to be a natural fit (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006) or an image-based similarity (K. Gwinner, 1997) between both entities since Royal Beer is perceived as the Danish music beer (see appendices section 1). It is of importance since several authors have found that congruence between the sponsor and the sponsored object should be sought since it enhances sponsorship effects (T. B. Cornwell et al., 2006; Misra & Beatty, 1990; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Zdravkovic et al., 2010).

Finally, NorthSide's 25.000 participants give present authors the practical opportunity to meet samples' requirements.

5. Methods

While the research philosophy and the research approach have been explained in depth in section 2, in this chapter the inner layers of the research process, namely research methodology, strategy, time horizon, sampling method and data collection techniques and procedures will be explained and justified.

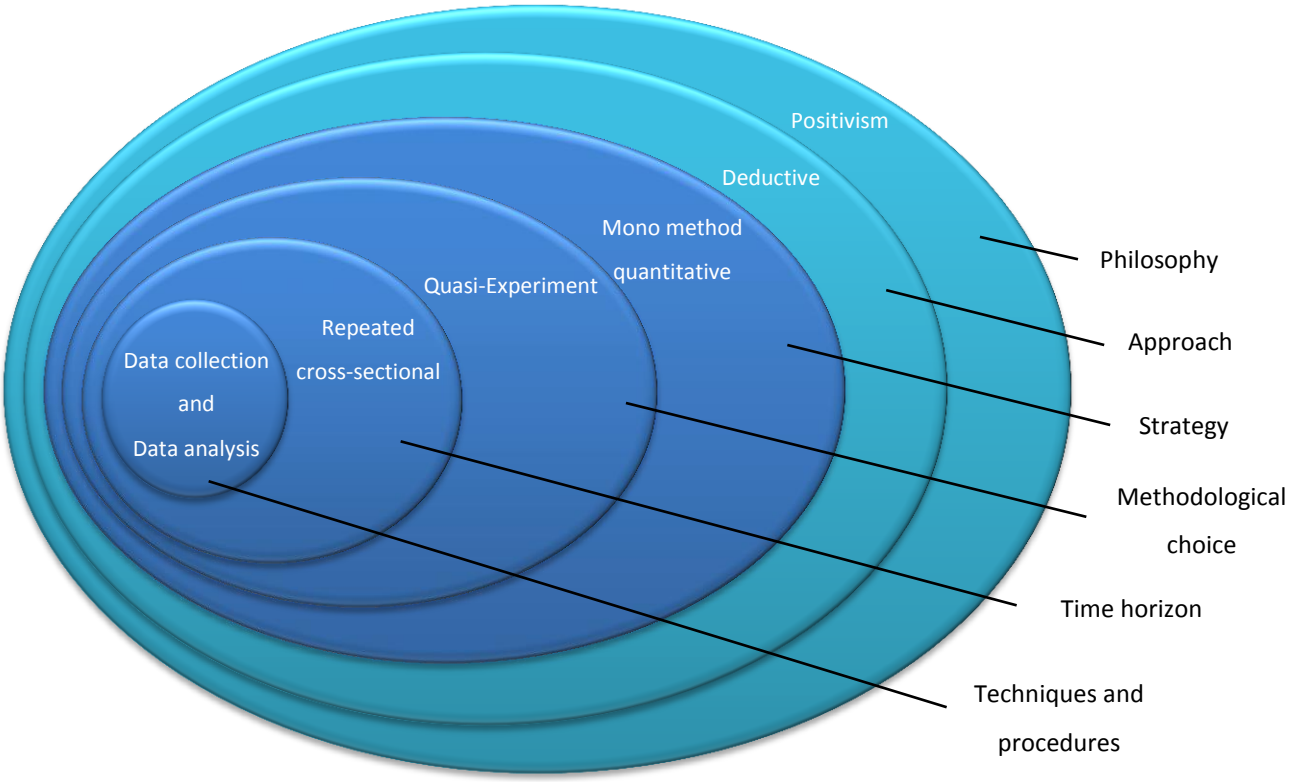


Figure 2: Adapted version of Saunders, Lewis, & Thornwill's research "onion" framework (2012).

5.1. Research Design Elaboration

In order to provide the most accurate and valid answer to the research question, this section starts with an elaboration on the most appropriate research design. In pursuance of this objective, present authors needed to be careful not to replicate the common methodological mistakes described in both the introduction and the literature review of this thesis which account for the lack of consistency in the sponsorship effects literature. An important limitation to the present authors' opinion is the conscious processing of respondents that might result in impressions rather than facts - hence focus was on designing a research which would ensure a fully unconscious processing of the respondents. In addition, research design also needed to be manageable within

present authors' time, data access and money constraints. As a result, a pre-post event quasi-experimental design with separate samples and control groups has been chosen with the use of questionnaires as data collection method.

Following the presentation of the research design, the present authors will explain in details how this research design has been tailored to fit the research purpose and to ensure internal validity and external validity: "*Internal validity refers to the confidence with which researchers can make causal inferences from the results of a particular empirical study*." (B. Brewer Marilynn, 2004, p. 503) Hence in this research, it would be the identification of participation in NorthSide as the cause of the potentially observed effects. Present authors therefore acknowledge the following threats to internal validity: past or recent events, testing, instrumentation, maturation and ambiguity about causal direction (Saunders et al., 2012). External validity is concerned with the generalization of the findings beyond a sample population or a specific case (Saunders et al., 2012). As stated in the introduction, present authors aim at an accurate sampling of typical NorthSide participants - for reasons explained later in the sample section - to be able to generalize to the whole typical NorthSide participants and hope to rely on a successful real-life setting experiment to generalize to similar sponsorship cases.

5.1.1. Methodological Choice: A Mono Method Quantitative Research

The current authors believe that a quantitative research is the only practically possible method to track changes in this sponsorship setting. A quantitative approach can reduce "*ambiguity by transforming perceptions into structured quantifiable categories.*" (Heding et al., 2009, p. 133) Thus, it would allow for comparable measurements of the participants' perceptions of the sponsor and examination of relationships between variables - particularly relevant for the identification of a potential brand personality transfer from NorthSide to Royal Beer. To be more precise, present authors will use a quantitative mono method design that underlies using a "*single (quantitative) data collection technique and corresponding analytical procedure*" (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 163).

Identified by Cornwell, Weeks & Roy (2005) as a limitation to some of the existing sponsorship effects' findings (Alexandris et al., 2007; Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012; D'Astous & Bitz, 1995; Madrigal, 2000; Mao & Zhang, 2013; Martensen et al., 2007; Sneath et al., 2005; Speed & Thompson, 2000), conscious processing of the respondents was to be avoided in this research. Indeed, present authors argue that respondents' belief about how a certain sponsorship affects them is not an unbiased and therefore internally valid data. If present

authors were to choose a qualitative research design, it would probably have resulted in a conscious processing of the respondents and thus, in such data. A qualitative design was deemed inappropriate for the present research objectives.

5.1.2. Strategy: A Pre-post Event Quasi-experiment with Independent Samples

Present authors considered an experiment with questionnaires as a data collection method as the best research strategy to test the previously stated hypotheses and fulfil the research objectives. Indeed, the experimental strategy, stemming from natural sciences and thus positivism (Saunders et al., 2012) is known to be particularly robust to "draw causal inferences". (De Vaus, 2006, p. 107) An experiment would typically involve researching the effects of a treatment condition, or independent variable, on dependent variable(s) for a particular experimental group. In the meantime, a control group of a similar composition as the experimental group would not be exposed to this treatment so that their results can be compared and the source of the effects on the dependent variable(s) potentially identified (Saunders et al., 2012).

In this specific research the independent variable is defined as the participation and present authors will assess its impact, if any, on the dependent variables which are the potential effects under scrutiny: brand awareness, brand personality, brand attitude and brand intention.

In a true experiment, researchers would randomly select and assign the experiment subjects to either the treatment group or the control group (Peng, 2004). However, for resource and access limitations, present fail to comply with these requirements and had to use a non-probability sampling method which makes it a quasi-experiment strategy (more details on the sampling method chosen and justification in section 5.1.3). Quasi-experiment is an accepted research strategy and is defined as an experiment where the subjects are non-randomly selected and assigned to the treatment or non-treatment condition (Shadish & Clark, 2004). As non-random assignation of subjects to the experiment may damage internal validity and the ability to evidence a causal inference, researchers will need to rely on practical logic and statistical analysis to clear the independent variable from any other extraneous variable or rival explanation (Shadish & Clark, 2004).

Another feature of true experiment is researchers' manipulation/control of the independent variable, or treatment (Peng, 2004). However in the present case it was impossible for present authors to manipulate - or even have an influence - on the occurrence of NorthSide 2013. On the one hand it is a threat to internal validity since there is less control over the context and the extraneous variables (Saunders et al., 2012), but present authors will ensure an accurate understanding of the treatment by monitoring Royal Beer practices at

NorthSide 2013. On the other hand, a real-life experiment taking place outside of a laboratory setting provides additional external validity with an evident "real-world applicability" (Green, 2004) which is a common weakness of laboratory experiments (Saunders et al., 2012). Furthermore, it addresses the need for field experiment design within sponsorship effects research (K. P. Gwinner & Eaton, 1999).

Thus, this particular quasi-experiment design could be assimilated with a natural experiment where the "treatment" is naturally occurring and the assignment of subjects to treatment group beyond the researcher's control (Messer, 2008).

5.1.2.1. Experimental Design Features

Below, present authors will explain in-depth their particular experimental design choices: a pre- post event with separate samples, control groups and the choice for including a NorthSide questionnaire.

- **A Pre-post Event Study**

If the authors were to use a single post-event cross-sectional study it would result in a snapshot of festival participants' perception of Royal Beer at a particular moment in time (Hall, 2008), which is irrelevant for the purpose of this research. Indeed, a change is relative and can only exist in comparison to the initial condition. Thus, a pre-post event study was for present authors the only solution to assess if the after festival participants' perception of Royal Beer has changed in comparison to their before factual perceptions of the brand. A pre-post event design such as this research is common practice for experiments (De Vaus, 2006). For a matter of internal validity, in such a pre-post event study, respondents should not be interviewed immediately after the festival since they would be more prone to uncovering the reason of the research. Hence, festival participants would be interviewed a week before the festival and a week after with separate, yet similar, Royal Beer questionnaires.

In the completion of a pre-post event study, present authors then had the choice between: a longitudinal study requiring the same sample of respondents before and after the event (Menard, 2004); and a repeated cross-sectional study using separate samples of respondents before and after the event (Hall, 2008). Since it involves questioning the same sample of respondents twice, a longitudinal study entails a threat to the internal validity. Indeed by answering a pre-experiment questionnaire, respondents can be sensitized and "*distort their reaction to the experimental treatment.*" (Grohs et al., 2004, p. 125) Such a study could as well lead to "demand characteristic effects" (P. Quester & Farrelly, 1998), where respondents would for instance provide post-answers the researcher hopes for. Moreover, Quester & Thompson (2001) who conducted a very similar

experiment design to research sponsorship effects with the same sample of respondents before and after the event mentioned a demand effect as a potential weakness. Therefore, to eliminate these potential threats to the data quality present authors have chosen a repeated cross-sectional study.

While only longitudinal studies give researchers the opportunity to track changes at an individual respondent level, it was not a requirement of present authors' research since they will still be able to investigate whether sponsorship has effects at a group average level.

Furthermore, as a matter of internal validity, post event respondents should not be interviewed immediately after the festival since they would be more prone to uncovering the reason of the research which in this specific case would call for a participant error. Hence, festival participants would be interviewed a week before the festival and a week after.

- Control Groups

As previously stated, several contributors to sponsorship in the academic field pointed out the general difficulty in identifying the sponsorship arrangement as the only plausible cause of the observed effects (T. B. Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Grohs et al., 2004; Lardinoit & Quester, 2001; Sneath et al., 2005). In pursuance of this aim, present authors believed the use of a control group, a characteristic feature of the experimental strategy was appropriate since it could help identifying the cause of potential effects (Peng & Ziskin, 2008). As such, the use of a control group has been suggested by Grohs, Wagner, & Vsetecka (2004) to ensure that an image change (in our case personality) is actually due to the sponsorship and nothing else.

"*Ideally, the control group and the experimental groups are identical in every way except that the experimental groups are subjected to treatments or interventions believed to have an effect*" (Godby, 2008, p. 233) which in this research is the participation in NorthSide festival. As a result, out of the pre-event sample and the post-event sample, the respondents indicating they have bought a ticket for NorthSide/been to NorthSide will constitute the pre or post-event experimental group while the rest will be part of a pre or post-event control group. Thus, present authors' aim is to proceed to a matching procedure (Gill & Walsh, 2010) where thanks to a similar data collection method, the experimental groups and the control group should share the same demographics. Creating a control group on similar demographics as the experimental group was also the choice of Quester & Thompson (2001) for their experimental research of event sponsorship effects that did not evidence any issues when it came to comparing the experimental and the control groups' results.

Furthermore, present authors will monitor Royal Beer and concurrent brands' marketing practices during this 3 weeks period. In effect, another music event, festival or concert sponsorship during the experimental period could potentially be an alternative explanation to eventual effects observed since it would appeal to the exact same participants (see section 6.1).

- **A NorthSide Questionnaire**

Present authors chose to investigate NorthSide's brand personality in order to be able to discuss a potential brand personality transfer from the event to the sponsor. While both the control group and the monitoring of Royal Beer practices during the research period would enable present authors to conclude of a sponsorship effect on brand personality - it would not be enough to discuss a transfer between the two entities. As a fictive example to justify the relevance of a NorthSide data, it could be that when comparing the pre-event and the post-event answers of the experimental group, Royal Beer personality significantly gains in "excitement" and loses in "sophistication" and that the cause of this change is identified as participation in NorthSide (no significant shift for the control group). Then, present authors would be able to use the NorthSide data to check if the shift is in concordance with NorthSide's specific scores on these two dimensions and discuss a brand personality transfer. If the shift in Royal Beer's personality can be explained by NorthSide's personality, then present author could conclude to a transfer from NorthSide's brand personality. If the shift in Royal Beer's personality cannot be attributed to NorthSide's personality, but attributed anyhow to the sponsorship since such a shift had not been observed for the control group, a rival explanation could be that it has been influenced by the music festival "product" category rather than the specific festival NorthSide. Indeed, it could be assumed that festival participants associate Royal Beer with the excitement and non-sophistication of music festivals in general, rather than with NorthSide very high sophistication (in comparison to average music festival) for instance.

From a practical perspective, present authors were only interested in festival participants post-event factual opinion about NorthSide so a pre-event study on this latter would be irrelevant. However, one could not simply add a NorthSide section to the post-event Royal Beer questionnaire since respondents would automatically have linked the two entities and potentially uncovered the topic of this research - which would in turn have resulted in biased answers.

Therefore, present authors will administrate a post-event NorthSide questionnaire a week after the event using a similar sampling method as both Royal Beer questionnaires, so that answers to these three questionnaires can be analysed in the light of each other. Lastly, a separate NorthSide questionnaire will also be an

opportunity for present authors to incorporate additional research themes such as proper sponsorship recall and recognition - hardly possible with the unconscious processing of the Royal Beer questionnaires.

The research strategy design can be represented graphically in figure 3.

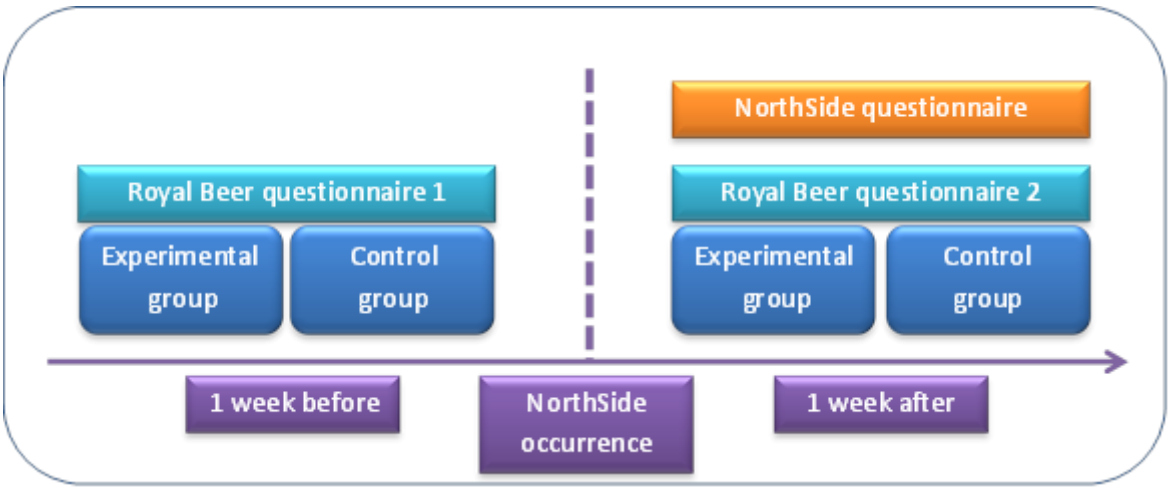


Figure 3: Research strategy design proposed by the current authors.

5.1.3. Sampling Method

Since the event was sold-out even by the beginning of this research, present authors were aware that the total amount of participants was 25,000 people (NorthSide, 2013a). As it was obviously impracticable, nor needed, to do a census, sampling was to be used. "*Sampling techniques enable you to reduce the amount of data you need to collect by considering only data from a subgroup rather than all possible cases of elements.*" (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 258)

If the target population had to be all NorthSide participants, the most appropriate sampling technique for an experiment would have been probability sampling where "*the chance, or probability, of each case being selected from the population is known and is usually equal for all cases.*" (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 261) As a consequence to conducting a probability sampling, one must know the sampling frame which "*is a complete list of all the cases in the population from which your sample will be drawn*" (p.262) (Saunders et al., 2012). However, present authors failed to convince NorthSide management team to share 2013 participants' informations, so a probability sampling could not be undertaken. Even if such agreement would have come into play, it would have proven difficult to obtain perfectly similar samples.

Since present authors could not gain access to the sampling frame, it was necessary to opt for a non-probability sampling as suggested by Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2012). It led present authors to opt for a manageable and accessible target population that could be sampled representatively: typical NorthSide participants and an appropriate non-probability sampling technique: purposive sampling.

These sampling choices are justified by two important sampling objectives stated and justified hereafter:

5.1.3.1. Festival Participating Respondents

It was of utmost importance to reach "some" NorthSide participants for this research to even exist. However, it would prove difficult identifying them - even more taking into account the unconscious processing requirement set as an objective of this research.

Present authors knew that the 2013 edition would welcome 25.000 guests, which represents approximately 0.5% of the overall population of Denmark (Statistics Denmark, 2013). A 0.5% chance of interviewing a festival participant through a random sampling being too low for the present authors' time and money constraints, the need for a purposive sampling technique was clear. With a purposive sampling, researchers use their judgement to select respondents that will best ensure an answer to the research question and the meeting of the research objectives (Saunders et al., 2012). Hence, the need for festival participants to compose the three separate samples was so crucial for the conduct of this research that a purposive sampling was evident, which is often the only solution when faced with a population difficult to reach (Hussey, 2010).

Present authors were then interested in understanding what the demographics of a typical NorthSide participant are and to know where to reach him/her. To do so, a thoroughly conducted Epinion survey research about participants' satisfaction with the NorthSide 2011 edition was used (see appendices section 4). Since this research contained a demographics section it was possible to discover that out of the 16.000 participants, 48% were men, 79% of the guests were between 18 and 34 years old for an age average of 28.5 years old, 62% lived in Midtjylland (46% in Aarhus), 38% from other regions in Denmark and 40% of them were students.[2] In the light of these characteristics, it was decided to pursue a modal instance sampling, which involves targeting respondents for which there is a potentially higher frequency of occurrence that they are NorthSide 2013 participants (Danniel, 2012). As a result, present authors identified a "typical" NorthSide participant as being a man or woman (48% were men in 2011) between 18 and 35 years old (79% of the 2011 guests) and living in

[2] Epinion 2011 research (appendices section 4) - 29% between 18 and 24; 30% between 25 and 29; 20% between 30 and 34.

Aarhus (46% of the 2011 guests) (see appendices section 4). Thus, present authors decided to undertake the data collection in Aarhus at identified places where people between 18 and 35 could be found. Contrary to random sampling, there is no set rule to decide on a non-random sample size (Saunders et al., 2012) but since it was unknown how many of the respondents would actually be NorthSide 2013 participants, especially due to the difficulty of the unconscious processing, the objective was to interview as many people matching with the target population as possible over the days of presence in Aarhus. In the meantime, an online questionnaire was shared on websites where this relevant category of people could be found. There will be further details in the data collection section that follows.

5.1.3.2. Obtaining 3 Homogeneous Samples

The second sampling requirement for this research was the need for the Royal Beer questionnaires pre and post-event samples and the NorthSide questionnaire sample to be homogeneous. Indeed, if present authors want to analyse the answers from these three samples in the light of another, it is primordial that they are of consistent composition. Moreover, since pre and post-event Royal Beer questionnaires' samples will be split in an experimental and a control group, they ought to be similar so that the comparison holds.

Present authors plan to achieve this objective by first targeting the specific population established earlier: men or women living in Aarhus with an age comprised between 18 and 35 years old. In addition to these demographics similarities, present authors will go to the same Aarhus sites at the same time of the day and use the same online platforms to proceed with the data collection of the three questionnaires which should ensure at least a certain degree of behavioural similarities for these three samples.

5.1.4. Data Collection

In pursuance of their experiment strategy, present authors opted for three self-completed questionnaires as data collection method, two for Royal Beer (pre and post-event) that differ only slightly and one for NorthSide. Questionnaires are a common data collection method within experimental designs and an efficient way to collect responses to a pre-determined order of questions that enables researchers to investigate eventual relationships in the variables (Saunders et al., 2012).

Present authors relied on a mixed-mode survey administration method. Indeed, in order to reach out a maximum of typical NorthSide participants, both self-administered online and self-administered paper-based questionnaires were chosen to utilize the online and offline channels. Furthermore, since no single survey

method is superior in all situations, the current authors have applied two methods to supplement each other's strengths and compensate for each other's weaknesses (Malhotra et al., 2013).

The current researchers chose self-administered questionnaires, since they help to compensate for interviewer bias if the questionnaires are designed properly and questions are not leading. More about the questionnaire design in the next section 5.2.

The simple term 'online' is used for all internet surveys hosted on a website. There are many advantages of an online survey; in this research the following characteristics were particularly useful: the cost, speed and data quality (Malhotra et al., 2013). The online data collection with an electronic questionnaire can often be faster and cheaper than paper-based questionnaires on the street or telephone interviews, depending on the online forum used to obtain the responses of course. The data quality of responses is usually also much higher for online questionnaires, since "*logic and validity checks can be built in thus allowing the development of more personalised questionnaire designs.*" (Malhotra et al., 2013, p. 124) The respondents of the questionnaires in the present research could simply not move to the next page without filling in all possible answers, there would be no missing answers.

The online version of the questionnaire would be developed with SurveyXact[3], a free-for-students provider of survey tools. SurveyXact offer the possibility to create multiple individual links or general links to the different surveys and send out e-mails.

Ease of contact to certain target groups is usually a characteristic of an online questionnaire, but as mentioned in the previous section the present researchers anticipated that it would prove difficult to reach the target population without also going where they were greatest in numbers. Therefore it was decided to make paper-based versions of the questionnaires to be handed out at different localities in Aarhus. A paper-based survey is of course more time consuming and more expensive. And even though the questionnaire was a self-administered version, the sheer presence of the interviewer could have an effect on the respondents. On the other hand the presence of the interviewers could also influence the participation rate of the respondents positively, because respondents could not ignore the questionnaire as easily as with the online version. Paper versions of the questionnaires were prone to more respondent's error, since simple mistakes could be made when filling out the questionnaire, but the interviewers were aware of the risks and would make sure that the questionnaires were filled out completely upon return.

[3] www.survey-xact.dk

The online versions and the paper versions of the questionnaires were of course created as identical as possible, but there were some differences in the layout. The online versions of the questionnaires had one family of questions on each page. The paper version of the beer questionnaire had to be constructed with both discriminatory questions and the top-of-mind awareness questions on the first page (see appendices section 5), so that it would not be revealed that the rest of the questionnaire was about Royal Beer until the respondent turned to the next page. The participants were told by the interviewer not to look ahead while filling out the questionnaires. All questions in the online version would be randomly presented, while they were kept static in the paper-based version.

The online beer questionnaires were distributed on the social media platform Facebook through people that lived in Aarhus and within the targeted age range, again to have the highest possible chance of capturing stereotypical festival participants. In the meantime, these questionnaires might reach festival participants of different age group or city of residence than the primary target population. Such respondents would not be automatically discarded from the samples before present authors check if such variables have an influence of sponsorship effects. Hence, they would only be kept for the data analysis if they are equally represented in the various samples (to keep them consistent) and if statistic tests show no effect of these covariates on sponsorship effects.

The online festival questionnaire would also be distributed through Facebook, but with the NorthSide Festival name on the headline to attract festival participants. For a feedback on how the actual data collection went on, see section 6.2.

5.2. Questionnaires Design and Justification for Choice of Measurements

As the three questionnaires were the only primary data source of this research, a great care was taken to ensure they would provide all the relevant data needed to answer the research question. As pointed out by Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill (2012, p. 419), it "*is of paramount importance because (...) you are unlikely to have more than one opportunity to collect the data*". While elaborating the questionnaires, present authors have had a constant focus on optimizing questionnaires' flow and length and on using reliable and valid measurements.

To start with, questionnaires have been written in Danish in order to avoid any meaning or wording ambiguity that could have happened, especially with the brand personality scales' adjectives (Alreck & Settle, 1985).

Then, it was important for the validity of this research that respondents do not become aware, or at least not before the last question, of the research topic: sponsorship effects. Hence, the placement of the different questions and the questionnaire flow has been carefully thought of.

Also, in order to accurately measure the various marketing constructs at stake in this research, present authors have striven for reliable and valid measurements. A measurement is deemed reliable to "*the extent that independent but comparable measures of the same trait or construct of a given object agree.*" (Churchill Jr., 1979) In other words, to be reliable, a measurement should elicit over and over the same type of information from a respondent if he/she was questioned under an identical process. However, reliability is not all. A measurement should also be valid, which is achieved when "*the differences in observed scores reflect true differences on the characteristic one is attempting to measure and nothing else*". (Churchill Jr., 1979) Thus, the measurement is accurately measuring the construct it is set to measure.

Concretely and first of all, present authors favoured multi-item measurements over single-item measurement to measure complex constructs such as brand personality and brand attitude since "no single item is likely to provide a perfect representation of the concept" (Churchill Jr., 1979). Indeed, multi-item measurements are more accurate and complete since they feature distinct attributes of the construct (Churchill Jr., 1979). Moreover, multi-item measurements provide authors with greater distinctions between respondents (Churchill Jr., 1979) which is useful for the data analysis.

In addition, existing and replicated measurements with proven internal consistency have been preferred to novel measurements to measure brand personality and brand attitude. No scale with an acknowledged Cronbach's Alpha below 0.82 has been used, hence ensuring at least a very good homogeneity of the various items of the scale (Multon & Coleman, 2010). Furthermore, in line with most of these established measurements, present authors favoured the use of Likert scales which give the opportunity to obtain summated values and a concrete score for opinion constructs (Alreck & Settle, 1985).

Lastly and for questions asking about respondents' opinion, an "I don't know" answer has always been added to the set of possible answers. By doing so, present authors intend to reduce the uninformed response errors rate - when respondents answer without having an opinion - or the use of a scale's midpoint as a substitute (Dolnicar & Grün, 2013).

In the following part, the different questions and scales chosen will be introduced and justified.

5.2.1. Brand Awareness and Sponsorship Awareness Questions

In order to check if NorthSide's sponsorship has an effect on respondents' brand awareness of Royal Beer, present authors chose to use a brand recall question rather than a brand recognition one. Indeed, the sometimes indiscriminately high results obtained through brand recognition (Singh, Rothschild, & Churchill Jr., 1988) would have been an issue when researching Royal Beer awareness since it is, to the present authors' assumption, a brand known by most Danish people. Thus, both Royal Beer questionnaires have the same unaided brand recall question where respondents are only cued with the beer product category (Q6: *Name the 3 first beer brands you can think about:* ordinal, fill-in-the-blank variable*: 1. / 2. / 3.*). If respondents are requested to insert three beer brands names, it is again to get the most interesting and discriminatory results for this research. First, present authors assumed that since Carlsberg and Tuborg are Danish beer market leaders (see appendices section 3); they would be the most recalled ones - resulting in too little Royal Beer mentions to analyse.

In addition, both Royal Beer questionnaires include a sponsorship recognition question where respondents need to mark, out of an exhaustive list of 13 Danish music festival, the ones they believe are sponsored by Royal Beer (Q12: *Which of these music festival is sponsored by Royal Beer?* Multiple-options variable*: see list in questionnaire,* (appendices section 5). This question cannot be assimilated to a straight sponsorship recognition question where NorthSide would have been the sole music festival (e.g. Does Royal Beer sponsor NorthSide?) but it is the only way, to the present authors' opinion, to avoid response bias. Furthermore, answers to this question will still provide insights about respondents' awareness of the sponsorship prior to the festival start versus after - for both people that have been to the festivals and the ones that have not.

NorthSide's questionnaire contains both a sponsor recall and a sponsor recognition question that will provide details on how successful Royal Beer and NorthSide were in creating awareness about this sponsorship. First, respondents need to answer a filter question and indicate if they know NorthSide's main sponsor (Q11: *Do you know who NorthSide's main sponsor is?* Dichotomous variable: *Yes/No*). If they answer "Yes", they need to write down the name of this sponsor but if they answer "No", they will be forwarded to a sponsorship recognition question with a list of the four main beer brands in Denmark from which they need to pick one (Q13: *Can you recognize the main sponsor among these beer brands?* Single-option variable: *Carlsberg/Tuborg/Royal Beer/Harboe/I don't know*). This sponsorship recognition question, where respondents are more prompted, will clearly sanction whether or not the sponsorship was successfully communicated (Romaniuk & Wight, 2009).

5.2.2. Brand Personality Questions

By using brand personality the current researchers would have a viable way of "*reducing consumers' perceptions of how a brand can be characterized, described and perceived as a personality into a structured set of brand personality dimensions."* (Heding et al., 2009p. 133) And here the assumption is that these dimensions could then be used to compare the changes that a brand might undergo by being part of a sponsorship.

J. Aaker's (1997) brand personality scale is chosen as the appropriate measurement tool, since it is recommended to use scales in which validity and reliability have been established and documented (Plummer, 1984). The 42 traits are too many variables for the respondents to give answer to though, so instead the 15 facets that the 42 traits are divided into are used. Wysong et al. (2012) actually used Aaker's 15 facets to uncover the personality of beer brands and did not encounter any issues in the process. As discussed in the literature review section 3.2.3, the scale has proven solid with different types of brands and industries, but has often been criticized for not being robust in all cultural settings. To try and make the scale suitable for both a beer brand and a festival brand as recommended by Sirgy (1982) and D. Aaker (1996a), whilst at the same time making it more fit to the Danish culture and translating the traits into Danish: a focus group would be put together. Because of the positivistic nature of this paper and the mind-set of the researchers, the focus group would have to be structured and the researchers would try and make it very quantitative-like. "*Focus group interviews can share characteristics of survey research in that individuals are asked to participate in what is usually a structured interview on a pre-designated topic, often with a moderator or researcher who 'drops in' for the interview and then leaves with data to be analysed back in the office."* (Short, 2006) The current researchers would furthermore have the final word for choosing their preferred translation.

In appendices section 6 the discussion for choosing each of the words can be read in summary. The recording from the session will be available with the accompanying CD's in the cover of the thesis. In the first part of the interview each of the 5 participants were told to write down their individual interpretation and best fitting Danish words for the first facet. The second part of the focus group was for the participants to discuss the best fitting word in a Danish context of festivals and beers for that facet. The interviewers would make sure that everyone was heard and encouraged the respondents to come to an agreement. In case of no consensus, the researchers would ultimately choose the favourite word out of the respondents' suggestions. The process would continue until all 15 facets had been translated, localized and discussed.

Sincerity	Excitement	Competence	Sophistication	Ruggedness
Down-to-earth	**Daring**	**Reliable**	**Upper class**	**Outdoorsy**
'Uhøjtidelig'	'Vovet'	'Pålidelig'	'Glamourøs'	'Naturnær'
Honest	**Spirited**	**Successful**	**Charming**	**Tough**
'Ærlig'	'Livlig'	'Succesfuld'	'Charmerende'	'Rå'
Wholesome	**Imaginative**	**Up-to-date**		
'Gavnlig'	'Nytænkende'	'Moderne'		
Cheerful	**Intelligent**			
'Munter'	'Smart'			

Table 1: Translation of the 15 facets from Aaker's brand personality scale into Danish.

In the questionnaire the 15 facets would be divided into two groups: 8 facets on one page *(Q8)* and 7 facets on the next page *(Q9)*. It gave a better overview and should also avoid that some respondents would be overwhelmed by all 15 facets and decided not participate after all. The respondents were asked the following overall question: *Q8 and Q9: On a scale from one to seven, where '1' is "not at all descriptive", and '7' is "extremely descriptive", how does the following personality traits describe the brand Royal Beer?* The 15 facets where listed with a sentence that should clarify that the researchers wanted to know about the beer brand and not the beer itself: *"The beer brand Royal Beer is___"* and then a 7-point Likert scale with the following anchors: "*1 (not at all descriptive), 2, 3, 4 (moderately descriptive), 5, 6, 7 (extremely descriptive)"* and lastly a *"don't know / not relevant"* category.

The NorthSide questionnaire was similar, except that "*beer brand"* was changed to *"festival brand"*.

5.2.3. Brand Attitude Questions

To analyse whether or not a sponsorship can have an effect on a sponsor's brand attitude, both the before and after Royal Beer surveys feature Mitchell's brand attitude measurement (1986). It is a 3-items Likert scale where respondents are asked to indicate, for instance, whether they perceive the entity as "pleasant" or "unpleasant" on a 7-point semantic differential scale with the following anchors: "1.Unpleasant" - "7.Pleasant" (Q10: *What is your opinion about Royal Beer on the following items? Dislike/Like; Bad/Good; Unpleasant/Pleasant*). Initially tested by Mitchell (1986), this brand attitude scale is a reliable measurement as it has a high internal consistency with a 0.92 Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. Moreover, it has since been fully or partially reused by Keller (1987), Berger & Mitchell (1989) and Faircloth, Capella & Alford (2001).

The same brand attitude measurement has been included in the NorthSide survey (Q8) to verify if respondents having a better evaluation of NorthSide are more aware of Royal Beer being the sponsor than the respondents scoring low or hold a more accurate brand personality towards the festival.

5.2.4. Royal Beer Purchase Intention Question

So that sponsorship effects on sponsor's brand purchase intention can be analysed, a single question has been included in both Royal Beer questionnaires. Unlike the brand personality and brand attitude constructs that both use multi-item scales, present authors believe purchase intention can be researched with a single item question - as previously done by other researchers (Haley & Case, 1979; Keller, 1987; Kirmani, Sood, & Bridges, 1999; Mitchell, 1986) - which has the advantage of limiting questionnaires' length. Hence it is a single Likert-item question where respondents need to rate on a 7-point bipolar scale anchored with "1.Unlikely" - "7.Likely" their intention to buy Royal Beer next time they buy beer (Q11: *Would you choose Royal Beer next time you buy beer? Unlikely/Likely*).

5.2.5. Filter and Discriminatory Questions

5.2.5.1. Demographics

Four question investigating respondents' demographics have been included at the beginning of all three questionnaires. They ask about respondent's Gender (Q1: *What is your gender?* Dichotomous variable*: Male/Female*), Age (Q2: *How old are you?* Fill-in-the-blank response*)*, Occupation (Q3: *What is your occupation?* Multiple-options variable: *Student/Full-Time/Part-time/Unemployed/Other* – where *Other* was a fill-in-the-blank response) and Zip code (Q4: *What is your zip code?* Fill-in-the-blank response).

These questions will be used to determine if a respondent belongs to the previously stated population of interest for this research. Moreover, present authors will also check if any of these variables have an influence over the results. As an example, it could be that respondents from Aarhus assign Royal Beer a different brand personality than respondents from Copenhagen due to a difference in historical bonds with the brand or a difference in exposition to Royal Beer's marketing.

5.2.5.2. Royal Beer Questionnaires: Beer Drinking Frequency

Right after the demographic questions and in the beer questionnaires only, respondents are asked to indicate the frequency to which they drink beer (Q5: *How often do you drink beer?* Single-option variable*: Never/Less than once a month/Once a month/Every second week/Once a week/Between 2 and 6 days a week/Every day*). Thanks to this question, present authors will check if respondents that drink beer more often than others have a different perception of Royal Beer or a better sponsorship recall than the rest of the respondents, and vice versa. Furthermore, this question is necessary in order to properly analyse answers to the Royal Beer purchase intention. Indeed, respondents that never drink beer would probably answer "I don't know/Not relevant" or "Very unlikely" to the purchase intention question and interfere with the true purpose of this question: separating those willing/not willing to buy Royal Beer because they like/dislike the brand.

5.2.5.3. Knowledgeable about Royal Beer or NorthSide

Prior to answering any specific question about either Royal Beer or NorthSide, respondents are asked whether or not they know these entities (Royal questionnaires, Q7: *Have you heard about the Royal Beer brand?* Dichotomous variable*: Yes/No*; NorthSide questionnaire, Q5: *Have you heard about the NorthSide music festival?* Dichotomous variable*: Yes/No*). It is important that respondents that have never heard about NorthSide or Royal (depending on the questionnaire) do not proceed to the evaluation of this entity since it would result in them either quitting the survey before the end (nonresponse bias) or an increase in the uninformed response errors rate (respondent has no opinion but is forced to answer) (Dolnicar & Grün, 2013). Hence, if respondents answer "No" to this question in the NorthSide's survey, survey will end. In the case of the Royal Beer surveys, they will be forwarded to the last question asking them about whether or not they have purchased a ticket for, or been to, NorthSide 2013 (depending on the before or after survey). Indeed, it is a relevant step since a "Yes" to this last question would imply that respondents have no awareness of Royal Beer, even though they were exposed to the sponsorship since they bought the ticket / took part in NorthSide 2013.

5.2.5.4. Participation in NorthSide 2013

The last filter question is whether or not respondents participated in NorthSide 2013 (Royal Beer before questionnaire, Q13: *Have you bought a ticket to NorthSide 2013?* Dichotomous variable: *Yes/No*; Royal Beer after questionnaire: Q13: *Have you been to NorthSide 2013?* Dichotomous variable: *Yes/No*; NorthSide questionnaire, Q10: *Have you been to NorthSide 2013?* Dichotomous variable: *Yes/No*). This question is of utmost importance in present authors' attempt to evaluate the impact of NorthSide's sponsorship on Royal Beer. Hence, respondents of the Royal Beer questionnaires indicating that they purchased a ticket or have been to NorthSide will be the subjects of this research while the respondents that did not will be part of the control group. Respondents of the NorthSide questionnaire that have not participated in the 2013 edition will be deleted since of no relevance for this research.

Even though placing this question at the beginning of both Royal Beer surveys would have made the interviewers' job easier (in order to accurately meet samples number requirements of festival goers vs. non-festival goers/control group), this question has been placed at the end to avoid any conscious processing of the respondent. Indeed, it is the only way to ensure respondents are not cued about NorthSide and the purpose of the research when answering Royal Beer's brand personality or brand attitude questions. Lastly, and for a terminology clarification, in the Royal Beer before questionnaire present authors chose to ask respondents whether they purchased a ticket to NorthSide (instead of asking their intention to participation) since the event was already sold-out at the time of the data collection. Hence, no respondent with the intention to participate but with no ticket at the time of the data collection would be counted as a participant.

6. Empirical Data Presentation

In this chapter the gathered data is presented. The first section will give some feedback on the data collection and the event of NorthSide 2013. Furthermore, it will present the overall characteristics of the gathered samples. The second section discusses the data processing. In the third section the results from the factor analysis for the brand personality data is presented. And finally, the fifth section will present the analysis of the bias in the gathered samples.

6.1. Feedback on Data Collection and NorthSide 2013

As present authors introduced the Royal Beer and NorthSide 2013 sponsorship case in-depth in order to understand all elements at stake, a feedback on the data collection and on the proceedings of the NorthSide event will be given since they could potentially affect the outcomes of this research. First the actual data collection will be explained, and then the NorthSide 2013 relevant proceedings will be mentioned.

6.1.1. Actual Data Collection

Before the festival, the data collection of the Royal Beer paper-based questionnaire took place in Aarhus and was initiated 4 days before NorthSide and ended 2 days before the festival. The online data collection was initiated 5 days prior to the festival and ended the day before the festival.

After NorthSide, the Royal Beer paper-based questionnaire was administered in Aarhus, 4 and 5 days after the festival. The online data collection was initiated in the morning 3 days after NorthSide and ended 12 days after the festival. The online data collection was spread over a longer period than expected, simply because present authors needed additional NorthSide participants' answers. In pursuance of this aim, present authors utilized purposive sampling and sent questionnaire links to the Aarhus attendees of the NorthSide 2013 Facebook event page. Present authors would then send them a private message where they would introduce themselves as a friend of a friend in a need for answers to a questionnaire about beer.

Regarding the NorthSide questionnaire online data collection that took place after the event, it was initiated in the evening 2 days after the festival and ended 14 days after the festival. While the initial plan online distribution plan was to target groups on social media websites relevant to the Aarhus inhabitants (as for the Royal Beer questionnaires), present authors convinced NorthSide's management to share the questionnaire's link on their Twitter account which is followed by roughly 5.000 people. Present authors do not see any immediate issue with the NorthSide questionnaire being shared on their Twitter account since the purpose of

the research was not elicited to respondents. Hence for them, it was a basic satisfaction survey about NorthSide, with additional sponsorship recall and recognition questions placed at the end of it.

As a result, a total of 1384 questionnaires were handed out or delivered. 1008 accounted for both Royal Beer questionnaires and 376 for the NorthSide questionnaire. After the data cleansing (detailed in section 6.2), it resulted in 370 valid Royal Beer pre event questionnaires (59 festival participants and 311 non-festival participants), 362 valid Royal Beer post event questionnaires (104 festival participants and 258 non-festival participants) and 218 valid NorthSide questionnaires.

It appears that present authors' purposive sampling strategy, to target typical NorthSide participants based on the 2011 demographics, was relevant to reach a maximum 2013 festival participants. Indeed, as per the 2011 edition, a typical NorthSide 2013 participant would also be a male or a female from Aarhus (no information about the age average) (NorthSide, 2013d).

	Royal Beer pre event questionnaire	Royal Beer post event questionnaire	NorthSide post event questionnaire	2011 participants
Questionnaires delivered	1008		376	Not applicable
Valid questionnaires	370	362	218	3914
Festival participants	59	104	218	3914
Non-festival participants	311	258	Not applicable	Not applicable
%Online questionnaires	44.3%	42.0%	91.1%	Not applicable
%Males	47.0%	43.4%	42.7%	48.0%
%Students	79.7%	77.3%	58.3%	40.0%
%Aarhus residents	83.0%	77.3%	62.8%	46.0%
Average age	24.92	24.7	26.8	28.5

Table 2: Samples composition in comparison to the NorthSide 2011 typical participants' objectives.

6.1.2. NorthSide 2013

NorthSide 2013 edition was successful and featured various world-renowned artists such as Kean, Portishead and Arctic Monkeys. To the present authors' knowledge, the only issue that might have had a negative impact on participants is the last minute cancellations of bands Bloc Party and Modest Mouse, both replaced by lesser known artists Love Shop and Jagwar Ma. However, it does not seem to have affected participants since, as supported by a post-satisfaction survey, 92% of the participants were satisfied with NorthSide 2013, 83% intend to return in 2014 and 68% will recommend NorthSide to their friends and family (NorthSide, 2013d).

Lastly in the lookout for extraneous variables that could have an influence on the outcomes of this research, present authors did not notice any particular marketing actions from Carlsberg or Tuborg over the experiment's three weeks period. Royal Beer, on the other hand, was sponsoring Copenhell, a hard rock event taking place in Copenhagen, the same weekend than NorthSide.

6.2. Data Processing

The most important steps in the current research's data processing are presented here: a discussion of the survey non-response rates, screening the data for missing or incomplete data and outliers, scale evaluation and the creation of extra variables for the analysis.

Before the above mentioned procedures could begin, the authors had to type in the paper-based questionnaires in the SurveyXact survey tool. Then they downloaded all the data sheets for each of the beer and NorthSide questionnaires from SurveyXact in excel format, and then created 2 separate raw data files, one for beer and one for NorthSide. 2 dummy variables called "after" and "online" were created for the beer data, where a 1 in both would indicate that the questionnaire was collected after the festival and online. Only the "online" dummy variable was created for the NorthSide data.

All of the above was done meticulously to avoid any data-processing error including errors in editing, data entry and coding (Biemer, 2010). These errors will have a risk of occurring in the rest of the data processing procedure as well, but again carefulness and double checks minimized the risk.

6.2.1. Survey Non-response

A survey non-response rate is "*a mathematical formula that is calculated by survey researchers and is used as a tool to understand the degree of success in obtaining completed interviews from a sample*." (Glaser, 2008) It

encompassed two forms of error: unit non-response and item non-response. Unit non-response error is when a respondent does not respond to any part of a questionnaire or is unavailable for the study. Item non-response occurs when the questionnaire is only partially answered (Biemer, 2010).

Since the current researcher chose purposive sampling, the sample size would be defined after the questionnaire was handed out and a correct unit non-response error measure could not be obtained for the overall samples.

6.2.1.1. Online

For the online versions it makes sense to look at how many people that clicked the questionnaire compared to how many that actually started to fill it out. For the online beer questionnaires, 75% of the people clicking on the before festival questionnaire link started filling it out while this rate was 66% for the after festival questionnaire. The online festival questionnaire had approximately 68% who clicked and then filled out. It tells the researchers that an initial interest in or curiosity about the topic would actually be turned into an attempted answer once the respondent saw the topic of the questionnaire (beer), described on the first page, which further indicates that they would have an opinion about beer brands. Since the online festival respondents knew from the beginning that it was about NorthSide, their fairly high rate indicates that they have an interest in and potential knowledge about NorthSide.

Item non-response error is available for the online though. Before the festival, 86% of the people who started the questionnaire completely finished it, 83% for the after questionnaire, indicating a low item non-response error. The fairly high percentages could also indicate that the respondents would have an opinion about Royal Beer. Furthermore, it gives some indication that the length of the questionnaire was appropriate and that the questions made sense to the respondent. 81% of the people that started the NorthSide questionnaire filled it out completely, again an indication of low item non-response error and that the questions made sense to the respondent.

6.2.1.2. Paper

While handing out questionnaires in Aarhus, the researchers met a surprisingly low amount of people that did not want to participate and only very few people who received a questionnaire returned it blank. Of course these observations are influenced by the fact that the interviewers would not disturb people that did not look interested in filling out the questionnaire or looked busy. Since the places chosen for obtaining responses were mainly cantinas at the different faculties at Aarhus University plus parks in Aarhus, they would both be places

where people would have time and a convenient place to fill out the questionnaires. At the same time the mere presence of an interviewer would affect the potential respondent's willingness to help and fill out questionnaires, many of them would be students in the same situation as the researchers. The presence of the researchers could also influence the answers negatively, if they were not filled out correctly, because the respondent could not say no to the interviewer and therefore just filled out without thinking about the responses.

Item non-response errors did almost not occur in the paper-based questionnaires. 3% of respondents missed parts of the questionnaires. The researchers checked most of the questions when the respondent handed in the questionnaire, namely to avoid this error.

6.2.2. Data Screening and Outliers

In the data screening process the researchers identified and deleted responses that had incomplete data. For all beer questionnaire respondents, the raw data file had 1008 respondents which were shaved down to 732 respondents. 225 responses were deleted because they did not advance beyond the screening question for knowledge of Royal Beer (including completely blank answers from the online questionnaire and 2 answers that the researchers had put in themselves). Then 47 responses with the festival participation question unanswered were also deleted. One paper-based response where all three attitude questions were left unanswered was deleted as well.

Outliers are answers that are so different from the rest of the data that they should not be considered for the data set because of potential skewness (Vogt, 2005). It was not of any real concern in the present research, since most of the answers were on a Likert-scale, thus not allowing for extreme answers. Only 3 respondents were deleted because they had given outlying 'age' answers: blank, 12 and 190.

9 paper-based questionnaires that had missing data in one question were replaced with "don't know/not relevant" answers to keep the rest of the respondent's data in the questionnaire. Two paper-based answers obtained in Aarhus were recoded from zip-code 1234 and 9999 into 8000.

The raw NorthSide data included 376 responses, 158 were deleted because they had not filled out the festival participation question, leaving 218 responses after data cleansing. Only 15 paper-based questionnaires were obtained, so the risk of missing data was greatly reduced.

Afterwards, a little data coding had to be done. The 'sex and 'NS_2013' variables were coded into 1's and 2's by default and therefore 'sex' were recoded into 0 for male and 1 for female whilst festival participants were recoded into 1's and non-participants into 0's.

6.2.3. Scale Evaluation

6.2.3.1. Likert Scales

The summated rating scale, e.g. the Likert scale, is probably the most frequently used tool in the social sciences. The technique was invented for the assessment of attitudes, but these scales are also widely used across the social sciences to access opinions and personalities. The name 'summated' indicates that the purpose is to combine a number of items to strengthen the underlying property of something that can be measured quantitatively. At the same time it cannot be used to measure knowledge and ability, since there is no right answer. Each item of the scale is a statement that the respondent needs to rate (Spector, 1992). In the Likert scale the response category points for each item are labelled individually. The descriptive text of the labels reflects that gradations between each pair of the consecutive points seem similar. Here, a distinction needs to be made between a Likert scale and a Likert item. The Likert scale is the summation of the responses from several Likert items. The scale reflects the summated scale and the item refer to an individual item within that scale (Brill, 2008). When using Likert scales the researcher needs to be careful in the interpretation of the results. A Likert scale is indeed an ordinal level of measurement meaning that they have a natural ordering, but that the intervals between each value are not equal. The interval level of measurement techniques (parametric statistics) can be used to analyse the responses on Likert scales, if the researcher remembers that he/she cannot conclude that one result is twice as good as another (Brill, 2008).

6.2.3.2. Don't Know Answers

The Likert scale option "don't know/not relevant" for all personality facets and attitude questions were given an 8 as a default in SurveyXact. These are changed into non-answers (blank answers), so they do not count in the summation of the scales.

6.2.3.3. Summation of Attitude and Intention

In the previous chapter the current researchers presented the Likert items that the respondents were to answer for 3 Likert scales. For brand attitude it is: Dislike/Like; Bad/Good; Unpleasant/Pleasant for both beer and NorthSide. The authors summate the scale with a simple average for each participant. They use case-wise

exclusion for each particular scale, if any of the respondents answered “don’t know/not relevant” in two or more items of one scale, their answer is used. The authors want to keep as much information from as many respondents as possible, but if the respondents had only answered one item, it will hardly count for a multiple item scale. The Cronbach’s Alpha for the attitude scale in the beer questionnaire is 0.869 and for the NorthSide questionnaire it is 0.898, which are very reliable results.

The brand personality items have to undergo factor analysis to reduce the number of facets into a fewer multiple item dimensions before the items are summated to scales. The results from the factor analysis will be presented in the next section of this chapter. Afterwards the items are summated to scales in the same way as the other scales. The scales are named: ‘F1_mo_ny_sm’ for the first factor consisting of ‘moderne’, ‘nytænkende’ and ‘smart’; ‘F2_ae_pa_su’ for the second factor consisting of ‘ærlig’, ‘pålidelig’ and ‘succesfuld’; ‘F3_li_mu_vo’ for the third factor consisting of ‘livlig’, ‘munter’ and ‘vovet’; and finally ‘F4_gl_ch’ consisting of ‘glamourøs’ and ‘charmerende’.

The variable for the purchase intention question is renamed from ‘u_sandsynligt’ to ‘Intention’.

6.2.4. Extra Variables

For the current researchers to carry out all bias detections and analyses in the statistical software program SPSS, a number of variables needed to be created, in order to supplement the variables that would be inherent in the questionnaires from its creation.

6.2.4.1. Before_with_ticket and After_went

The most important dummy variable for each beer sample is the ability to differentiate between festival participants and non-festival participants, because the data from both beer questionnaires had been collected in one data sheet. These dummies determine whether the demographics are similar for samples and sub-samples compared to the overall population. In the first beer questionnaire 311 people indicated that they had not purchased a ticket to the festival, while 59 indicated that they had. It is named ‘before_with_ticket’ and a 1 indicates a respondent with a ticket from the first questionnaire. The second beer questionnaire resulted in 258 NorthSide non-participants and 104 festival participants, named ‘after_went’ with a 1 indicating a respondent that went to the festival. In the NorthSide questionnaire the variable was created in SurveyXact beforehand.

6.2.4.2. Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter and Gobefore_vs_goafter

Furthermore the very important comparison between control groups and experiment groups before and after the festival needed their own specific dummies in SPSS to be compared. 'Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter' is a control group comparison dummy and includes the people that did not go to the festival in the first beer sample and the people that did not go in the second beer sample. 'Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter'=0 had 311 respondents and 'nogobefore_vs_nogoafter'=1 had 258 respondents. The experiment groups were put into the variable 'gobefore_vs_goafter'. 'Gobefore_vs_goafter'=1 indicates that the respondent was in the second questionnaire and went to the festival – 104 responses. 'Gobefore_vs_goafter'=0 was in the first questionnaire and went to the festival, 59 respondents.

6.2.4.3. Expected_groups

Another variable that would allow for comparisons between all 4 groups at the same time would be created under the name 'expected_groups', where 1='nogobefore', 2='nogoafter'. 3='gobefore' and 4='goafter' corresponding to the divisions above. Each group would have 311, 258, 59 and 104 respondents respectively.

6.2.4.4. Aarhus

A dummy variable for people that indicated they lived in Aarhus versus people that lived outside Aarhus is created. The "Aarhus" variable indicates with a 1 the respondents from the following zip codes: 8000, 8200, 8210, 8220, 8230, 8240, 8250, 8260, 8270, 8272, 8310, 8330, 8361, 8380, 8381 and 8382. A 0 indicates others. There were 587 respondents from the Aarhus area and 145 from outside in the beer questionnaire and 142 and 76 respectively for NorthSide.

6.2.4.5. Royal_top3

One variable would be created to analyse the awareness question: 'Royal_top3'=0 has 614 respondents and the 1's has 118 respondents. It differentiates between people that had Royal Beer in their top-three awareness and people that did not.

6.2.4.6. NS

The variable 'NS' would be used to analyse the sponsor recognition question. It was already created beforehand 'NS'=1 had 253 responses and 'NS'=0 had 479 responses.

6.2.4.7. Royal_recognition_overall

The variable 'Royal_recognition_overall' consisted of the summation of aided and unaided awareness questions that were asked in the NorthSide questionnaire. 'Royal_recognition_overall'=0 had 44 respondents in it and 'Royal_recognition_overall'=1 had 174 respondents in it.

6.2.4.8. Non-parametric Levene's Test Variables

In the bias section at the end of this chapter a large number of variables will be created in order to perform the analyses for homogeneity of variances. For 'age' the variable is named 'Age_dif_rank'.

For 'online' 6 variables is created: 'online_dif_rank_f1', 'online_dif_rank_f2', 'online_dif_rank_f3', 'online_dif_rank_f4', 'online_dif_rank_attitude' and 'online_dif_rank_intention'.

The same 6 variables are created for 'sex' and 'aarhus'. Refer to the bias section 'Homogeneity of Variance' for explanation of their use.

6.3. Factor Analysis

To be analysed, brand personality needs to be separated into brand personality dimensions as prescribed by Aaker (1997). Hence, the brand personality facets (or items) featured in the questionnaire need to be factor analysed to form personality dimensions that can be researched.

The factor analysis decision process will follow the 7 stages proposed by Hair et al. (2006). The first 2 stages will only be mentioned briefly. The assumptions in stage 3 will be elaborated on and tested for. From stage 4 onwards, the final solution will be presented and discussed. The reason for this division is that stages 1-3 are more generally about the application of factor analysis in the given setting and the assumptions behind using it. From stage 4 onwards the application of the factor analysis begins.

The primary purpose of a factor analysis is to define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis. It provides the tools to analyse the structure of the correlations among a large number of variables (here 15 questionnaire responses) by defining sets of variables that are interrelated, also known as factors. There are two types of factor analysis, an exploratory approach and a confirmatory approach. Factor analysis is debated continuously because of concerns towards its appropriate role. Some consider it exploratory and use it when there is no knowledge about the underlying structure of the data. The confirmatory approach is on the other hand when the researcher has a theoretical idea of the underlying structures and wishes to confirm these (Hair, 2006). The current authors may have some theoretical knowledge about the underlying structures

of the data from the brand personality scale, but since the authors are using them in a very culturally and linguistic different setting than originally created, they view the factor analytic techniques principally from an exploratory or non-confirmatory viewpoint.

No shared solution was found when both beer data and festival data were included in the same data set, at least not one that had a stable reliability analysis and could be used on the beer data and festival data separately. Since the thesis' focus is on the perception of Royal Beer before and after the festival, the authors find it more important to choose a factor analysis solution based on the beer data and not the festival data. The brand personality scale was created to be used in all different kinds of industries, but it has been criticised for its appropriateness all the way down at the individual brand level. And these two brands are even in two different industries.

6.3.1. Stage 1 and 2: Objectives and Design of the Factor Analysis

The objectives of the factor analysis: R factor analysis, data reduction and creation of summated scales to use in the subsequent analysis (Hair, 2006, pp. 107-113).

There are 15 variables and 20 times that number is seen as an appropriate sample size (Hair, 2006, pp. 112-113) . Since the factor analysis will be based on responses from 732 interviewees, this number is exceeded. Even if a large proportion of respondents have answered "don't know/not relevant", there are plenty of responses to factor analyse.

6.3.2. Stage 3: Assumptions of the Factor Analysis

The assumptions underlying factor analysis are more conceptual than they are statistical.

6.3.2.1. Conceptual Issues

The basic assumption that there should be some underlying structure in the variables chosen is confirmed with the use of the brand personality facets. The sample should also be homogenous with respect to the underlying factor structure. Again, the brand personality scale should assure that these are not different in regards to e.g. gender, age and occupation (Hair, 2006, p. 113).

6.3.2.2. Statistical Issues

Here the statistical measures found for the right solution will be presented. Departures from normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity apply only to the extent that they diminish the observed correlations. Assuming

that conceptual requirements for the variables are met, the next step is to ensure that the variables are sufficiently inter-correlated to produce factors that represent the underlying structure (Hair, 2006, p. 114).

- **Overall Measures of Inter-correlation**

The current authors will use a wide variety of techniques to show that the data matrix has sufficient correlations to justify the application of factor analysis. From Hair et al. (2006):

- First a visual presentation of the correlation matrix showing that there are several correlations greater than 0.30.
- Another visual presentation: the anti-image correlation matrix (the negative value of the partial correlation) should not have values above 0.70.
- The Bartlett test of sphericity examines the entire correlation matrix and if it is significant it tells the researcher that there are at least some of the variables that correlate. It is not a very strong indicator for the appropriateness of using factor analysis. Large sample sizes will cause the Bartlett's test to become more sensitive.
- Measure of sample adequacy (MSA) is another tool. It ranges from 0 to 1, reaching 1 when each variable is perfectly predicted without error from the other variables. Guidelines: 0.80 or above, meritorious; 0.70 or above, middling; 0.60 or above, mediocre; 0.5 or above, miserable; and below 0.50 is unacceptable.

If the overall dataset would not live up to the first three measures, factor analysis would not be appropriate. If any of the variables does not live up to a MSA of 0.60, they would be excluded from the factor analysis and not used for the further analysis. The analysis would be run again without the variable.

6.3.2.3. Test for Assumptions of the Factor Analysis

Here will follow an assessment of the applicability of running a factor analysis with the beer questionnaire dataset. The descriptive statistics below will show the mean and std. deviation for each variable, and also show how many people that had answered 'don't know/doesn't matter' to each of the facets.

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis N	Missing N
uhøjtidelig	4,33	1,625	686	32
ærlig	4,24	1,438	599	119
gavnlig	3,32	1,681	591	127
munter	4,27	1,533	678	40
vovet	2,89	1,480	660	58
livlig	3,90	1,587	667	51
nytænkende	3,55	1,618	679	39
moderne	3,98	1,642	696	22
pålidelig	4,66	1,469	652	66
smart	3,66	1,497	697	21
succesfuld	4,63	1,418	668	50
glamourøs	2,84	1,547	689	29
charmerende	3,36	1,473	672	46
naturnær	2,66	1,386	621	97
rå	3,68	1,777	674	44

Table 3: Means, standard deviations and missing responses for all brand personality variables.

In table 3 there are differences between the means, indicating that overall the respondents to some extend see that Royal Beer brand does not have all of the above characteristics. The missing N column indicates all the respondents that could not decide on a variable or did not find it appropriate in the setting. The fairly high numbers for 'ærlig', 'gavnlig' and 'naturnær' indicates that these might cause issues later on. Perhaps these facets were not appropriate to characterize the personality of a beer brand.

The visual inspection of the correlation matrix in appendices section 7.1 shows that there are 40 correlations above 0.30, but there are also some negative numbers, indicating negative correlation between some of the variables. It is also seen that the Bartlett's test of spherecity is significant with a p-value of 0.0000001 and tells the researchers that there are some variables that correlate. Furthermore, the Measure of Sample Adequacy is above 0.80 except for 'uhøjtidelig', 'pålidelig' and 'glamourøs'. They are accepted though, but especially 'uhøjtidelig' could cause issues later on.

6.3.3. Stage 4-5: Deriving Factors and Overall Fit

These stages of the factor analysis are very much influenced by trial and error, where many different solutions will be tested and re-tested. In this section the choices that led to the final solution will be presented: extraction and estimation method, pairwise exclusion of missing values, number of factors and rotation method. Then the different methods to evaluate these choices: communalities and factor pattern matrix. Then the initial factor analysis with chosen categories will be shown and evaluated.

6.3.3.1. Factor Extraction Method and Estimation Method

In factor analysis the variables are grouped based on their correlations, such that variables in one factor have high correlations with each other. Common factor analysis includes only the variance that is shared among the variables in the model. The primary objective is to identify the latent dimensions or constructs represented in the original variables. Since the authors have little knowledge about the original variables or the amount of specific and error variance, common factor analysis is most appropriate (Hair, 2006). Maximum likelihood estimation is a common factor analysis variation that "*is relatively robust, even when the variables do not have a multivariate normal distribution, and maximizes the determinant of the partial correlation matrix among the variables with the common factors partialed out, regardless of the form of the distribution*." (Mulaik, 2004) Other estimation methods have a more historical significance, because maximum likelihood used to take a lot of computer power, which is not a problem today. The best solution found in the beer data set was based on maximum likelihood estimation, so there may be some truth to it.

6.3.3.2. Pairwise Exclusion of Missing Variables

The authors wanted to keep as much information as possible for the subsequent analysis, so if one particular variable could influence the outcome of their factor in the factor analysis, they should. The same procedure would be followed in the independent samples t-tests of the factors for all that had given a viable answer to at least two variables.

6.3.3.3. Number of Factors

Hair et al. write that any *"decision on the number of variables to be retained should be based on several considerations."* (2006) They mention the following stopping criteria to determine the initial number of factors:

- Factors with Eigenvalues above 1.0.
- A predetermined number of factors based on research objectives and/or prior research.
- Usually 60% or above percentage of variance explained by the factors.
- Scree test to show the number of factors.
- With heterogeneity among the sample subgroups, there will be more factors.

They do also mention that several solutions should be considered and +1 and -1 number of factors should also be investigated.

The current authors actually started out with a parallel analysis that would run on a common factor analysis. The parallel analysis is seen as one of the best ways of determining the number of variables to start with. The

eigenvalues from parallel analyses can be used to determine the real data eigenvalues that are beyond chance, but of course additional procedures should then be used to trim trivial factors and test again (Hayton, 2004). Appendices section 7.2.1 shows the result from the parallel analysis. It shows that a 5 factor solution would be most appropriate for all the beer data. The researchers started out by exploring from a 6 factors solution to a 4 factor solution for all the different extraction and rotation methods.

6.3.3.4. Rotation Method

An oblique rotation method allows for the factors to correlate. In a perfect world the facets/variables will fit perfectly into the different factors, and the factors will not correlate – this is forced using orthogonal rotation methods. Usually there will be correlation between variables and factors, the authors allow for this using an oblique rotation method (Hair, 2006). The best solution used a promax oblique rotation method.

6.3.3.5. Factor Interpretation

When using oblique rotation and maximum likelihood estimation the best factor interpretations involve the assessment of the communalities of the variables and the very important pattern matrix.

- **Communalities**

A communality represents the amount of variance accounted for by the factor solution for each variable. Using oblique rotation there is initial communality and extraction communality, where the extraction communality represents the variance accounted for after the rotation. In principal component analysis the rule of thumb is 0.50 or above is acceptable. In common factor analysis a communality score as low as 0.20 can be acceptable (Hair, 2006). No communalities in the final solution fell below this score (see appendices section 7.2.2).

- **Pattern Matrix**

Two matrices of factor loadings will be provided when using an oblique rotation: the factor pattern matrix, which has loadings that represent the unique contribution of each variable to the factor; and the factor structure matrix, which has simple correlations between variables and factors (Hair, 2006) . The first is the most important factor solution to interpret when using oblique rotation.

Hair et al.'s (2006) table 3-2 is reproduced in appendices section 7.2.3 to show how to interpret the factor loadings at different sample sizes. This research had a sample size above 350, so factor loadings as low as 0.30 are sufficient.

6.3.3.6. Initial Factor Analysis

For all the pattern matrices the loadings below 0.30 will not be shown until the final example. The pattern is much clearer without the smaller loadings. From the initial factor analysis one variables was dropped – 'uhøjtidelig'. 'Uhøjtidelig' had a communality below 0.20) and the pattern matrix was very indeterminable because of this variable (see appendices section 7.2.2). It was excluded. Following the exclusion of 'uhøjtidelig', the variable 'naturnær' scored below 0.30 on all the factors in the pattern matrix. It was decided to try without 'naturnær' as well. The produced solution had a clear pattern matrix, where all variables loaded above 0.30 on only one factor (see appendices section 7.2.4).

6.3.4. Stage 6: Validation

A reliability analysis consists of testing the Cronbach's Alphas of the factors. It is an important and widely used measure for assessing the internal consistency of a set of items. It represents the proportion of total variance in a given scale that can be attributed to a common source (Pett, Lackey, & Sullivan, 2003). After the factor analysis the authors grouped the different variables in the factors and ran reliability analysis on them. Cronbach's Alpha should be above 0.70, but as low as 0.60 is acceptable. Inter-item correlation should be above 0.30.

6.3.4.1. The Final Solution

The final solution was found by excluding variables that had too small inter-item correlation or too low CA and would be a 4 factor solution without 'uhøjtidelig', 'naturnær', 'gavnlig' and 'rå' (see an overview in table 4 in the next section 6.3.5).

See reliability analyses for all factors in appendices section 7.3. Factor 1 consists of 'livlig', 'munter' and 'vovet'. Factor 2 consists of 'pålidelig', 'ærlig' and 'succesfuld'. 'Ærlig' and 'succesfuld' have an inter – item correlation of 0.288, which is a bit on the low side, but is acceptable since removing 'succesfuld' completely destroys the factors. Factor 3 consists of 'moderne', 'nytænkende' and 'smart'). Factor 4 consists of 'glamourøs' and 'charmerende'.

To confirm the findings in the reliability analysis, the authors ran a final 4 factors solution without 'uhøjtidelig', 'naturnær', 'gavnlig' and 'rå'. See appendices section 7.4 for the whole solution run again.

Overall the results look acceptable, but factor 4 explains only 4.47% of the total variance between all the factors; it may influence the results later on.

6.3.5. Stage 7: Creating and Naming Factor Scores

The final step of the process was for the authors to create factor scores. The solution chosen by the authors was a simple average of each of the variables for the 4 factors. The 4 new variables were created in SPSS – naming them: Innovation; Trustworthiness; Imaginative; Sophistication. The naming process was once again done in a very positivist and quantitative-like way. In appendices section 7.4 all the Danish synonyms from the dictionary and the words from the focus group interview for the chosen words are listed. The synonym with the most similarity for all items across the factors would be chosen as the name. Factor 4 was named after factor 4 in Aaker's brand personality scale. It was the only variable that was similar to Aaker's dimensions.

Factor 1 Innovation	Factor 2 Trustworthiness	Factor 3 Imaginative	Factor 4 Sophistication
Spirited 'Livlig'	**Reliable** 'Pålidelig'	**Up-to-date** 'Moderne'	**Upper class** 'Glamourøs'
Cheerful 'Munter'	**Honest** 'Ærlig'	**Imaginative** 'Nytænkende'	**Charming** 'Charmerende'
Daring 'Vovet'	**Successful** 'Succesfuld'	**Intelligent** 'Smart'	

Table 4: All 4 factors and their facets extracted from the data in Danish and English.

6.4. Potential Bias between Groups

In order to answer the hypotheses proposed at the end of the literature review, the analysis in the next chapter will consist of tests comparing the Likert scaled brand personality dimensions, the attitude scale, the purchase intention item and the two dichotomous awareness indicators top-3-in-mind and sponsorship recognition between each of the four groups that received the beer questionnaire.

First, present authors are interested in internal validity and being able to research a potential sponsorship effect on the sample population. In order to do so, it needs to be proven that statistical computation is meaningful for these specific samples. Building on Alreck & Settle (1985), "*data from a sample is relatively free from sampling error and is reliable if another sample of the same size, taken from the same population with the same selection technique is likely to provide results that are the same or very similar*" (p.67). Therefore, present authors argue that if analysis of both control groups - belonging to different samples of a same population and obtained through similar techniques - shows very similar data, it will be a great indicator of sampling quality in this research. As a result, it would be legitimate and accurate to use statistical computation on the data (Alreck & Settle, 1985).

In this section the demographical and sampled differences between the four groups will be compared. The six Likert scaled variables needs to undergo more tests than the two dichotomous variables. The first six variables need to be tested for normality, homogeneity and then actual differences in opinion based on demographics and sampling. The last two variables only need to be tested in the last category of differences. First an overview of the different groups:

- **Control Groups**

- Group 1's responses were obtained before the festival and the respondents did not have tickets for the festival (variable: before_with_ticket=0).
- Group 2's responses were obtained after the festival and the respondents did not participate in the festival (after_went=0).

- **Experiment Groups**

- Group 3's responses were obtained before the festival and the respondents had tickets for the festival (before_with_ticket=1).
- Group 4's responses were obtained after the festival and the respondents had participated in the festival (after_went=1).

Table 5 shows the number of participants and their proportion in each of the groups. In the next sections the first six analysis variables will be investigated for applicability in either parametric or non-parametric tests.

Expected_groups

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1,00	311	42,5	42,5	42,5
	2,00	258	35,2	35,2	77,7
	3,00	59	8,1	8,1	85,8
	4,00	104	14,2	14,2	100,0
	Total	732	100,0	100,0	

Table 5: Number of participants and proportions in each experiment and control group.

6.5. Parametric or Non-parametric Tests

With normally distributed data the most obvious choice would be to use analysis of variance for all 4 groups together and the independent samples t-tests for comparison between two groups for the brand personality scales, attitude and intention. Under the assumption of normality, the t-test is "*the most powerful unbiased test*" (Bridge & Sawilowsky, 1999, p. 229). But since the current researchers have used 7-point Likert scales the data will have a risk of being skewed and therefore non-normal. The Shapiro-Wilk's test for normality will reveal if the variables are non-normal.

6.5.1. Test for Normality

The Shapiro-Wilk test is probably the most popular non-graphical procedure to test for fit to the normal distribution. "The Shapiro-Wilk test statistic is obtained by dividing the square of an appropriate linear combination of the sample order statistics by the sum of squares error." (Mecklin, 2007) The null hypothesis is that the data is normally distributed. If the test statistic is low and the p-value below the alpha level of 0.05 it supports rejection of the null hypothesis. Here all of the six variables for the 4 groups will be tested for normality.

6.5.1.1. Test for Normality: Results

From appendices section 8.1 it is clear that many of the different variables have p-values below 0.05 and therefore the null of normality is rejected for these variables. The variables could have been normally distributed in spite of the Likert scales in which case the use of t-tests or analysis of variance would have been argued for, but these methods are now not applicable, instead non-parametric tests will be used.

6.6. Bias: Testing

Because of the sampling and data collection methods there are potential issues with internal validity. The current authors believe that by ruling out differences in or the effects of online vs. offline obtained respondents, male vs. female status, student-status, Aarhus vs. non-Aarhus status and age, the results of the following analysis will have stronger internal validity. The bias analysis will consist of the following sections:

- First, tests for proportional differences in the 4 dichotomous variables with 2-by-2 contingency tables.
    - If proportional, then no further tests are needed.
- Then, non-parametric Levene's test will test similarity of variance of the remaining variables, which is an assumption for the next step.
    - The variable 'age' is interval rank scaled and can be tested on its own.
    - The dichotomous variables cannot be tested on zeroes and ones, so the brand personality, brand attitude and purchase intention will be split up between e.g. students and non-students and the similarity of those groups will be compared.
- With similar distribution of 'age' across the groups, it can be tested with a Kryskal-Wallis test for actual similarity between the ages of the 4 groups.
- The dichotomous variables that was split up and have similar distributions can be tested with the non-parametric independent samples Wilcoxon/Mann-Whitney test for differences.
- In the end the two awareness variables will be divided in each of the four groups to test for effect of the proportions of the 4 dichotomous variables. These tests will also be performed with 2-by-2 contingency tables.

6.6.1. Testing Proportions for the Bias Variables

2-by-2 contingency tables (Pearson Chi-Square) are used to measure the proportion of online/offline respondents, male/female respondents, students and people from Aarhus between all 4 groups. The chi-square "*compares the observed frequencies with the frequencies expected by chance or according to a particular distribution across all the categories of one variable or all the combinations of categories of two variables.*" (Cramer & Howitt, 2004) If the p-value is above 0.05 the null hypothesis of equal proportions cannot be rejected e.g. the proportion of males in a group is the same as the female proportion in the group. The number of respondents in the four groups divided between 2 outcomes of the variables is seen in appendices section 8.2.

6.6.1.1. 2-by-2 Contingency Tables: Results

Just by looking at the proportions between the groups in appendices section 8.2 it is not difficult to guess that if these variables have an influence on how people think about Royal Beer, the uneven proportion of these respondents needs to be levelled out (the student variable being the one exception).

From the 16 Chi-Square tables in appendices section 8.3 it is clear that all proportions vary for one group or the other except for the variable 'students'. Since the proportion of students is significantly the same for each of the compared groups, there should be no issues with including all students and non-students in the analysis. It leads the current researchers to test whether 3 out of 4 dichotomous variables along with the age variable have significantly different variance between groups and differences between the groups.

6.6.2. Testing for Homogeneity of Variance

The non-parametric Levene's test is based on ranked data and does not assume normally distributed data and is robust towards unequal sample sizes (Nordstokke & Zumbo, 2010). The test cannot be carried out in SPSS directly, but if the data is transformed to the absolute ranked difference between groups, ANOVA tests can be used as the "Levene's test". The p-value should be above the significance level of 0.05 between all groups to have significantly similar variances. If this test fails to show significant homogeneity of variance between the groups, the ensuing results from the Wilcoxon/Mann-Whitney tests or Kryskal Wallis tests cannot be trusted.

6.6.2.1. Assumptions: Results

- **Age**

The histograms of age are shown in appendices section 8.4.1. They indicate heterogeneous variance for the groups. In appendices section 8.4.2 the normality tests of age of the 4 groups reveal that 3 out of 4 are non-normal (group 1 p-value: 0.001, group 2 p-value: 0.001, group 3 p-value: 0.21 and group 4 p-value: 0.001). However, if the variances of the 4 different groups' answers are significantly similar according to the non-parametric Levene's test, the distribution is then similar enough across groups to be compared without precaution. New variables were created based on the overall sample. The one that goes into the Levene's test is a mean difference between the "ranked" score of age and the ranked sum score of age based on the 4 groups. Appendices section 8.4.3 show a non-parametric Levene's test for equality of variances run on the mean difference score of age between the groups. The test is significant (p-value: 0.268), so the null of equal

variances cannot be rejected, so age have equal variances and can be tested with the Kruskal-Wallis test across all 4 groups.

- **Online, Sex and Aarhus**

The tests are a little different for the 3 remaining dichotomous variables, since they themselves cannot be ranked. The ranking will be performed on the 4 personality factor variables, the attitude variable and the intention variable. From appendices sections 8.4.3 to 8.4.6 it is seen that the hypothesis of equal variances for variable 'F4_gl_ch' across groups is rejected for both 'online' (p-value: 0.014), 'sex' (p-value: 0.013) and 'Aarhus' (p-value: 0.011). This variable does not have equal variance across the groups. It may very well be because personality factor 4 consists of the two variables 'charmerende' and 'glamourøs' that perhaps do not fit well together after all. The upper class/'glamourøs' variable was difficult to translate in the focus group and this was also the last factor in the factor analysis with the least shared variance with the rest of the variables. The tests for differences between groups should either be very significant or very insignificant for the variable to be used in the analysis of the hypotheses. The rest of the hypotheses for homogeneity of variance cannot be rejected, so factor 1, factor 2, factor 3, brand attitude and purchase intention have similar distributions across the 4 groups and can be tested for differences in opinion.

6.6.3. Non-parametric Independent Samples Test

The Wilcoxon/Mann-Whitney test is useful when comparing two independent samples. It is actually two tests, where the original Wilcoxon rank-sum W test has been supplemented with a Mann-Whitney U test, they come to the same conclusion with two different methods; both will be displayed in the SPSS output. "*The Wilcoxon test is nonparametric. This means that it preserves the Type I error rate (i.e., false positive rate) to nominal alpha regardless of the population shape. This is a fundamental advantage over its parametric counterpart, the Student's t test, which relies on the normality distribution assumption.*" (Sawilowsky, 2007)

The Kruskal-Wallis test is similar to the Wilcoxon/Mann-Whitney test for more than two samples (Cohen & Holliday, 1996).

Besides homogeneity of variances, there is another underlying assumption of the Wilcoxon/Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis test of independence between samples (Sawilowsky, 2007). There is no test for independence in the variables, so there is no insurance of independence but for the researcher to carry out the sampling and data collection cautiously. The research design of this research was specifically created to assure independence between samples.

6.6.4. Wilcoxon/Mann-Whitney Test Results

Appendices sections 8.5 shows the results from the 4 Wilcoxon/ Mann-Whitney tests for the null hypotheses of similarity of the opinion about personality factor 1-4, attitude and purchase intention across 'sex', 'aarhus' and 'online' between all 4 groups as well as 'Age' in its own separate section, since the tests are different.

6.6.4.1. Age

Appendices section 8.5.1 shows the result from the Kruskal-Wallis test of the hypothesis that the variable 'age' is similar across the 4 groups. The Chi-Square value of 2.772 is significant (p-value: 0.428) meaning that the null cannot be rejected. There should be no issues with the differences in age across the groups for any variables used in the analysis (personality factors 1-4, attitude, intention, top-3-of-mind awareness and recall).

6.6.4.2. Online

From Appendices section 8.5.2 it is seen that the hypothesis of no difference in opinion for online vs. offline obtained questionnaires cannot be rejected across all 24 comparisons (none of the 24 p-values are below 0.05). Factor 4 is even very significant across the 4 groups, so no significant bias here either.

6.6.4.3. Sex

From Appendices section 8.5.3 it is seen that the hypothesis of no difference in opinion for males vs. females cannot be rejected for the 4 personality factor variables across all groups (none of the 16 p-values are below 0.05). However, factor 4's significance cannot be determined with certainty, because of the heterogeneous variance the significance level is too low to be certain that the results are true (p-value: 0.079 and close to 0.05). Furthermore 'intention' is different for men and women in group 1 and 2. There seems to be the logical explanation since group 1 and 2 has 50% males and 50% females in both groups, while group 3 has a 40/60 proportion and group 4 has a 27/73 proportion of males/females. It indicates that there can be a difference in purchase intention between males and females. In appendices section 8.5.3.1 it is seen that if the same test is performed for all beer questionnaire respondents divided into male and females, there is a clear indication that males (variable 'sex'=0) has a higher purchase intention than women (p-value: 0.001). The story is somewhat different for 'Attitude', since the difference between men and women is in group 1 and 4; it may very well be that another variable is co-influencing the attitude towards Royal Beer e.g. 'Aarhus'. In the subsequent analysis these two variables need to be divided into sub-groups of males and females to be compared without bias in the results.

6.6.4.4. Aarhus

From appendices section 8.5.4 it is seen that the hypothesis of no difference between Aarhus citizens vs. non-Aarhus citizens cannot be rejected for personality factors 1-3 and 'attitude' (none of the 16 p-values are below 0.05). However, for personality factor 4 the difference between Aarhus and non-Aarhus respondents is significant in group 1 (p-value: 0.047), but it is not nearly significant enough to determine whether or not the null can be rejected. Once again there are differences for the sub-groups of 'intention', this time in group 2 (p-value: 0.019), it is the group with the largest proportion of non-Aarhus citizens (26.4%). The analysis for purchase intention needs to be divided into Aarhus vs. non-Aarhus citizens.

6.6.5. Testing Proportions for Brand Awareness and Sponsorship Recognition

2-by-2 contingency tables (Pearson Chi-Square) are used to measure the proportion of online/offline respondents, male/female respondents, students/non-students and people from Aarhus/not from Aarhus between all respondents (all groups 1-4 in one test) on the two awareness variables 'royal_top3' for top-3-of-mind brand awareness of Royal Beer and 'NS' for brand recognition for Royal Beer. The null hypothesis of equal proportions for 'online', 'sex', 'student' and 'aarhus' for 'royal_top3' and 'NS' will be rejected if they are insignificant (p-values below 0.05). If any of the results are insignificant the proportions are different and the analyses for top-3-of-mind brand awareness and brand recognition in the next chapter will be divided into sub-groups.

6.6.5.1. 2-by-2 Contingency Tables: Results

From appendices section 8.6.1 it is seen that all hypotheses of the 'Royal_top3' comparison cannot be rejected (p-values: 0.694 for 'online'; 0.942 for 'sex'; 0.749 for 'students'; 0.395 for 'aarhus'), ergo the ensuing analyses can be done without dividing the groups.

From appendices section 8.6.2 the hypotheses of equal 'sex' and 'aarhus' proportions are rejected for the 'NS' question (p-values: 0.01 for 'sex'; 0.003 for 'aarhus'), but is not rejected for 'online' and 'student' (p-values: 0.553 for 'online'; 0.319 for 'student'). The analyses will have to be divided into groups of Aarhus and non-Aarhus citizens and also divided into male and female groups for this specific question.

6.6.6. Summation of Bias Results

The results from personality factor 4 cannot be trusted in the coming analyses. The purchase intention data ('Intention') needs to be analysed with males and females separated and on Aarhus citizens only. The

sponsorship recognition data ('NS' variable) also needs to be analysed separated on both the 'sex' variable and the 'Aarhus' variable, because of the proportional differences between groups. Royal Beer brand attitude ('Attitude') should be analysed between males and females. The rest of the analyses can be performed without any divisions.

It may sound dubious to divide the analysis up dependent on how people answered, but the division makes sense for the current researchers. Attitude towards the Royal Beer brand could be influenced by the notion that males drink beer more often than females (see appendices section 8.7), meaning that if you consume beer more often it could mean an overall better attitude towards beer brands. It is of course a fallacy of the attitude scale that has been used, but because of the research design such fallacies can be investigated. The respondents have been able to differentiate between the questions of personality and attitude. The same notion could be made about purchase intention, but an extra dimension needs to be mentioned here. If the pre festival respondents have a very high recognition of the sponsor, it could have influenced the respondents' answer about purchase intention, because the next beers they would be buying would most likely be during the festival, where only Royal is sold. Since the variable is not a summated scale, but based on a single item it is not very robust towards such a bias. This notion will be investigated in the analysis. Lastly, the personality facets of Royal Beer are more robust towards differences in demographics because of how Royal Beer does national marketing and the consumers see them the same way overall. They somehow succeed in creating a brand that is one dimensional and the personality scale that has been used is successful in showing this.

7. Empirical Data Analysis

These four hypotheses will be tested in the first part of this analysis:

- H1: Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on typical festival participants' awareness of Royal Beer.
- H2: Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on festival participants' perception of Royal Beer's brand personality.
- H3: Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on typical festival participants' attitude towards Royal Beer.
- H4: Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on typical festival participants' purchase intention of the Royal Beer brand.

The null hypotheses for these four hypotheses are that there is no effect of actual participation in the festival on the selected outcomes. If the nulls are rejected, it would indicate that participation in the festival has had an effect on the respondents' brand knowledge of the sponsorship. If the nulls cannot be rejected it would lead authors to consider three explanations. The first explanation would be that participation in NorthSide does not engender sponsorship effects. The second rival explanation would be that the research design proposed by the current researchers is unable to measure significant participation effects. The third and last explanation would be that there is indeed an incremental event participation effect; it is just not significant enough. It would then imply that sponsorship effects take place gradually as per the amount of sponsorship stimuli one is exposed to (website, pre-event activation, event marketing).

Part two of this analysis will be a transition section to the final trend analysis in section three. The explanation of these will follow in their respective sections.

- Overview of the Bias' Impact on the Analysis

Table 6 will give an overview of the results from the bias section on each of the variables that is to be used in the analysis: the percentages for top-3-of-mind awareness and sponsorship recognition and mean Likert scores (1-7) for brand personality factors 1-4, brand attitude and brand intention for respondents to the beer questionnaire. In the following sections of this chapter the current authors will run a series of Wilcoxon W/Mann-Whitney U tests and Chi-Square tests (introduced in the previous chapter) to support the rejection or no rejection of the four hypotheses: the first test will demonstrate if there are isolated significant differences between the experiment group of actual festival participants (group 4) compared to the experiment group of

pre-festival ticket holders (group 3); the second test will demonstrate if there are significant differences between the control group of pre festival non-participants (group 1) and the control group of post festival non-participants (group 2); the third test will demonstrate if there are significant differences between the control group of post festival non-participants (group 2) and the experiment group of post festival participants (group 4); and the fourth test will demonstrate if there are significant differences between the control group of pre festival non-participants (group 1) and the experiment group of pre festival participants (group 3).

	Top of Mind	Recognition		F1	F2	F3	F4	Attitude		Intention	
Residence	All	Aarhus only		All	All	All	All	All		Aarhus only	
Sex	Both	M	F	Both	Both	Both	Both	M	F	M	F
Group 1	15.8%	38.8%	22.1%	3.643	4.445	3.577	3.002	5.067	4.725	3.696	2.976
Group 2	15.9%	41.1%	17.1%	3.643	4.556	3.699	3.088	5.036	4.884	4.011	3.225
Group 3	18.6%	52.2%	40.6%	3.791	4.608	3.814	3.083	5.058	5.058	3.291	4.267
Group 4	16.3%	80.0%	64.&%	4.064	4.473	3.898	3.321	4.716	5.240	3.680	3.350
Overall	16.1%	44.8%	31.1%	3.733	4.500	3.686	3.086	5.024	4.907	3.782	3.258

Table 6: Overview of bias results: divided into the different analysis groups 1-4; and all respondents are split up into residency ('All' for the whole sample and 'Aarhus only' for residents of Aarhus) and sex (males (M) and females (F)).

7.1. Participation Effect

7.1.1. Brand Awareness

In this section the current authors will answer the H1: "*Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on typical festival participants' awareness of Royal Beer* "with the following null and alternative hypotheses:

- H_0: Participation in NorthSide has no significant effect on typical festival participants' awareness of Royal Beer.

- H_A: Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on typical festival participants' awareness of Royal Beer.

The current authors have divided the brand awareness question up into two test categories; one for top-3-of-mind awareness and one for sponsor recognition. The latter will only be tested on Aarhus residents and between males and females, as per mentioned in the previous bias section.

7.1.1.1. Top-3-of-mind Awareness

The top-3-of-mind awareness construction (the variable Royal_top3) that the researchers created for this particular occasion does not show any significant changes between the respondents of pre festival ticket holders (group 3) and post festival participants (group 4) (Chi-square: 0.140, p-value: 0.709 see appendices section 9.1). From table 6 it is seen that app. 18% of respondents that were pre festival ticket holders (group 3) mentioned Royal Beer in their top three beer brands while it was app. 16% for the post festival participants (16%). In the same appendix section it is seen that no changes has happened between the two control groups (group 1 and 2) with app. 16% mentioning Royal out of three beer brands for both control groups (Chi-square: 0.002, p-value: 0.965); group 2 and 4 (Chi-square: 0.011, p-value: 0.915); group 1 and 3 (Chi-square: 0.305, p-value: 0.581). The null hypothesis is definitely rejected for this variable. The top-of-mind awareness has not been affected for the sampled festival participants.

7.1.1.2. Sponsor Recognition

As identified in the bias manipulation, this question needs to be analysed for Aarhus residents only and by sex sub-groups. Appendices section 9.2 shows the results for Aarhus citizens only and females and males divided into two analyses for the variable 'NS'.

- **Males**

For males there is a pattern in the results, seen in appendices sections 9.2.3 to 9.2.6. The pattern shows: a weak significant difference between respondents that were pre festival ticket holders (group 3) at 52.2% recognition and post festival participants (group 4) at 80.0% (Chi-square: 4.174, p-value: 0.041); no difference between control groups: group 1 at 38.8% and group 2 at 41.1% (Chi-square: 0.111, p-value: 0.739); a strong difference between group 2 and 4 (Chi-square: 12.012, p-value: 0.001); no difference between group 1 and 3 (Chi-square: 1.421, p-value: 0.233). The null hypothesis is rejected for males. Participation in NorthSide has resulted in a significant positive effect on male participant respondents' awareness of Royal Beer being the sponsor of NorthSide (27.8 percentage points). The relatively small sample sizes of only 23 males in group 3

and 25 males in group 4 need to be taken into consideration, it may be too few for the researchers to be certain of the results.

- **Females**

In appendices sections 9.2.3 to 9.2.6 show the results for females are seen ant the pattern is almost the same, except from one aspect: there is a significant difference between the respondents that were pre event ticket holders (group 3) at 40.6% and pre event non-ticket holders (group 1) at 22.1%. The pattern shows: a significant difference between the respondents that were pre festival ticket holders (group 3) at 40.6% recognition and post festival participants (group 4) at 64.6% (Chi-square: 5.027, p-value: 0.025 – a stronger significance than for the males); no difference between the two control groups: group 1 at 22.1% and group 2 at 17.9% (Chi-square: 0.598, p-value: 0.439); a very strong difference between group 2 and 4 (chi-square: 36.191, p-value: 0.0001); and a strong difference between group 1 and 3 (Chi-square: 12.012, p-value: 0.001). Hence, similarly to sponsorship recognition for males, participation in NorthSide has resulted in a significant positive effect on female respondents that recognized Royal Beer being the sponsor of NorthSide (24 percentage points). The sample sizes are larger for the females with 32 in group 3 and 65 in group 4; the results can better be trusted compared to the males' results.

7.1.1.3. Brand Awareness Results

Therefore, it can be stated that participation in NorthSide did not engender significant brand recall effects on the respondents' festival participants but did enhance a positive and significant effect on their recognition of Royal Beer as the sponsor of this event.

7.1.2. Brand Personality

In this section the current authors will answer the H2: "Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on festival participants' perception of Royal Beer's brand personality" with the following null and alternative hypotheses:

- H_0: Participation in NorthSide has no significant effect on festival participants' perception of Royal Beer's brand personality.
- H_A: Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on festival participants' perception of Royal Beer's brand personality.

Where brand personality consists of: factor 1 - innovation; factor 2 – trustworthiness; factor 3 - extroversion; factor 4 – sophistication. In the bias section it was found that the results for factor 4 have to be very significant or insignificant to be trusted.

From appendices section 9.3 it is seen that the first test between respondents that were pre festival ticket holders (group 3) and post festival participant (group 4) are not significantly different (p-values: 0.186, 0.586, 0.558 and 0.303 respectively). The rest of the pattern shows the following results: no difference between control groups of respondents that were pre festival non-participants (group 1) and post festival non-participants (group 2) (p-values: 0.696, 0.531, 0.360 and 0.512); a strong difference for factor 1 between group 2 and 4 (p-value: 0.009), but no differences for factor 2 (p-value: 0.531), factor 3 (p-value: 0.158) and factor 4 (0.136); and no differences between group 1 and 3 (p-value: 0.617, 0.692, 0.222 and 0.579). Participation in NorthSide has had no significant effects on the respondents' perception of Royal Beer's brand personality. There is a significant increase in factor 1 (innovation) from the respondents in the post festival non-participation group (group 2) to the post festival participation group (group 4), so the research design has been able to show differences between groups. It is perhaps an indication that the third rejection scenario is at play. There could be small insignificant differences between the groups 3 and 4 that the current tests cannot detect. Further tests will follow up this finding in a subsequent section.

There is no need to research the conditional hypothesis of H2, since no significant effects were found on any of the factors between groups 3 and 4.

7.1.3. Brand Attitude

In this section the current authors will answer the H3: "Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on typical festival participants' attitude towards Royal Beer" with the following null and alternative hypotheses:

- H_0: Participation in NorthSide has no significant effect on festival participants' attitude towards Royal Beer.
- H_A: Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on festival participants' attitude towards Royal Beer.

As stated in the bias section, brand attitude needs to be analysed separately for the sex variable.

7.1.3.1. Males

Appendices sections 9.4.1 to 9.4.4 show that the first test between respondents that were pre festival ticket holders (group 3) and post festival participant (group 4) are not significantly different (p-value: 0.164).The rest of the tests show the following results: no difference between control groups of respondents that were pre festival non-participants (group 1) and post festival non-participants (group 2) (p-value: 0.569); no difference between groups 2 and 4 (p-value: 0.191); and no differences between groups 1 and 3 (p-value: 0.699).

The current researchers have found that festival participation has had no significant effect on male festival participating respondents' attitude towards Royal Beer.

7.1.3.2. Females

Appendices sections 9.4.1 to 9.4.4 show that the first test between respondents that were pre festival ticket holders (group 3) and post festival participant (group 4) are not significantly different (p-value: 0.624).The rest of the tests show the following results: no difference between control groups of respondents that were pre festival non-participants (group 1) and post festival non-participants (group 2) (p-value: 0.443); there is a difference between groups 2 and 4 (p-value: 0.025); and no differences between groups 1 and 3 (p-value: 0.110).

The current researchers have found that festival participation has had no significant effect on female festival participating respondents' attitude towards Royal Beer. However, there is a significant increase in brand attitude between the respondents in the post festival non-participation group (group 2) and the post festival participation group (group 4). It gives the current researcher another indication that the third rejection scenario may be at play.

7.1.4. Purchase Intention

In this section the current authors will answer the H4: "Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on typical festival participants' purchase intention of the Royal Beer brand" with the following null and alternative hypotheses:

- H_0: Participation in NorthSide has no significant effect on festival participants' purchase intention of the Royal Beer Brand.
- H_A: Participation in NorthSide has a significant effect on festival participants' purchase intention of the Royal Beer Brand.

As stated in the bias section, purchase intention needs to be analysed without non-Aarhus residents and separately for the sex variable.

7.1.4.1. Males

Appendices sections 9.5.1 to 9.5.4 shows that the first test between respondents that were pre festival ticket holders (group 3) and post festival participant (group 4) are not significantly different (p-value: 0.518).The rest of the tests show the following results: no difference between control groups of respondents that were pre festival non-participants (group 1) and post festival non-participants (group 2) (p-value: 0.187); no difference between groups 2 and 4 (p-value: 0.353); and no difference between groups 1 and 3 (p-value: 0.447).

The current researchers have found that festival participation has had no significant effect on male festival participating respondents' purchase intention of Royal Beer.

7.1.4.2. Females

Appendices sections 9.5.1 to 9.5.4 show a significant difference between group 3 and 4 (p-value: 0.032). The rest of the tests show the following results: between control groups 1 and 2 – no significant difference (p-value: 0.383); groups 2 and 4 – no significant difference (p-value: 0.642); groups 1 and 3 - significant difference (p-value 0.001).

The difference between group 3 and 4 is unfortunate since it is the purchase intention of group 3 that is significantly larger than that of group 4, opposite of what the researchers would have expected. The current researchers' explanation is the one discussed in the bias section 6.6.6 female respondents in group 3 had a very high sponsor recognition which might have led them to answer more positively about purchase intention, since they knew that next time they would be drinking beer during NorthSide that only sells Royal Beer products. According to section 7.1.1.2 from earlier in the analysis, the proportion of females that knew of the festival sponsor in group 3 is actually significantly larger than that of group 1 (p-value: 0.03), which was not the case for males. The next question is whether females from group 3 of 32 females have a significantly higher purchase intention because of recognition. The test results seen in appendices section 9.5.5 show that 15 females recognized the sponsor (mean of 4.40) and that 18 females had not recognized the sponsor (mean of 3.89). The difference is not significant so the assumption is rejected (p-value: 0.682). The test is inconclusive at best, and there is a high probability that the result of purchase intention overall cannot be used. The one item in the 'scale' was perhaps not enough after all. Therefore purchase intention is discarded for further analysis.

7.1.5. Summation of Results for the Initial Hypotheses

The recognition of the sponsor increased drastically between the pre festival participating respondents and the post festival participating respondents, which to the present authors' assumption was an expected and a necessary change to occur in order to show this research design's ability to measure potential effects. In addition, while no significant participation effect have been evidenced for the festival participating respondents, no significant effect occurred between the before and after festival control groups meaning that overall, results are coherent. Since sponsor recognition is the only indicator that has significantly changed thanks to participation in NorthSide, various explanations can be advanced. First, maybe participation in NorthSide simply does not engender sponsorship effects on participants - except from sponsor recognition. Alternatively, there might be sponsorship effects but the research design tailored by the present authors did not enable to evidence them - while the design still proved able to evidence an effect on sponsor recognition. Lastly, maybe respondents' brand knowledge about the sponsor is already influenced earlier in the interaction between consumer and festival, and the incremental change that happens during the festival is present but not significant with the Wilcoxon/Mann-Whitney tests.

7.2. Comparison of Pre Event Control Group and Post Event Experimental Group

At this stage, present authors can only attempt to rule-out the last assumption. At first glance and if one looks at sponsor recognition, there seems to be an assumption for a trend: for males recognition goes from 38.8% for group 1 to 41.1% for group 2, to 52.2% for group 3 and to 80% for group 4 and for females, there is also an almost gradual increase from 22.1% for group 1, to 17.9% for group 2, to 40.6% for group 3 and to 64.6% for group 4. However, an evident step to justify the use of an eventual trend test is to compare results from pre festival non-ticket holders (group 1) and post festival participants (group 4) respectively representing the potentially less exposed group to sponsorship stimuli and the most exposed one. If there is a significant change for the variables between these extreme groups, the current researchers would then propose the assumption that there is a trend in the data corresponding to the amount of assumed exposure to NorthSide and its sponsor Royal Beer. The assumption would be that respondents' knowledge about the sponsor is influenced much earlier in the interaction between consumer and festival, and the change that happens during the festival is present but insignificant with Wilcoxon/Mann-Whitney tests. Instead a trend test, capable of detecting gradual changes between groups, would be applied.

7.2.1. Group 1 and 4: Top-3-of-mind Awareness

Appendices section 9.6.1 shows that there is no significant differences on top-of-mind awareness between the respondents that were pre festival non-ticket holders (group 1) and post festival participants (group 4) (chi-square: 0.02, p-value: 0.887). Since group 1 and 4 are similar, it would not make sense to look for a trend in top-3-of-mind-awareness.

7.2.2. Group 1 and 4: Sponsor Recognition (Aarhus Only)

7.2.2.1. Males

Appendices section 9.6.2 shows that there is a very positive significant difference between the male respondents that were pre festival non-ticket holders (group 1) and post festival participants (group 4) on sponsor recognition (from 38.2% to 80%) (Chi-square: 14.055, p-value: 0.0001). The results are very strong, as expected. The sponsor recognition for males is suitable for a trend analysis.

7.2.2.2. Females

Appendices section 9.6.2 shows that there is a very significant difference between the female respondents that were pre festival non-ticket holders (group 1) and post festival participants (group 4) on sponsor recognition (from 22.1% to 64.6%) (Chi-square: 34.646, p-value: 0.000001). The results are very strong, as expected. The sponsor recognition for females is suitable for a trend analysis.

7.2.3. Group 1 and 4: Brand Personality

Appendices section 9.6.3 shows that there are significant increase between the respondents that were pre festival non-ticket holders (group 1) and post festival participants (group 4) for factors 1 (innovation), 3 (extroversion) and 4 (sophistication) (p-values: 0.022, 0.037 and 0.046) and no differences for factor 2 (trustworthiness) (p-value: 0.852). The results indicate that at least factors 1, 3 and 4 are suitable for trend analysis, and shows that it would not make sense to look for a trend for factor 2. In the bias section it was shown that the results from factor 4 should be interpreted cautiously.

7.2.4. Group 1 and 4: Brand Attitude

7.2.4.1. Males

Appendices section 9.6.4 shows that there is a very significant increase between the male respondents that were pre festival non-ticket holders (group 1) and post festival participants (group 4) on brand attitude (p-value: 0.001). The results are strong. The brand attitude for males is suitable for a trend analysis.

7.2.4.2. Females

Appendices section 9.6.3 shows that there is a very significant increase between the female respondents that were pre festival non-ticket holders (group 1) and post festival participants (group 4) on brand attitude (p-value: 0.001). The results are strong. The brand attitude for females is suitable for a trend analysis.

7.2.5. Summation of Group 1 and 4 Comparison

The researchers have found evidence that there are significant positive differences for brand recognition for males and females, brand personality for factors 1, 3 and 4 and brand attitude for males and females from pre festival non-ticket holders (group 1) to post festival participants (group 4) respectively representing the potentially less exposed group to sponsorship stimuli and the most exposed one. The rest of the results show no differences, so under the assumption of a gradual increase there could not have been an effect of the sponsorship on top-of-mind awareness. A test for trend will show if these changes happen linearly between all groups. The scores in table 7 give an overall idea of the potential increases (illustrated with percentages and means).

	Male Recognition	Female Recognition	Factor 1	Factor 3	Factor 4	Male Attitude	Female Attitude
Group 1	38.8%	22.1%	3.678	3.577	3.002	5.067	4.724
Group 2	41.1%	17.9%	3.643	3.699	3.088	5.036	4.884
Group 3	52.2%	40.6%	3.791	3.814	3.083	5.058	5.058
Group 4	80.0%	64.6%	4.064	3.898	3.321	4.716	5.240
NorthSide	77.0%[4]	78.9%	5.512	5.113	4.125	5.835	6.123

Table 7: Percentages of recognition and mean scores for brand personality and attitude in each of the groups including the overall NorthSide results.

7.3. Trend Tests

Kendall's tau test of trend can be used to detect linear trends in a number of *'k'* non-parametric independent samples. The test is based entirely on ranks, so it is robust towards non-normality and censoring (Hirsch, Slack, & Smith, 1982; Hirsch & Slack, 1984). Instead of looking at significant differences between the groups like the Mann-Whitney or Kruskal-Wallis tests, the Kendall's Tau look at the linear relationship between the groups, meaning that it may detect smaller changes that accumulate over time or as in this research - exposure. Kendall's tau allows for a nonparametric test based on the number of concordant and discordant pairs of observations (Sroka, 2007).

The tests will be based on the assumption that there is a gradual increase in effects from pre festival non-participants (1), to post festival non-participants (2), to pre festival ticket holder (3) to post festival participants (4) because of a gradual difference in exposure to the sponsorship of NorthSide. The respondents in group 1 were approached before the festival and they had not bought a ticket to NorthSide, their exposure to the relationship between NorthSide and Royal Beer is here seen as the initial level of exposure. The respondents in group 2 were approached after the festival and they had not attended the festival, but the assumption is that they would have been exposed to a larger amount of media coverage from the festival and their answers should be influenced by it. The respondents in group 3 have visited the NorthSide webpage to buy the ticket for the festival and they have probably been following the media coverage of NorthSide in order to be up-to-

[4] The NorthSide sponsor recognition percentage consists of unaided and aided awareness, see appendices section 9.6.6 for an overview.

date about bands etc. The assumption is that they have been exposed to more sponsorship stimuli than the two previous groups. The respondents in group 4 have gone through most of what the previous groups have experienced, but they also attended the festival and where even more exposed to the event/sponsor relationship. They should have the highest level of exposure. Of course, if these assumptions will be confirmed by the trend test, it would infer that present authors failed to isolate the sole effects of festival participations from extraneous variables such as exposure to other sponsorship stimuli or world-of-mouth over this two weeks period.

Present authors will check for a trend in sponsor recognition, brand personality (factor 1, 3 and 4) and brand attitude, since these were evidenced to have significantly changed between group 1 and 4. While no similar effects were evidenced for top-of-mind awareness and brand personality factor 2, they will be left out of the analysis. The null hypothesis the recognition, personality and attitude towards the sponsor do not increase linearly to the exposure of the relationship between NorthSide and Royal Beer. The alternative hypothesis is that the recognition, personality and attitude towards the sponsor do increase linearly to the exposure of the relationship between NorthSide and Royal Beer.

The current authors would expect a positive linear relationship for the 3 factors, attitude and sponsor recognition, since the NorthSide questionnaires have shown remarkably high scores for each of these, see table 7 for a comparison of the means for each of the variables. One-sided tests will be used in the analysis because the expected outcome is positive and therefore one-sided.

7.3.1. Sponsor Recognition: Trend Test

7.3.1.1. Males

From appendices section 9.7.1 it is clear that the null is rejected (p-value 0.002). Hence, the results from this trend test indicate that the sponsor recognition for male respondents increase with the level of hypothesized exposure to the sponsorship. See figure 4 for a graphical presentation of the linearity of the cumulated percentages for males from table 7.

7.3.1.2. Females

From appendices section 9.7.1 it is clear that the null is rejected (p-value 0.0001). The results from this trend test indicate that the sponsor recognition for female respondents increase with the level of hypothesized

exposure to the sponsorship. See figure 4 for a graphical presentation of the linearity of the cumulated percentages for females from table 7.

Hence, respondents show a positive increase in sponsor recognition following the assumed gradual level of exposure to sponsorship stimuli.

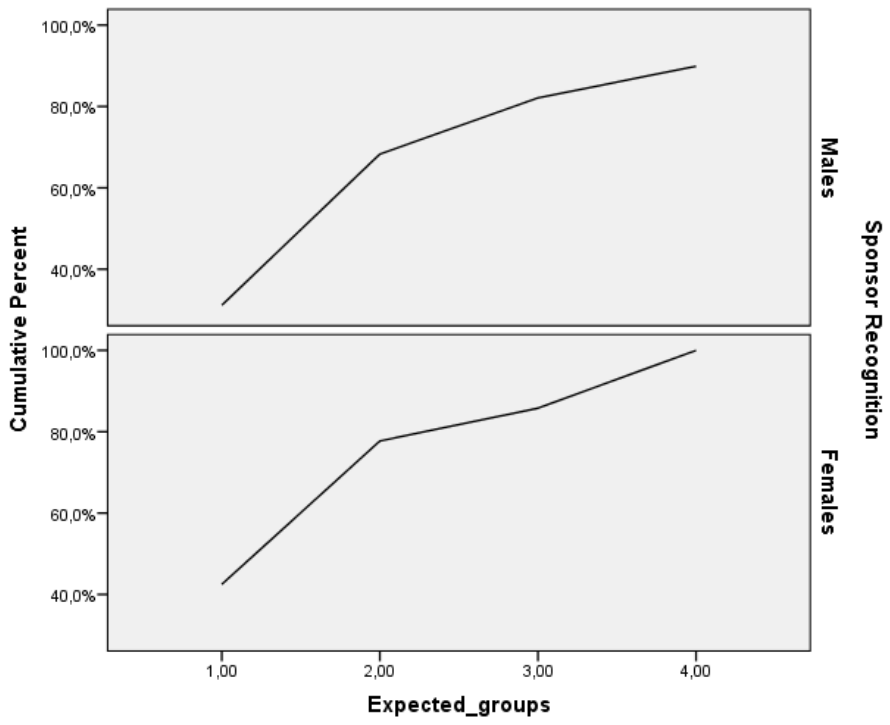


Figure 4: Graphical presentation of the linearity of the cumulative percentage for males and females.

7.3.2. Brand Personality of the Sponsor: Trend Test

From appendices section 9.7.2 it is seen that the null is weakly rejected for factor 1 (p-value: 0.041); the null is rejected for factor 3 (p-value: 0.014); the null is weakly rejected for factor 4 (p-value: 0.034). The graphical presentation of the linearity of the mean values for each of the groups in figure 5 and 6 basically shows the same story. The mean of 3.643 for group 2 in factor 1 (innovation) is slightly lower than the mean of 3.678 for group 1, the test is also close to the non-rejection area of 0.05, so it is not safe to conclude on behalf of the test. Factor 3 (extroversion) has the most significant results; there is a clear linear trend seen in figure 5. As previously stated the results from factor 4 cannot be trusted. There is some linearity seen in figure 6, but the means do not change much between the groups – for group 2 the mean of 3.088 is actually slightly higher than

the mean of 3.083 for group 3. The results from these trend tests indicate that the scores for the sponsor's personality have increased with the level of hypothesized exposure to the sponsorship. Moreover, it can be insinuated that thanks to its sponsorship of NorthSide, Royal Beer's personality appears as more innovative and extrovert for respondents. Indeed, NorthSide scored higher than Royal Beer in these dimensions eliciting a potential brand personality transfer.

- **Factor 1**

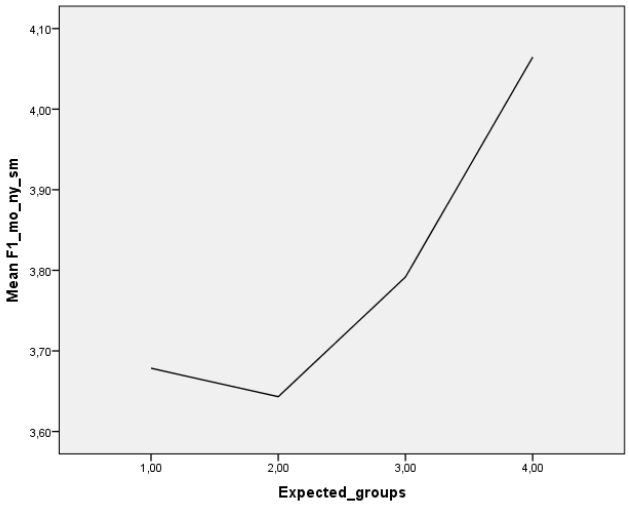


Figure 5: Graphical presentation of the linearity of the means of group 1-4 for factor 1.

- **Factor 3 and 4**

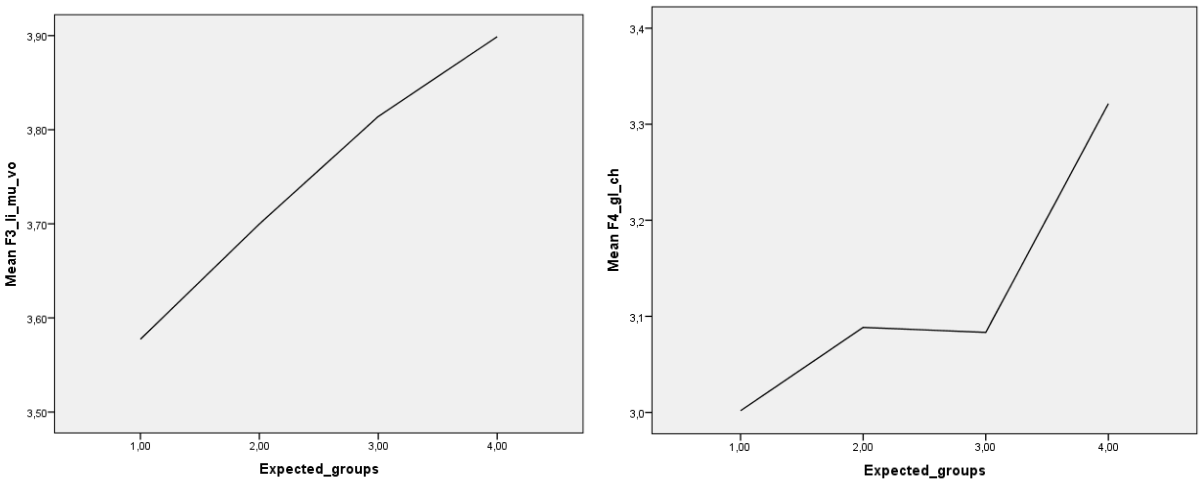


Figure 6: Graphical presentation of the linearity of the means of group 1-4 for factor 3 and 4.

7.3.3. Brand Attitude towards the Sponsor: Trend Test

7.3.3.1. Males

From appendices section 9.7.3 it is seen that the null is rejected for males (p-value: 0.09). There is not a significant trend for males.

7.3.3.2. Females

From appendices section 9.7.3 it is clear that the null is rejected for females (p-value 0.001), it is also seen that null hypothesis for males cannot be rejected (p-value: 0.09). The graphical presentation of the linearity of the means for attitude for groups 1-4 in figure 7 shows a clear linear relationship. The results from this trend test indicate that the attitude towards the sponsor for female respondents increased with the level of hypothesized exposure to the sponsorship.

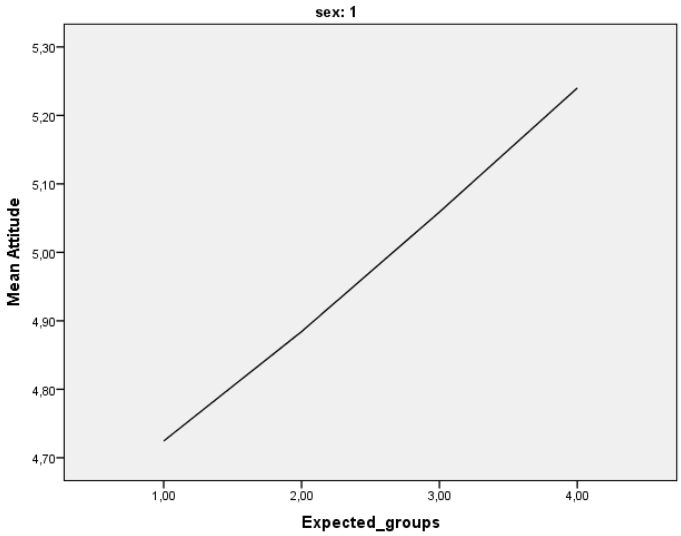


Figure 7: Graphical presentation of the linearity of the means of group 1-4 for factor 1 and 2.

7.3.4. Summation of Results for the Additional Hypotheses

The current researchers were able to show results with another assumption that the more assumed exposure a group of respondents would have to the festival, the better the perception of Royal Beer. The gradual increase in recognition for males and females respondents, the clear linear increase for the personality factor 'extroversion' and the same for the female respondents' attitude towards Royal Beer indicate that the overall sponsorship might have had an effect on the brand.

8. Findings and Evaluation of the Research

This chapter will reveal the findings from the analysis: first of all that no sponsorship effects can be attributed to the isolated event; then the failure of isolating the event; and lastly the generalizations of the findings.

8.1. No Sponsorship Effects Attributable to Event Participation

The hypotheses testing revealed that the only significant sponsorship effect imputable to event participation was on female respondents purchase intention of Royal Beer between before participants versus after participants. However, this shift is in the opposite direction of present authors' assumption: the before female festival participants have a higher purchase intention than the after female festival participants. After discarding the assumption that it might have been because of a higher sponsor recognition for the before female festival participants, present authors came to the conclusion that the scale could not be relied on and that purchase intention results should be ignored. Either, the question "*Would you choose Royal Beer next time you buy beer"* should have been formulated differently or the single Likert-item chosen for the measurement purpose should have been a summative multi-items Likert scale as for the other variables (brand attitude, brand personality).

While the female purchase intention is this research only significant (yet incongruent) sponsorship effect attributable to event participation, for which present authors have brought an element of response, present authors would like to argue that the tailored research design proved to be fitted for the research purpose. First and foremost, sponsor's recognition drastically increased between the pre experimental group and the post experimental group which to the present authors' opinion was an expected and a necessary change to occur in order to show this research design's ability to measure potential effects. In addition, while no significant participation effect have been evidenced between the experimental groups, no significant effect occurred between the control groups either meaning that overall, results are coherent. As it has been evidenced in the second part of the analysis and will be detailed in the second part of this conclusion, the lack of significant event participation effects is due to the fact that despite several trends, effects were simply not statistically significant.

Finally, present authors conclude that despite Royal Beer's efforts to communicate their sponsorship on-site (see case introduction chapter in section 4); participation in NorthSide did not significantly affect respondents' unaided brand recall, brand personality (therefore no brand personality transfer from the event to the sponsor)

and brand attitude of the sponsor Royal Beer. It is in line with Jalleh, Donovan, Giles-Corti, & Holman's findings (2002) who, using a very similar unconscious / hidden topic research design (immediate pre- post event survey on independent samples) and a replication study, evidenced no sponsorship effects attributable to event participation on 4 commercial sponsors' brand awareness and 3 commercial sponsors' brand attitude (sport events' sponsors including Coca Cola and General Motors amongst others) while in the meantime they evidenced effects on non-profit sponsors' brand awareness and attitude. To the present authors' assumption, the absence of significant sponsorship effects attributable to event participation in both studies gives a valid account of what sponsorship effects are: insignificant (at least for commercial sponsors in the light of Jalleh et al.'s findings). One could assume that if present authors would have used a conscious processing method, by communicating the research objectives and asking respondents their opinion about Royal Beer in relation to their NorthSide sponsorship, it could have resulted in significant effects. However, these effects would be respondents' opinion about how the sponsorship affected them rather than a factual reality. Martensen, Grønholdt, Bendtsen & Jensen (2007) actually used a very similar research design as the current study: a pre-post event survey on independent samples of about 160 respondents (pre data collection a week after the event, post data collection immediately after the event) except that they revealed the topic of their research by asking respondents about both the golf event and the sponsor, Bang & Olufsen, in the same questionnaire. It resulted in event participation effects on brand attitude and purchase intention among other variables.

8.2. Failure to Isolate Participation in NorthSide from Extraneous Variables

While testing the above stated hypotheses, present authors encountered recurrent patterns in the data. Indeed, for some variables such as sponsor recognition there seemed to be a gradual increase in the score indicators from pre control group respondents to the post control group respondents, the pre experimental group respondents and to the post experimental group. It led present authors to formulate the assumption that the data pattern was matching an increasing level of exposure to sponsorship stimuli between these different groups. Hence, they decided to proceed with a comparison of the assumed least exposed group to sponsorship stimuli (pre event control group) to the assumed most exposed group to sponsorship stimuli (post event experimental group) and since proven relevant, to conduct a trend test between the four groups to test the significance of potential trends in the sponsorship effects. First, the results indicated a significant increase between the before control group and the after experimental group on sponsor recognition (expected in the light of the previous hypothesis testing), on three brand personality dimensions: innovation, extroversion,

sophistication and on female respondents' brand attitude. Likewise, the ensuing trend analysis revealed a significant upward trend for the overall respondents' sponsor recognition (expected in the light of the previous hypothesis testing), the overall respondents' brand personality (on the extrovert and innovative brand personality dimensions) and the overall female respondents' brand attitude.

As a result, these tests evidenced that there has been a gradual positive effect for overall respondents on two of the brand personality dimensions and for the overall female respondents on brand attitude. However, the source of these significant effects cannot be identified. It might be attributable to the overall sponsorship stimuli (event participation, media coverage, social media) since the trend direction matches the assumed level of exposure of respondent groups to sponsorship stimuli but it might as well be something else present authors failed to monitor.

To conclude, the presence of significant trends between the four groups - including the control groups - indicates that the research design failed to be robust to extraneous variables and isolate potential sponsorship effects attributed to sole event participation. Reason is probably to be found in the extended data collection period: a week before the event and a week after. Hence, post event experimental group might have been exposed to random sponsorship stimuli (e.g. media exposure) in addition to their festival participation. Nonetheless, failure to isolate sole participation effects does not weaken the above stated findings that participation in NorthSide did not significantly affect respondents' brand recall, brand personality and brand attitude of the sponsor Royal Beer. Indeed, it would have been a clear threat to the findings if present authors' had evidenced significant sponsorship effects (what yielded to these results - the event participation or the potential extraneous variables?). However, since no effect has been significantly evidenced, it means that the event participation and whatever other potential extraneous variables there have been; did not yield to significant results.

8.3. Generalization of the Findings

The use of a purposive sampling, a non-random sampling method due to the difficulty in reaching festival participants, makes an empirical generalization of the findings to the target population - typical NorthSide 2013 participants - impossible on statistical grounds (Schwandt, 2007).

However the present authors favour a theoretical generalization approach (Schwandt, 2007). Since this research has assessed in a valid manner the (non) sponsorship effects of participation in NorthSide on the

sample population's perceptions of Royal Beer there is no evident counter indication to an assumption of findings' generalization to the target population. While it is impossible for the present authors to precisely assess the similarity between the sample population's demographics and the target population's 2013 demographics (age unknown); influence of sex, age, city of residence and occupation on answers to the different dependent variables have been checked. These manipulations indicated that sex and city of residence influence sponsor recognition answers and that sex influences brand attitude answers of this research. Thus, present authors argue that if these stated biases are respected in the generalization of the results (e.g. the sample's female sponsor recognition results generalized to the population's female sponsor recognition results); sample population's results can be generalized to all typical NorthSide 2013 participants.

In addition, results could also be potentially generalized to the whole NorthSide population if one follows the similar biases precautions for sex and city of residence.

Finally, the results from this particular case cannot directly be extended to other music festival and beer brands sponsors since indicators such as sponsorship leverage come into play but they can definitely serve as indicators. It is in line with Quester & Thompson's assumption that also used an experimental design to research sponsorships (2001).

9. Conclusion

This pre- post quasi-experiment with an unconscious processing of independent samples of respondents leads to the conclusion that while participation in NorthSide 2013 very significantly increased recognition of Royal Beer as the event's sponsor, it did not have any significant effect on event participants' brand recall, brand personality (hence no brand personality transfer) and brand attitude of Royal Beer despite their on-site activation. One of the objectives was to assess the effects on purchase intention but the single Likert-item scale chosen for this purpose was deemed unreliable; therefore results are to be ignored. Besides, the research design failed to isolate the independent variable "event participation" from the other extraneous variables. However, it does not weaken the above stated results since no significant effects were observed anyhow.

The failure to isolate event participation effects became evident after the completion of a trend analysis on the 4 Royal Beer research groups (pre event control group, post event control group, pre event experimental group and post event experimental group) that unveiled significant upward trends in sponsor recognition (expected), brand personality (extrovert and innovative dimensions) and female respondents' brand attitude. Both control groups being part of these significant trends suggest that an extraneous variable was at play. Since the trend matches an assumed level of exposure to sponsorship stimuli, from the potentially least exposed respondents group being (pre event control group) to the potentially most exposed respondents group (post event experiment group), it is assumed that the significant trends are due to overall sponsorship stimuli. However, it remains an assumption.

Therefore, findings of this research evidence no significant sponsorship effects due to event participation but leads to the assumption that overall sponsorship stimuli might have significant effects on brand personality and brand attitude.

10. Further Research

The present authors' limited budget and inability to convince the NorthSide management team to work with them in order to obtain random samples should not keep other researchers from replicating the overall design of the current research in a similar festival setting. The authors of this research do believe that a few changes should be made: random sampling over purposive sampling; an aim for larger sample sizes for the comparison of subgroups; and furthermore a Likert scale for purchase intention should be used. Taking these recommendations into consideration, the current researchers still encourage identifying and controlling for bias, so that the isolation of the effects can become clearer.

In light of the current researchers' strong advocacy for an unbiased research design with unconscious processing of questions about the sponsorship, it would be interesting for other researchers to investigate the difference between unconscious and conscious processing effects on respondents' answers to questions about the sponsoring entity.

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Copenhagen Business School 2014
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MASTER'S THESIS

Sponsorship Effects on Music Festival Participants

APPENDICES

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February, 5th, 2014

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Table of Content

Appendices

1. Interview Transcript

Below is the transcript of the interview of Royal Beer brand manager Morten Wilms that was conducted by present authors David Gramm Kristensen and Victor Guedon. Objectives of the interview were to understand Royal Beer strategy and the Northside music festival arrangement and communication plan. Interview took place at Copenhagen Business School canteen on 24th May, 2013 and lasted 36:48 minutes. Two extracts have not been transcribed for confidentiality reasons (not relevant for the topic of this paper anyways).

- Transcript starts

Victor Guedon: Royal Beer brand, what is the strategy? Like...

Morten Wilms: So, like any other beer brand we look at male consumers, urban, located in big cities, preferably eighteen to thirty-five years old.

VG: Ok.

MW: And then we try to look at, we try to match the interests and values of these people and then basically try to meet them at their preference.

VG: Yeah. So target group you said would be eighteen to thirty-five?

MW: Sort of yeah. That's what we work on - um urban males.

VG: Ok.

MW: The reason for this is that they -- you know these are outspoken, these are extrovert mostly - um world of mouth, it travels fast in these groups. So that's sort of the overall consumer group. Then we decided to focus on music.

VG: Yeah.

MW: First of all and more specifically rock music.

VG: Yeah.

MW: And you can do that several ways. We decided to go very much into the -- how do you say that in English, into the -- talent pool. Not established band, we are looking at the talent pool, we are looking at people who have a genuine interest in music and then try to meet them at different levels, meet them in the -- when they -- when they practice in the basement - um, when they go to festival, Northside is one example and then of course through advertising, T V C's (*TV Commercials*) and try to reach them there.

VG: OK. So rock music.

MW: And that should, that should finally -- end up in them wanting or preferring Royal Beer over other beers when they stand in the supermarket. 'Cause we are in the fast moving consumer goods business so people are price sensitives, they, they, they have numerous eh -- producers like us like Carlsberg have numerous ((tricks)) to disguise price per unit: different packaging, different numbers, content, offers and stores so you need to -- you know you need to (LG) different- +differentiate yourself on other points than the price because it's...

VG: Yeah and it is actually what we were talking about because Tuborg is like historically is pretty -- like is very involved in eh -- for example Roskilde music festival, is it is it considered as a rock beer as well or?

MW: No, no.

VG: No?

MW: It's a music beer.

VG: Music beer.

MW: Tuborg is a very very wid- +wide eh -- I mean they are targeting the same group as us, they are just not focusing on the niche part of the music. They are looking at Grøn Concert which is basically, and Roskilde, these are basically concert for every people - um Roskilde is not, I mean Roskilde would be interesting for anyone, for any beer brand, obviously.

VG: Yeah.

MW: But -- we have everything bu- +but Roskilde, Skive and a few others more festivals in Denmark.

VG: But it's actually one my question what eh -- which sponsorship like -- can you recall like?

MW: Ours?

VG: Yeah, Royal Beer.

MW: So basically we have eh -- we have what we call Tak Rock! focused sponsorships, these are music focus- +focused sponsorships meaning they have a diret rele- +relevance to eh -- between Royal Beer and the music industry. This is - um Copenhell.

VG: Yeah.

MW: This is eh -- Spot Festival, it's a talent festival in Aarhus.

VG: Ok.

MW: And there are numerous others -- we have, then we have sponsorships focused on, on the beer con- +consumer himself that, those are more wide, that is Tivoli Fredagsrock, that is Smukfest, that is also Northside, Northside is actually a wide crowd.

VG: Yeah, yeah, that's true.

MW: - um and then we have some strategic sponsorships or sorry Trailerpark Festival is also, that sort of falls into the all three categories because it is such a niche festival also.

VG: Which one sorry?

MW: Trailerpark.

VG: Oh ok, yeah, yeah.

MW: And we have Frøst festival which is also -- into the Tak Rock! segment although it's not rock but it's very -- niche in the music industry - um it terms of it's small venues but again back to the volume drivers: Tivoli, eh -- Smukfest, Northside - um.

VG: What about Distortion?

MW: Distortion is a strategic sponsorship, so this is eh -- us focusing on Copenhagen.

VG: Ok.

MW: Urban Copenhagen males.

VG: Yeah, that's true, yeah.

MW: But, and, sort of Tivoli also falls into this category as a -- because it's, it's a strategically important eh -- sponsorship. So tho- +those are the three headlines we work from I ha- +have the overview at home I can send it to you.

"Sponsorship classification as sent by Morten Wilms in a follow-up email:

- Tak Rock relevant (rock music events or talent/upcoming focused events)

- Young & Urban PLSNR segment (events/sponsorships attracting "hipsters", young people and in general, opinionators and first movers in urban areas, primarily Copenhagen)

- Royal Beer relevante (volume drivers – selling tons of beer)

Some of them can fit under more categories (ex. Copenhell is first and most Tak Rock relevant but it is also Royal Beer relevant as it is a volume driver)."

VG: Yeah.

MW: - um

VG: - um yep, yep, yep - and yeah, what are your -- like, your motivations I would say or objectives by sponsoring all these festivals, I mean you said it's strategic,

MW: *(agreement sound)*

VG: - it's as well selling a lot,

MW: *(agreement sound)*

VG: like in terms of -- I don't know is it mostly eh -- a sale objective, that on spot you can sell a lot or is it as well a eh -- an image objective or it's balanced?

MW: Well most of all it's balanced.

VG: Yeah.

MW: But we do business cases obviously to see: this is the sponsor fee, this is how much we have to put in to actually market it and then in terms of how much in volume and sales now Frøst for example, during February it is not a volume festival, we don't sell much in this festival because it is so much music focused and so little beer focused - um so we already know there that we're actually not getting anything in return on the money but we're getting som- +some,

VG: Equity or?

MW: Some brand equity you can't really measure.

VG: Yeah.

MW: Whether or not eh -- Smukfest, Tivoli also people,

VG: So this is how, how sponsorship work in general? It would be eh -- a sponsor fee that you pay yourself and then around that, like -- how does it work? 'Cause we can see eh -- posters like right now I think you have a campaign with Northside, you can see posters everywhere - um so you have both the line-up of the festival and then you have a huge logo with the beer brand, so I mean is this a campaign that -- you pay yourself? Or is it paid by eh --.

MW: Yes. When you do a contract you a flat fee: this is how much we pay North- +Northside per year.

VG: Yeah.

MW: And then you have a- +an activation fee which is usually about fifty percent of the total fee and we, and Northside, agree on what to spend those money on. And basically they told us do outdoors for X Y Z amount of money and then we said fine, we're gonna do an outdoor but wit- +with a Northside background and we're gonna throw our products in.

VG: Yeah.

MW: To sort of create the connection in consumer's mind.

VG: Yeah, yeah.

MW: On-site branding is another thin- is another story.

VG: Yeah.

MW: Because some festivals are very - um, how do you say, they wanna dec- they, they; Roskilde for example is -- you can basically put up a beer sign and that's fine they don't really care. Smukfest is very different 'cause they wanna build everything themselves so branding yourself at Smukfest or at Trailerpark requires -- much more creativity in some way.

VG: Ok.

MW: Then Northside is more like Roskilde, you can -- you can build standard beer stands and then put a beer sign up and people will know whe- +where to go. - um.

VG: Ok, while actually Smukfest is more like eh -- you need to think how to integrate the sponsoring.

MW: Exactly, it's tailor-made. So they build everything by their hands, everything is made from wood or -- you know, strange materials and they build it all up.

VG: Ok.

MW: The festival is in mid-August and they start in the -- they start next week.

VG: Ok.

MW: To start building stuff in the forest.

VG: That's pretty interesting!

MW: - um So, so you know the -- you asked "what do you do on site?", "how do you brand yourself?", "how do you activate on-site?" It's very, very, different from festival to festival.

VG: Yeah. And in the case of Northside? 'Cause we are thinking about it, what is the full communication plan? I mean, I'm not talking about cost but just: when did you start on eh-- like, I guess you have some before events, communication on-site and after?

MW: On-site eh --, actually I haven't been much on-site that's Freddy who does that but, but again it's sort of -- they decide: "Ok, we have a beer stand here, a beer stand there, we have a beer stand there" and then our festival service guys comes in, put up the standard equipment and then it just goes from there. So --

VG: That would be Freddy, he is in Odense, right?

MW: Yes, he is sponsoring and ev- +event manager. And -- around it I mean we do --

VG: Like before? 'Cause I can see on the Facebook, like the Facebook page eh -- Internet like it started long ago, right?

MW: Yeah. Well Northside is a special case because it's actually, it's, it's, they sold forty thousand tickets in all time, it's, it' sold-out. So... You're looking, actually looking at a serious competitor to Roskilde festival.

- Part of the interview not transcribed since confidential

MW: Northside is the future festival format, meaning it's an in-city festival, you don't have tent camps so you can attract a wide range of people. So you come at eh -- lunch time, you eat, drink, and listen to music for twelve hours, you go home sleep and you come back the next day. So in terms of eh -- selling tickets, we didn't, we didn't have to do much. We are running outdoor campaigns right now on Northside and we have to put "sold-out" stamp on it so it's not the point of the campaign.

VG: Yeah that's true, that's true. But it's a way of branding a bit about Northside and Royal.

MW: Exactly, but in retrospect, we should have done this campaign two months ago when tickets went on sale.

VG: How many tickets did you say they sold?

MW: Forty thousand.

VG: It was what, twenty-five thousands last year or...?

David Gramm Kristensen: *(confirmatory knodding)*

VG: OK!

MW: They opened, they, they have another two football pitches they opened now for the crowd.

VG: Crazy, OK, eh -- Yeah, do you evaluate usually the effects of sponsorship?

MW: They do.

VG: They do? Like it's each sponsor - um, each sponsored venue that is in charge of?

MW: Yeah. They, they come in, well, they don't evaluate necessarily our eh --, they evaluate their own festival: what kind of people came there, what's the average spending per person and we look into those. Again, this is part of a bigger strategy of, we want, I mean we want to be there, when you see, when you evaluate on sponsorship you can find thousands of things that say "get out of the sponsorship".

VG: (LG)

MW: You can always find holes in the cheese as we say but, but, it's long term, it's about, it's also about creating a good relationship with the planners, with the owners. I mean, 'cause, 'cause there are a few,

there are ten, fifteen people in this country who knows how to run a festival and if you're not friend with them, I mean you're not gonna be in line with the consumer. I mean you have to, you have to disregard all the bad things and just do five, six years contract to stay in the...

VG: This is like, this is how it works actually? You sign like long term contracts?

MW: We just eh --, yeah we just signed Tivoli for another five years, for example. Northside is also up for renegotiation, we have Copenhell so, Distortion: five, three of four years I am not sure.

VG: It was Heineken l- +last year, no? Or?

MW: Heineken last year, yes. So, and that is again, this is managed from a top level strategic point of view. They just simply just took the sponsorship and move it to, to Royal Beer and then called in the Distortion planners and asked them to renegotiate the whole thing for another brand.

VG: I've seen that you have eh -- like cans, I have seen in the I P I's *(internal project applications within Royal Unibrew*) actually that you have some cans for Distortion.

MW: Distortion, Smukfest.

VG: Nothing for Northside?

MW: Nothing for Northside, yet!

VG: Yet, ok

- Part of the interview not transcribed since confidential

MW: We also, what else do we do? Yeah then we do cans for Tak Rock! but that's not a sponsorship in that sense. And that is, again, part of the negotiation. Big thing is: for these organzations "how can Royal Beer help us sell more tickets, how can they help us be more visible to all kinds of consumers" and a can or a bottle it's a very good media.

VG: It's true.

MW: It's actually, you kn- +know classified as a media like a T V (*television*) or advertise or anything. So it's, it's just another way of exposing the consumer to the...

VG: And fo- +for how long do you have these cans in th- +the trade like eh --?

MW: That depends on sales forecast. If, if the sales division has an optimistic forecast. I was looking at Tivoli Fredagsrock cans from last year -- two months ago. I could still find them in seven eleven. So that's, that's a pretty big problem because we have to rotate these cans because the new ones are coming in now.

VG: Yeah, yeah. I thought it was only for a few months for example.

MW: Ah, I mean Fredagsrock is from mid-April to...

VG: I have never seen the Fredagsrock cans.

MW: No?

VG: No.

MW: Well come, well come down to marketing I'll show you have them all. (LG)

VG: Yeah. (LG)

MW: So we don't have a specific timeline, eh -- if, if you look at Tak Rock!, we have agreements with the bands like for ho- +how, for how long time can we use your name and your picture on the can.

VG: Ok, eh -- and actually that's, I'm just thinking now, do you eh --, when you advertise about Royal in general, the brand, do you have some differences in the regions or would you say it's more or less the same communication in all Denmark?

MW: We try to do it eh -- national. However, knowing that we have a strong brand in the West, and on Zealand and in Copenhagen it is Carlsberg, Tuborg territory so -- sometimes, for example Distortion, we don't do that national, we focus that on Copenhagen. Oh and we also do it a bit Arhus 'cause we do believe that there is a spillover effect. In general, we try to keep it on national level.

VG: Yeah, for example th- +the Skanderborg can it's gonna be (())?

MW: Yeah, but only in Danish Supermarkets. Not in Coop or any other. Eh -- Tivoli, even though it is a Copenhagen thing, it is such a strong brand Tivoli itself so we do it on a nationwide basis.

VG: So where would you say, like, you have the stronger sales? I know, talking with Lars, he told me that eh -- in Fyn actually you have eh --.

MW: Yeah, that's Albani.

VG: Albani.

MW: Yeah so that- +that's not me. But Aarhus - Aarhus is probably, 'cause that's the hometown of, of Ceres which is now Royal.

VG: Yeah.

MW: -um but generally, in Jutland, it- +it's a strong brand, it's also unfortunately a strong brand on the border eh --;

VG: So in Jutland that's an issue.

MW: Yeah, no, I mean it's not an issue because we make a lot of money there but we would like to shift some of that to Copenhagen.

VG: And actually, that is one question, do you eh -- , Northside for example sponsored by Royal Beer, what is the assortment that you can find there, for the consumer?

MW: Consumer? Pilsner.

VG: Only?

MW: Royal Pilsner.

VG: Ok.

MW: On tap. So if you go Smukfest you can find different bars, you can find a World of Beer bar with all the, with all Kim's products, you can find eh -- Blå Thor which is an original brand fro- +from the Randers area. They are much more open to the assortment we can bring in whereas eh -- I'm not sure if the Northside are gonna do eh -- a new bar but the- +they wanna keep it simple. So, it's usually from a tank truck and then just on tap. And we have Pilsner then, Royal Pislner. So the assortment is quite limited.

VG: But then soft-drinks, like, it's as well?

MW: Sure, they bring in most of the, you can get, they usually have Booster mix *(2 variants of Faxe Kondi Booster, energy drink)* eh -- but I'm pretty sure they'll sell Egekilde on eh -- bottles there.

VG: Ok, do you know if there is any strong, like you know, liquor or you know?

MW: Jägermeister is definitely gonna be there. Jägermeister is everywhere (LG) eh -- they are, I mean.

VG: 'Cause I thought it was kind of exclusive in the way it was...

MW: See, my problem is that I am, I do most of the drinking in the backstage area so (LG) and that's not the same as the main area. Eh -- you can definitely get booze there too. Eh -- You know those eh -- thin shots...

VG: Yeah, we were talking about these actually.

MW: So, so those sort of mobile, easy to drink, ((rave)) drink. I think we also have a lot of Tempt there, obviously, 'cause it's an- +and again that is what Freddy does when he negotiates these contracts is he tries to get exclusivity on all our products.

VG: Yeah.

MW: 'Cause we know Redbull will pitch in, Cult will pitch in, Jägermeister is not such a big thing because it's a booze brand but still, it will cannibalize in the beer but. So, so we try to ma- +make it exclusive with Royal Unibrew products but...

VG: - um and we were thinking, you for example, as a marketer, wha- +what could you think about that is a tool that you could use, like eh -- some measurement that you don't have access to or... You know you said for example brand equity is like very difficult to measure.

MW: Oh yeah.

VG: Impossible, but eh --...

MW: Well -um, we do brand tracking. So we have these questionnaires basically where we constantly ask people at diff- +different levels about the brand -um.

VG: Is it the same panel or?

MW: Yes, same question pattern - um, on a monthly basis, we also, I mean and that's sort of the branding thing but again a festival -- even though you brand it nationwide, the effect is sort of -- I think we have been running this festival focus, this rock music focus for what, three and half years now and we, already now we are tracking better than Tuborg in relation to the music, knowing they have been running Grøn concert for some thirty years now. - um So we are on the right track but, what we, what exactly we have done, I don't, I'm not sure no- I mean nobody really knows. I do believe the T V C's, the advertising we do with the bands. It- +It's so different from other advertising, from other eh -- you know, T V C's.

VG: Which one, like?

MW: Kashmir, we did Kashmir first and (()) these Tak Rock! commercial they are in black and white, they are very emotional, very expensive too (LG) and then eh -- and that sort of, 'cause people get so much advertising in their face every day, and you need, just need to, especially in the consumer market when someone tells me that I can, I can clean my toilet with one spray of this Cillit Bang thing, I'm al- +almost offended because they talk to me like I'm a child so you need to create the advertising in a way that

makes people think it's actually cool to watch and they go on Youtube and watch it again and again and again.

VG: Yeah.

MW: And I think that help us in th- +the brand tracking part so that's one thing of measuring, or trying to measuring these sponsorships. eh -- Smukfest has a pretty comprehensive report where they actually also ask people "which beer brand is the main sponsor of the festival?" I was amazed that three out of four didn't know it was Royal Beer.

DGK: We saw some.

VG: Yeah, we saw some actually, yeah!

MW: Sorry, one out of four didn't know it was Royal Beer. I thought it would be like -- two out of one hundred, I mean!

VG: Yeah, the same, the same. I think it was Northside festival where it was amazing results two years ago, or?

DGK: Yeah, 2011. We were a bit surprised with the results.

MW: Yes, because it was so low?

VG & DGK: Yeah!

MW: And at least, I mean everybody knows that Roskilde is Tuborg now because they have been holding hands for so many years now. It just goes to show that even though we live in our little marketing bubble and we think we can do anyth- + everything all so well, it- +it's so far, it's so far from the rest of the reality.

VG: Yeah.

DGK: So, - um you did say that you didn't have much to do with the actual things going on at the festival but are you, did you ask if we, you do anything, small events with the beer with the...?

MW: In Northside, for example, we did eh -- culture works, pop-up stores it's called so in downtown Aarhus, we did for three weekends in a row, end April until --, and then three weeks from there, every Friday and Saturday we had this simple bar in the main street called Vestergade, downtown Aarhus. Just built it up from beer boxes and just had I think some lounge furniture in there and people came in and, and, of course we had a lot of beers there so people, we sort of pre-activated consumers before the event.

VG: Yeah, but you have had some events as well in eh -- Pumpehuset or...?

MW: Yes but...

VG: Like, it was linked as well to Northside somehow or, no?

MW: It was the organizer, again, this is the sort of washing his back all the time, keep- +keeping the atmosphere good. So he has this, this band called Duné and they have a showcase in Pumpehuset. They need some financing and we agree that we could take those money that we financed the Duné event with, we could take it from the common activation pool we have with Northside which is a good thing for us because it was money we've already paid and then we -- I'm not sure how it actually, I think the connection to Northside was pretty weak. From our point, I think the Northside planners -- owed, or had something -- they have to pay back to the Duné management so they sort of got this (())

VG: Yeah, yeah.

MW: - um, but right, I mean, yeah that was definitely what we... We activate also on Facebook and RoyalbeerTV: tickets... and, Northside we cannot get any of the bands up there, we have over a thousand bands in the database, upcoming rock bands, so we try to make sure they get into warm up gigs with big bands or they get to play on festival stages.

VG: Does that work? Like, are you satisfied with eh --?

MW: Oh there is a big interest, of course, now we have Copenhell coming up and we have, some of them can play on one of the big stages and we have -- thousands of people you know, chipping in 'we wanna hear this band from your database and...'' It is not something you can see in the beer sales, this is, this is...

VG: Yeah, yeah, definitely.

MW: It'- +Its sort of a -- strange measurement.

VG: But talking about the beer sales for example, like, do you, do you observe like few month after Smukfest or Northside, do you observe some lifts in the sales or, like regionally or...?

MW: - um Not, not something that I recall being noticeable.

VG: Ok.

MW: Of course we look at the hectoliter consumed or the liter consumed per guest -um. These are not directly sales oriented sponsorships so having a spillover effect on the sales afterward, it's hard to tell. It could be, because the market is so controlled by prices an- +and other stuff so it is sort of hard to make a direct connection to this -um yeah. So, no, in terms of sponsorship we look solely on the sales on the event, on the, of course also we look at how the, if you measure Smukfest we have the branded suitcase and the branded can: we also look at how they fly out of the supermarket (()). But we, I don't recall any significant spillover effect in the months afterwards.

VG: OK, -um, just I wanted to go back to eh -- you said you're tracking the brand, you know: month after month. You said it's the same question set but is it the same people that you interview or different people?

MW: Good question. It's a media agency who does it so they have a base, they have to call at least a thousand people per month eh -- I'm sure they have a list of people who said yes, this is something we would like to do - um, I'd say the brand tracking is good but it's far from perfect.

VG: Yeah.

MW: It's far from perfect, they- + there could be so many small factors playing in their answers. I'd like to think they shift base, you know they, they don't call the same thousand people every time. I'd like to think that.

VG: It would be nice, 'cause eh --...

MW: They told me they did it so I, I wanna believe it.

VG: Ok.

MW: But again, as you say, brand equity, *notorably it's extremely difficult to measure -- or quantify. So this is, this is sort of the way how to do it (LG), you call a thousand people and ask them the same pan-

+panel of questions month after month and see -- how it goes, up and down, compare with the other competitors. The good thing is our competitors does it too. So at least we have a basis of, of you know, comparing with.

VG: Yeah, and eh -- Are you not afraid that getting involved in so many sponsorships, maybe like...

MW: That's why we classify them in those three levels: I mean strategic, Tak Rock! and then down right consum- +beer sales because, we can easily get distorted in our minds about which one to pursue an- +and for example, Northside and Copenhell put the festival in the same weekend and Livenation who does eh -- Copenhell and eh -- Brian who does Northside, they don't like each other, they hate each other. So, of course, already here we're like, we're trying to please both but knowing that they don't like each other, of course there is eh --, there is eh --, you know, I wouldn't say that it is dangerous but you could def-, +there is a chance that you won't maximize your profit or what you gain from these sponsorships if you are in too many. I'm not seeing as backfiring but --

VG: I mean, you might, you might, dilute the, like the brand image like for example if you say it's like true rock music and, like niche, if you look at Tivoli for example it's pretty mainstream pop eh --

MW: Three, three rock names over the course of the year they have. We, we have online our all Royal Beer Tak Rock! is focused on this online platform called royalbeer.tv and for this there is a Facebook, however, so far we have a problem -- marketing -- sponsorships that are not related to Tak Rock!: Distortion, Traikerpark, Fredagsrock, (()) also if we have to do a campaign or something about the X-mas beer.

VG: Sorry about?

MW: About the X-mas beer, I mean th- +the Christmas beer. Sort of, it, it, it is difficult to do some good solid online advertising on these. Yesterday we started out the Royal Beer page now so it should be running now and that gives us two sort of channels and we can focus the Tak Rock! much more on just Copenhell and just, basically keeping it simple.

VG: Yeah, yeah.

MW: 'Cause the crowd is so, we have twenty thousand now, fans, and they are so loyal. The, the level of interaction on Tak Rock! is huge in compare with other sites who have hundreds of thousands of fans. And then open up on the Royal Beer site, and then we can do Distortion, Instagram because if we do Distortion too much on Tak Rock!, you know Copenhell guys they will be like "Fuck you, this isn't rock".

VG: That's true.

MW: I mean, "you guys are just trying to sell some more beers out, I'm not gonna stick around". So yeah -- but we have done something about that now.

VG: eh -- I don't know, that's pretty much it for me.

- Transcript ends

2. Final Brand Personality Scale

Aaker's final brand personality traits, facets and dimensions composition.

Appendix A

A BRAND PERSONALITY SCALE

(Means and Standard Deviations)*

Traits	*Mean*	*Standard Deviation*	*Facet*	*Facet Name*	*Factor Name*	*Mean*	*Standard Deviation*
down-to-earth	2.92	1.35	(1a)	Down-to-earth	Sincerity	2.72	.99
family-oriented	3.07	1.44	(1a)				
small-town	2.26	1.31	(1a)				
honest	3.02	1.35	(1b)	Honest			
sincere	2.82	1.34	(1b)				
real	3.28	1.33	(1b)				
wholesome	2.81	1.36	(1c)	Wholesome			
original	3.19	1.36	(1c)				
cheerful	2.66	1.33	(1d)	Cheerful			
sentimental	2.23	1.26	(1d)				
friendly	2.95	1.37	(1d)				
daring	2.54	1.36	(2a)	Daring	Excitement	2.79	1.05
trendy	2.95	1.39	(2a)				
exciting	2.79	1.38	(2a)				
spirited	2.81	1.38	(2b)	Spirited			
cool	2.75	1.39	(2b)				
young	2.73	1.40	(2b)				
imaginative	2.81	1.35	(2c)	Imaginative			
unique	2.89	1.36	(2c)				
up-to-date	3.60	1.30	(2d)	Up-to-date			
independent	2.99	1.36	(2d)				
contemporary	3.00	1.32	(2d)				
reliable	3.63	1.28	(3a)	Reliable	Competence	3.17	1.02
hard working	3.17	1.43	(3a)				
secure	3.05	1.37	(3a)				
intelligent	2.96	1.39	(3b)	Intelligent			
technical	2.54	1.39	(3b)				
corporate	2.79	1.45	(3b)				
successful	3.69	1.32	(3c)	Successful			
leader	3.34	1.39	(3c)				
confident	3.33	1.36	(3c)				
upper class	2.85	1.42	(4a)	Upper class	Sophistication	2.66	1.02
glamorous	2.50	1.39	(4a)				
good looking	2.97	1.42	(4a)				
charming	2.43	1.30	(4b)	Charming			
feminine	2.43	1.43	(4b)				
smooth	2.74	1.34	(4b)				
outdoorsy	2.41	1.40	(5a)	Outdoorsy	Ruggedness	2.49	1.08
masculine	2.45	1.42	(5a)				
Western	2.05	1.33	(5a)				
tough	2.88	1.43	(5b)	Tough			
rugged	2.62	1.43	(5b)				

*Based on n = 9, 910

3. Beer Brand Market Shares in Denmark

Beer brand market shares in Denmark between 2007 and 2010

Source: "Alcoholic drinks: Euromonitor from trade sources/national sources.

http://www.portal.euromonitor.com.esc-web.lib.cbs.dk/Portal/Pages/Statistics/Statistics.aspx

Brand Shares (by Global Brand Name) | Historic | Total Volume | % breakdown

Brand	Company name (GBO)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Denmark							
Beer							
Tuborg	Carlsberg A/S	31.7	30.4	30.5	30.5	30.6	30.5
Carlsberg	Carlsberg A/S	22.3	21.6	21.7	21.6	21.6	21.7
Royal	Royal Unibrew A/S	9.5	9.8	10.1	10.0	10.5	10.7
Albani	Royal Unibrew A/S	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.5	3.6
Ceres	Royal Unibrew A/S	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.1
Wiibroe	Carlsberg A/S	1.6	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3
Heineken	Heineken NV	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3
Faxe	Royal Unibrew A/S	1.3	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9
Jacobsen	Carlsberg A/S	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6
Thor	Royal Unibrew A/S	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Harboe Pilsner	Harboes Bryggeri A/S	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Maribo	Royal Unibrew A/S	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4
GourmetBryggeriet	Harboes Bryggeri A/S	-	-	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
1795	Budejovicky Budvar np	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
Harboe Julebryg	Harboes Bryggeri A/S	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Harboe Guld	Harboes Bryggeri A/S	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Vestfyen Pilsner	Bryggeriet Vestfyen A/S	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
Pilsner Urquell	SABMiller Plc	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Franziskaner	Anheuser-Busch InBev NV	-	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Harboe Light	Harboes Bryggeri A/S	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Sol	FEMSA (Fomento Economico Mexicano SA de CV)	0.1	0.1	0.1	-	-	-
GourmetBryggeriet	GourmetBryggeriet A/S	0.2	0.3	-	-	-	-
Pokal	Carlsberg A/S	0.1	0.0	-	-	-	-
Neptun	Carlsberg A/S	0.0	0.0	-	-	-	-
Franziskaner	InBev NV SA	0.1	-	-	-	-	-
Albani	Bryggerigruppen A/S (The Danish Brewery Group A/S)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Beck's	InBev NV SA	-	-	-	-	-	-
Beck's	Interbrew NV SA	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ceres	Bryggerigruppen A/S (The Danish Brewery Group A/S)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Faxe	Bryggerigruppen A/S (The Danish Brewery Group A/S)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Maribo	Bryggerigruppen A/S (The Danish Brewery Group A/S)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Royal	Bryggerigruppen A/S (The Danish Brewery Group A/S)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Thor	Bryggerigruppen A/S (The Danish Brewery Group A/S)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Private label	Private Label	10.5	11.0	10.8	11.0	11.0	11.0
Others	Others	12.3	14.3	13.9	13.9	13.3	12.8

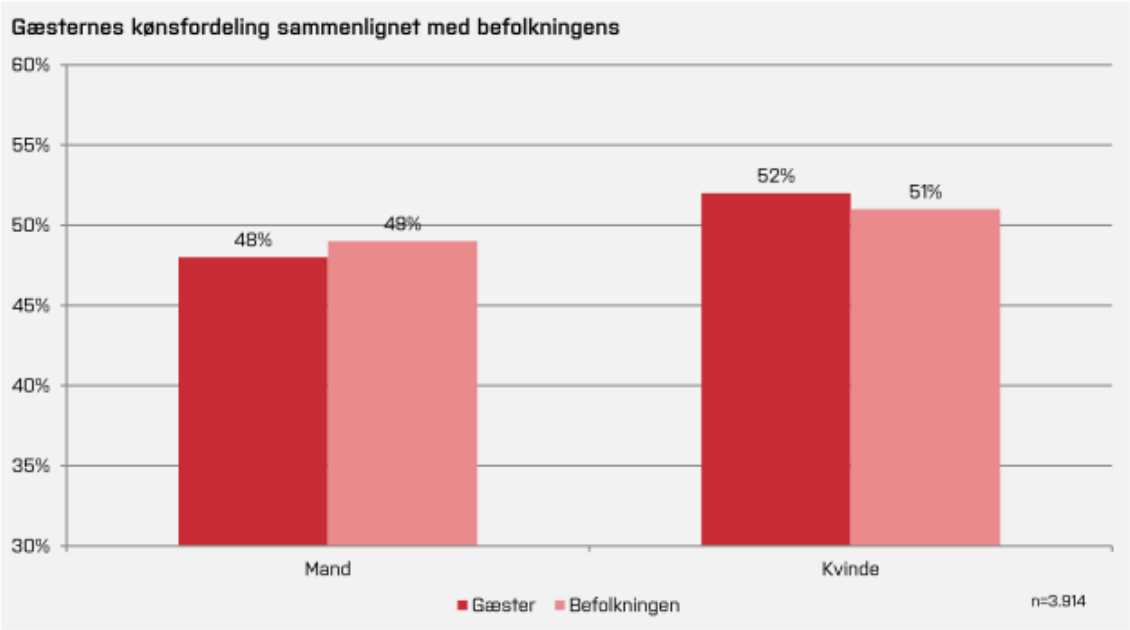
4. Festival Research 2011

EPINION research on NorthSide 2011 guest analysis - August 2011.

NorthSide 2011 participants' sex distribution in comparison to the overall population of Denmark

EPINION

Tilnærmelsesvis ligelig fordeling mellem kønnene



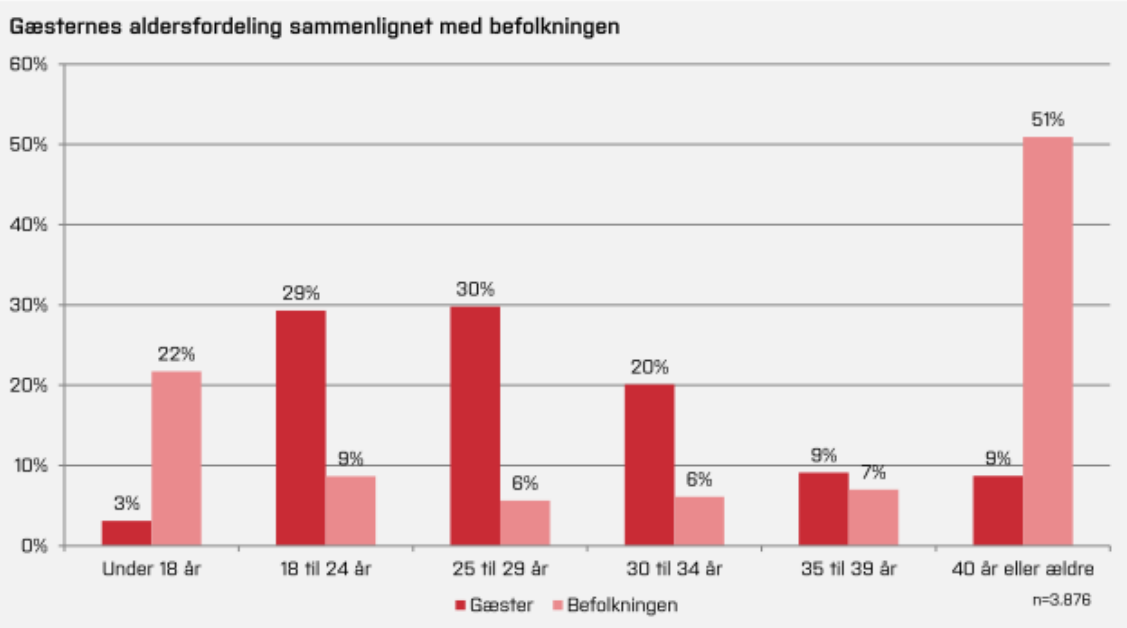
38

NorthSide 2011 participants' age distribution in comparison to the population of Denmark.

EPINION

Alle alderskategorier er repræsenteret, dog primært 18-35 årige

Northside Festivals gæster har en gennemsnitlig alder på 28,5 år.



39

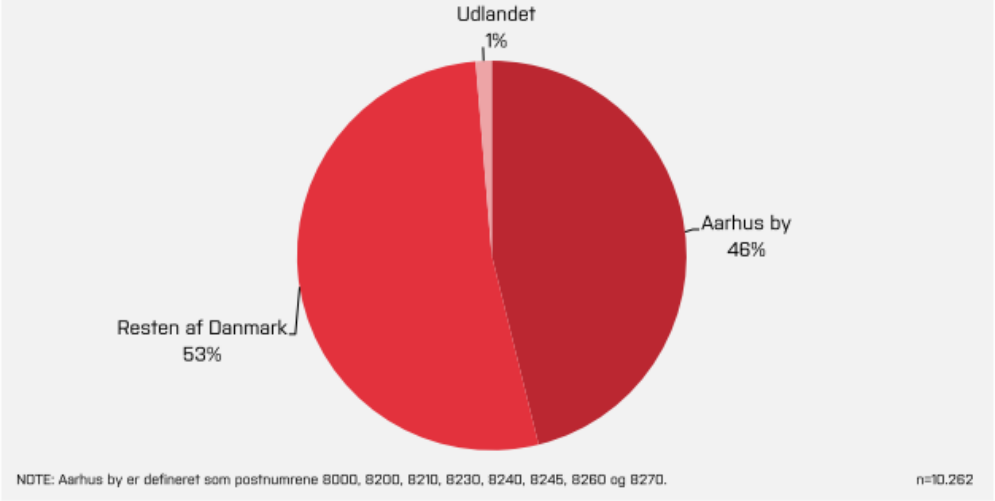
NorthSide 2011 participants' place of residence distribution .

EPINION

Næsten halvdelen af gæsterne kommer fra Aarhus by

1,3 % af gæsterne kommer fra et andet land en Danmark.

Gæsternes bopæl



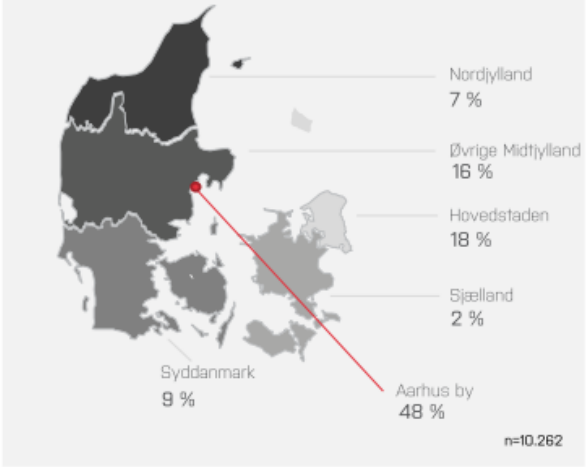
NOTE: Aarhus by er defineret som postnumrene 8000, 8200, 8210, 8230, 8240, 8245, 8260 og 8270. n=10.262

EPINION

Region Hovedstaden er bedst repræsenteret blandt gæster uden for Aarhus by

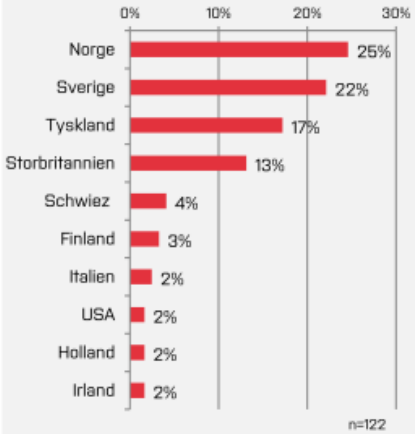
Ud af 19 udenlandske nationaliteter, er de nordiske lande dominerende, mens også Tyskland og Storbritannien er godt repræsenteret.

Regionsfordeling for de danske gæster



n=10.262

Top 10 lande for gæster, der ikke bor i Danmark



n=122

5. Questionnaires

5.1. Post Festival Beer Questionnaire

Spørgeskemaundersøgelse om din opfattelse af et ølbrand

Din baggrund

Hvad er dit køn?
- ❑ Mand
- ❑ Kvinde

Hvad er din alder?

_____

Hvad er din beskæftigelse?
Flere valgmuligheder.
- ❑ Studerende
- ❑ Fuldtidsansat
- ❑ Deltidsansat
- ❑ Ledig
- ❑ Andet _____

Hvad er dit postnummer?

_____

Hvor ofte drikker du øl?
- ❑ Aldrig
- ❑ Mindre end én gang om måneden
- ❑ Én gang om måneden
- ❑ Én gang hver anden uge
- ❑ Én gang om ugen
- ❑ Mellem 2 og 6 gange om ugen
- ❑ Hver dag
- ❑ Ved ikke / ikke relevant

Nævn de 3 første ølbrands du kommer til at tænke på:

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

Side 1 af 6

Spørgeskemaundersøgelse om din opfattelse af et ølbrand

Royal Beer

Har du hørt om ølbrandet Royal Beer?

- ❑ Ja
- ❑ Nej (hvis nej, behøver du ikke udfylde resten af spørgeskemaet)

Ølbrandet Royal Beer dækker over de følgende øl: Royal Export, Royal [PLSNR], Royal Classic, Royal English Ale, Royal Red, Royal Stout, Royal Free, Royal X-MAS Blågran og Royal X-MAS Hvidgran.

På de to næste sider vil vi bede dig om at tænke på brandet "Royal Beer", og svare på hvordan hvert tillægsord beskriver Royal Beer.

Spørgeskemaundersøgelse om din opfattelse af et ølbrand

Royal Beer

Vi vil bede dig om at tænke på brandet "Royal Beer", og svare på hvordan hvert tillægsord beskriver Royal Beer.

På en skala fra et til syv, hvor "1" er slet ikke beskrivende, og "7" er ekstremt beskrivende, hvordan beskriver de nedenstående personlighedstræk så Royal Beer brandet?

	1 (slet ikke beskrivend)	2	3	4 (moderat beskrivende)	5	6	7 (ekstremt beskrivend)	Ved ikke / ikke relevant
Brandet Royal Beer er uhøjtideligt:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Brandet Royal Beer er ærligt:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Brandet Royal Beer er gavnligt:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Brandet Royal Beer er muntert:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Brandet Royal Beer er vovet:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Brandet Royal Beer er livligt:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Brandet Royal Beer er nytænkende:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Brandet Royal Beer er moderne:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Brandet Royal Beer er pålideligt:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Brandet Royal Beer er smart:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Brandet Royal Beer er succesfuldt:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Brandet Royal Beer er glamourøst:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Brandet Royal Beer er charmerende	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Brandet Royal Beer er naturnært:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Brandet Royal Beer er råt:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Spørgeskemaundersøgelse om din opfattelse af et ølbrand

Royal Beer

Hvad er din holdning til Royal Beer brandet på de nedenstående skalaer?

	1 (utiltalende)	2	3	4 (hverken / eller)	5	6	7 (tiltalende)	Ved ikke / ikke relevant
Utiltalende / tiltalende	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
	1 (dårligt)	2	3	4 (hverken / eller)	5	6	7 (godt)	Ved ikke / ikke relevant
Dårligt / godt	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
	1 (ubehageligt)	2	3	4 (hverken / eller)	5	6	7 (behageligt)	Ved ikke / ikke relevant
Ubehageligt / behageligt	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Vælger du at købe Royal Beer næste gang du køber øl?

	1 (usandsynligt)	2	3	4 (hverken / eller)	5	6	7 (sandsynligt)	Ved ikke / ikke relevant
Usandsynligt / sandsynligt	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Spørgeskemaundersøgelse om din opfattelse af et ølbrand

Royal Beer

Hvilke af disse musikfestivaller sponsorerer Royal Beer?

- ❑ Roskilde Festival
- ❑ Samsø Festival
- ❑ Trailerpark Festival
- ❑ Smukfest
- ❑ Strøm Festival
- ❑ Danmarks Grimmeste Festival
- ❑ Northside Festival
- ❑ Copenhell
- ❑ Skive Festival
- ❑ Distortion
- ❑ SPOT Festival
- ❑ Grøn Koncert
- ❑ Vesterbro Festival

- ❑ Ved ikke

Spørgeskemaundersøgelse om din opfattelse af et ølbrand

Royal Beer

Deltog du i Northside Festival 2013?
❑ Ja ❑ Nej

Tak fordi du deltog i vores spørgeskemaundersøgelse.

5.2. NorthSide Questionnaire

Spørgeskemaundersøgelse om din opfattelse af Northside Festival

Din baggrund

Hvad er dit køn? ❑ Mand ❑ Kvinde	**Hvad er din alder?** _____
Hvad er din beskæftigelse? **Flere valgmuligheder.** ❑ Studerende ❑ Fuldtidsansat ❑ Deltidsansat ❑ Ledig ❑ Andet _____	**Hvad er dit postnummer?** _____

Musikfestivallen blev afholdt første gang på Tangkrogen i Aarhus i 2010 som en endagsfestival med 5.000 gæster. I 2011 fandt festivalen sted 11.-12. juni på et helt nyt område i Aarhus midtby. I 2012 udvidede NorthSide til 3 dage i Ådalen d. 15.-17. juni, og 20.000 gæster.

På de to næste sider vil vi bede dig om at tænke på brandet "Northside Festival", og svare på hvordan hvert tillægsord beskriver Northside Festival.

Side 1 af 6

Spørgeskemaundersøgelse om din opfattelse af Northside Festival

Vi vil bede dig om at tænke på brandet "Northside Festival, og svare på hvordan hvert tillægsord beskriver Northside Festival.

På en skala fra et til syv, hvor "1" er slet ikke beskrivende, og "7" er ekstremt beskrivende, hvordan beskriver de nedenstående personlighedstræk så Northside Festival brandet?

	1 slet ikke beskrivende	2	3	4 moderat beskrivende	5	6	7 ekstremt beskrivende	Ved ikke / ikke relevant
Northside Festival er uhøjtideligt:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Northside Festival er ærligt:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Northside Festival er gavnligt:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Northside Festival er muntert:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Northside Festival er vovet:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Northside Festival er livligt:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Northside Festival er nytænkende:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Northside Festival er moderne:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Northside Festival er pålideligt:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Northside Festival er smart:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Northside Festival er succesfuldt:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Northside Festival er glamourøst:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Northside Festival er charmerende	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Northside Festival er naturnært:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Northside Festival er råt:	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Spørgeskemaundersøgelse om din opfattelse af Northside Festival

Hvad er din holdning til Northside Festival brandet på de nedenstående skalaer?

	1 (utiltalende)	2	3	4 (hverken / eller)	5	6	7 (tiltalende)	Ved ikke / ikke relevant
Utiltalende / tiltalende	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
	1 (dårligt)	2	3	4 (hverken / eller)	5	6	7 (godt)	Ved ikke / ikke relevant
Dårligt / godt	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
	1 (ubehageligt)	2	3	4 (hverken / eller)	5	6	7 (behageligt)	Ved ikke / ikke relevant
Ubehageligt / behageligt	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Spørgeskemaundersøgelse om din opfattelse af Northside Festival

Hvor enig / uenig er du i den næste række udsagn?								
	1 (helt uenig)	2	3	4 (hverken / eller)	5	6	7 (helt enig)	ved ikke / ikke relevant
Jeg har stor hengivenhed for Northside Festival	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Jeg har stor tilknytning til Northside Festival	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
Jeg er tiltrukket af Northside Festival	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Antag at du har tid, vil du så deltage i Northside Festival 2014?

❑ Ja
❑ Nej
❑ Ved ikke

Spørgeskemaundersøgelse om din opfattelse af Northside Festival

Ved du hvem der er hovedsponsor for Northside Festival?
❑ Ja: _____ (skriv venligst navnet her) ❑ Nej

Spørgeskemaundersøgelse om din opfattelse af Northside Festival

Kan du genkende hovedsponsoren når du får denne liste af ølmærker?

Spring dette spørgsmål over, hvis du svarede ja på forrige spørgsmål.

- ❑ Harboe
- ❑ Tuborg
- ❑ Royal Beer
- ❑ Carlsberg
- ❑ Ved ikke

Deltog du i Northside Festival 2013?

- ❑ Ja
- ❑ Nej

Tak fordi du deltog i vores spørgeskemaundersøgelse.

6. Focus Group Interview

6.1. Participants

Number 1: Male, 25 years old, entrepreneur.

Number 2: Female, 24 years old, business student.

Number 3: Male, 28 years old, consultant.

Number 4: Male, 29 years old, webmaster.

Number 5: Male, 24 years old, business student.

Asking on the social media site Facebook among the friends of the interviewers was used to get the participants together. There were last minute cancellations, but it was possible to bring in other people. Some of the participants had met each other before, but none was considered as friends. Since all of the participants knew the interviewer, they were very willing to participate and some even said afterwards that they had fun doing the focus group. Everyone participated and everyone got a say. The interviewer made sure that everyone was heard, even though it was not necessary to push anyone to actively participate. The participants were told that the interview would take an hour and a half, but it took a little more than two hours. Pizza, beers and sodas were provided as incentives for participation.

6.2. Conducting the Focus Group

Before the interview started the participants were told about the purpose of the focus group: That a Danish translation of Jennifer Aaker's brand personality approach was needed in order for the researchers to produce a questionnaire to do surveys about the image of a beer brand and a music festival brand.

The conductor of the focus group would first read the facet and its English meaning. The participants were told to write down the first words in Danish that came into their minds. They were told that a sentence or several words were okay as well, and if they could not come up with a word, the interviewer would give the Danish words from the dictionary in order to discuss them. When the participants had finished the first task, the notes were collected by the interviewer and a discussion was started about the meaning of the words. The first word that was discussed was primarily the word chosen by a majority of the participants. When the Danish word that fitted the English word the best was found, the context of a beer brand and music festival brand was discussed, to see whether the word would be suited to describe the two brands.

6.2.1. Sincerity

6.2.1.1. Down-to-earth

With no illusions or pretensions; practical and realistic.

No. 1: Ærlig, afslappet.

No. 2: Simpel, afslappet.

No. 3: Jordnær.

No. 4: Nede på jorden.

No. 5: Jordnær, uprætentiøs.

The word ”jordnær” was seen as the most appropriate word in the direct translation of the word, but during the discussion of the word's fit for the beer brand and music festival setting, it was found difficult in describing a beer brand. Instead the word “uhøjtidelig” came up during the discussion. The dictionary translates the Danish word into: 1. Unceremonious, unpretentious (mentioned by participant no. 5). 2. Straightforward, easygoing, free-and-easy. It was found that this word captures both beer brands and music festivals and the other nuances of down-to-earth.

The word that will be used in the questionnaire will be “uhøjtidelig”.

6.2.1.2. Honest

Free of deceit; truthful and sincere.

No. 1: Troværdig.

No. 2: Ærlig, ligetil, direkte, åben.

No. 3: Oprigtig, ærlig, pålidelig.

No. 4: Troværdig.

No. 5: Ærlighed, åbenhed.

“Ærlig” will be used. 3 participants used the word in their translation and the rest agreed upon its use after hearing the arguments. It works for the music festival and beer brand.

6.2.1.3. Wholesome

Suggestive of good health and psysical well-being.

No. 1: Sammenhængende.

No. 2: Velvære.

No. 3: Gennemarbejdet, godhjertet, komplet.

No. 4: Sund.

No. 5: Sund.

The word caused some difficulty in the focus group. The word itself suggests that it has a second meaning such as e.g. “sammenhængende”, but the Danish dictionary uses “gavnlig” (beneficial, useful, and wholesome) or “sund” (healthy, sound, and wholesome) as the translation. “Sund” does not fit well in either brand settings. “Gavnlig” works better in a music festival setting, but also seems to be difficult to use on a beer brand, unless you see e.g. Royal Beer as beneficial for the rock music in Denmark. When the word is put into a setting as it is in the questionnaire, it can be used.

6.2.1.4. Cheerful

Noticeable happy or optimistic.

No. 1: Fest, glad.

No. 2: Glad, opfordrende, venlig, positiv.

No. 3: Munter, opløftende, glædeligt.

No. 4: Positiv.

No. 5: Fornøjelse, glæde.

“Munter” (cheerful, lively, hilarious, merry, and in high spirits). All the participants agree that it could fit in both settings.

6.2.2. Excitement

6.2.2.1. Daring

Adventurous or audaciously bold.

No. 1: Udfordrende, eventyrlig.

No. 2: Uden hæmninger, uden frygt, hensynsløs.

No. 3: Modig, anderledes, ukonform.

No. 4: Vovet.

No. 5: Vovet.

“Vovet” was finally the chosen word. The discussion ended rather quickly over this word. It fits in both settings.

6.2.2.2. Spirited

Full of energy, enthusiasm, and determination.

No. 1: Energisk, livsglad.

No. 2: Motiveret, opløftende, entusiastisk, målrettet, energisk.

No. 3: Frisk, energisk, entusiastisk.

No. 4: Energisk.

No. 5: Energirig.

3 out of 5 had put the word “energisk” down on paper, but after the discussion the participants ended up with the word “livlig” instead. There were mixed feelings about the use of “energisk” in a beer brand setting.

6.2.2.3. Imaginative

Having or showing creativity or inventiveness.

No. 1: Opportunistisk, fremsynet, innovativ.

No. 2: Fantasifuld.

No. 3: Kreativ, nytænkende, fantasifuld.

No. 4: Kreativ.

No. 5: Opfindsomhed.

“Opfindsom” (inventive, ingenious, resourceful, and imaginative) and “fantasifuld” (imaginative) were discussed as being appropriate translations. Both words could be translated into imaginative, but it was discussed that only the two words together would capture the full English meaning. “Kreativ” (creative, constructive) was mentioned as an alternative. Participant no. 3 writes “nytænkende” (innovative) in the initial translation. The participants were asked in an e-mail after the focus group interview, if “nytænkende” could

cover both imaginative and up-to-date. But in the end “nytænkende” was chosen to represent imaginative alone.

6.2.2.4. Intelligent

Having good understanding or a high mental capacity; quick to comprehend.

No. 1: Smart, klog.

No. 2: Intelligent, smart, klog.

No. 3: Intelligent, klog.

No. 4: Smart, intelligent.

No. 5: Nørdet, højrøvet, smart.

“Intelligent” would be the most correct translation, but it was discussed that it was difficult to decide whether one beer brand is more intelligent than another. Instead the word “smart” was chosen – 4 out of 5 respondents actually had the word written down and in the discussion they agreed about its use in both settings.

6.2.3. Competence

6.2.3.1. Reliable

Consistently good in quality or performance; able to be trusted.

No. 1: Pålidelig, stærk.

No. 2: Pålidelig, troværdig, til at stole på.

No. 3: Troværdig, pålidelig.

No. 4: Troværdig.

No. 5: Pålidelighed.

“Pålidelig” is the better translation, but “konsistent” was mentioned as an alternative. “Pålidelig” will be chosen since it captures both consistency and trust – trust is lacking in the word consistent.

6.2.3.2. Successful

Accomplishing a desired aim or result.

No. 1: Vindende, anerkendt.

No. 2: Gennemført, succesfuld.

No. 3: Succesfuld.

No. 4: Succesfuld.

No. 5: Vellykket.

“Succesfuld”. No further discussion was needed after all participants saw what the rest had put in, they agreed on “succesfuld”.

6.2.3.3. Up-to-date

Incorporating the latest developments and trends.

No. 1: Fingeren på pulsen, hipt.

No. 2: Nytænkende, med på moden, opdateret.

No. 3: Nutidig, evolutionært, fingeren på pulsen.

No. 4: Up-to-date.

No. 5: I tiden, hip.

“Moderne” (modern, contemporary, of today, fashionable, trendy) was finally the word that was chosen by the participants in the focus group. “Tidssvarende” (modern, up-to-date, in keeping with times) was mentioned as an alternative. Again “nytænkende” (innovative) was mentioned by a participant (no. 2), and was the reason for asking after the focus group, if “nytænkende” could cover both up-to-date and modern.

6.2.4. Sophistication

6.2.4.1. Upper Class

The class occupying the highest position in the social hierarchy.

No. 1: Overklasse.

No. 2: Højtidelig, snobbet.

No. 3: Overklasse, højrøvet, elitært, eksklusivt.

No. 4: Snobbet.

No. 5: Overklasse, luksus.

The most words that the participants used to translate the word “upper class” seem to have a negative meaning to it. ”Glamorous” as an alternative with the Danish translation ”glamourøs” was suggested by the thesis advisor in a brand touch-point setting. The participants were asked in an e-mail whether they could see it as an alternative. They responded positively.

6.2.4.2. Charming

Very pleasant and attractive.

No. 1: Charmerende, attraktiv.

No. 2: Charmerende, attraktiv, gentleman.

No. 3: Charmerende, tiltrækkende, smuk.

No. 4: Charmerende.

No. 5: Charmerende.

There is no doubt: “Charmerende” is the best translation and it works in both brand settings as per discussion and overwhelming agreement among all 5 participants.

6.2.5. Ruggedness

6.2.5.1. Outdoorsy

Associated with, or fond of the outdoors.

No. 1: Naturlig, bæredygtig, luftig.

No. 2: Naturlig, frisk.

No. 3: Frisk, livligt.

No. 4: Friluftagtig.

No. 5: Udendørs, fjernt, frihed.

This word was both difficult to translate into a Danish word that could capture its full meaning and it was difficult to distinguish, if one beer brand was more or less outdoorsy than another. “Naturnær” (in close touch with nature) came up in the discussion and was agreed upon as the most useful word in the setting of beers and festivals. Subsequent to the focus group the participants were asked if they could see “strong” as an alternative to outdoorsy. The word “strong” was used by the thesis advisor in a setting of brand touch-points as an alternative in the ruggedness dimension. “Naturnær” was in the end the word chosen by the researchers.

6.2.5.2. Tough

Able to endure hardship or pain.

No. 1: Hård.

No. 2: Stærk, modig.

No. 3: Sej, stærk, bastant, solid, vedholdende.

No. 4: Rå.

No. 5: Mandig, rå.

“Rå” (also raw) won the discussion.

7. Factor Analysis

7.1. Assumptions for Factor Analysis

Correlation Matrix[a]

	uhøjtidelig	ærlig	gavnlig	munter	vovet	livlig	nytænkende	moderne	pålidelig	smart	succesfuld	glamourøs	charmerende	naturnær	rå
Correlation	1,000	,242	,080	,211	,080	,174	,043	,103	,142	-,007	,065	-,164	,049	,113	,243
	,242	1,000	,392	,273	,162	,277	,251	,236	,447	,282	,294	,096	,303	,244	,295
	,080	,392	1,000	,341	,229	,311	,302	,223	,261	,243	,236	,152	,290	,281	,251
	,211	,273	,341	1,000	,337	,545	,281	,317	,267	,326	,329	,087	,292	,183	,251
	,080	,162	,229	,337	1,000	,510	,467	,383	,052	,397	,243	,321	,270	,205	,426
	,174	,277	,311	,545	,510	1,000	,498	,468	,159	,400	,300	,166	,352	,204	,388
	,043	,251	,302	,281	,467	,498	1,000	,657	,106	,467	,315	,222	,338	,285	,391
	,103	,236	,223	,317	,383	,468	,657	1,000	,222	,567	,413	,224	,365	,166	,411
	,142	,447	,261	,267	,052	,159	,106	,222	1,000	,289	,433	,147	,319	,208	,249
	-,007	,282	,243	,326	,397	,400	,467	,567	,289	1,000	,483	,412	,389	,274	,352
	,065	,294	,236	,329	,243	,300	,315	,413	,433	,483	1,000	,265	,339	,228	,299
	-,164	,096	,152	,087	,321	,166	,222	,224	,147	,412	,265	1,000	,468	,302	,090
	,049	,303	,290	,292	,270	,352	,338	,365	,319	,389	,339	,468	1,000	,394	,247
	,113	,244	,281	,183	,205	,204	,285	,166	,208	,274	,228	,302	,394	1,000	,268
	,243	,295	,251	,251	,426	,388	,391	,411	,249	,352	,299	,090	,247	,268	1,00

a. Determinant = ,007

Correlation matrix for all 15 facets and all respondents that answered that particular facet not including 'don't know/not relevant'.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,852
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2603,778
	df	105
	Sig.	,000

Bartlett's test of sphericity for the 15 facet and all respondents that answered that particular facet not including 'don't know/not relevant'.

Anti-image Correlation

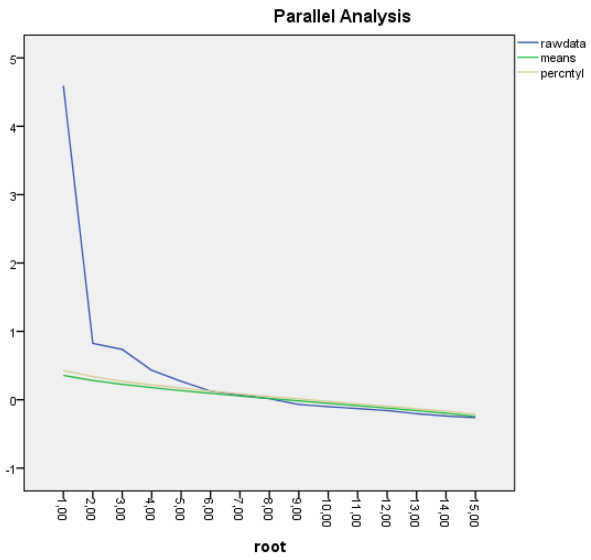
	uhøjtidelig	ærlig	gavnlig	munter	vovet	livlig	nytænkende	moderne	pålidelig	smart	succesfuld	glamourøs	charmerende	naturnær	rå
Anti-image Correlation	,675[a]	-,167	,063	-,118	-,021	-,052	,093	-,075	-,025	,107	,019	,163	,000	-,101	-,155
	-,167	,849[a]	-,233	,010	,028	-,048	-,072	,054	-,295	-,076	-,017	,050	-,079	-,027	-,057
	,063	-,233	,891[a]	-,166	-,012	-,041	-,109	,046	-,053	,027	-,002	-,015	-,045	-,112	-,043
	-,118	,010	-,166	,844[a]	-,103	-,365	,071	-,015	-,097	-,075	-,110	,108	-,062	-,010	,082
	-,021	,028	-,012	-,103	,853[a]	-,239	-,174	,037	,121	-,076	,009	-,242	,049	,029	-,258
	-,052	-,048	-,041	-,365	-,239	,877[a]	-,161	-,085	,064	-,036	,006	,049	-,113	,039	-,075
	,093	-,072	-,109	,071	-,174	-,161	,839[a]	-,470	,128	-,042	-,013	,046	-,023	-,160	-,042
	-,075	,054	,046	-,015	,037	-,085	-,470	,832[a]	-,044	-,287	-,113	,023	-,110	,159	-,123
	-,025	-,295	-,053	-,097	,121	,064	,128	-,044	,799[a]	-,050	-,270	-,012	-,120	-,021	-,103
	,107	-,076	,027	-,075	-,076	-,036	-,042	-,287	-,050	,898[a]	-,202	-,233	,010	-,059	-,064
	,019	-,017	-,002	-,110	,009	,006	-,013	-,113	-,270	-,202	,906[a]	-,064	-,028	-,022	-,050
	,163	,050	-,015	,108	-,242	,049	,046	,023	-,012	-,233	-,064	,734[a]	-,343	-,145	,128
	,000	-,079	-,045	-,062	,049	-,113	-,023	-,110	-,120	,010	-,028	-,343	,876[a]	-,203	,002
	-,101	-,027	-,112	-,010	,029	,039	-,160	,159	-,021	-,059	-,022	-,145	-,203	,844[a]	-,127
	-,155	-,057	-,043	,082	-,258	-,075	-,042	-,123	-,103	-,064	-,050	,128	,002	-,127	,885[a]

a. Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA)

Anti-image correlation of the 15 facets and all respondents that answered that particular facet not including 'don't know/not relevant'.

7.2. Stage 4-5: Deriving Factors and Overall Fit

7.2.1. Parallel Analysis



Parallel Analysis of all 15 facets and all respondents that answered that particular facet not including 'don't know/not relevant'.

7.2.2. Communalities and Pattern Matrix

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
ærlig	,343	,401
gavnlig	,268	,274
munter	,388	,415
vovet	,424	,492
livlig	,501	,620
nytænkende	,544	,580
moderne	,566	,826
pålidelig	,356	,583
smart	,493	,520
succesfuld	,369	,400
glamorøs	,382	,801
charmerende	,408	,434
rå	,355	,334
uhøjtidelig	,177	,168
naturnær	,262	,231

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Pattern Matrix[a]

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
moderne	,999			
nytænkende	,619			
smart	,458			
livlig		,749		
vovet		,613		
munter		,589		
gavnlig		,363		
rå		,347		
pålidelig			,818	
ærlig			,562	
succesfuld			,421	
glamorøs				,955
charmerende				,405
uhøjtidelig				-,304
naturnær				

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]

a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

Communalities and pattern matrix of the initial factor analysis (4 factors, MLE and promax rotation).

7.2.3. Significant Factor Loadings based on Sample Size

Significant Factor Loadings based on Sample Size	
Sample Size	Sufficient Factor Loading
50	0.75
60	0.70
70	0.65
85	0.60
100	0.55
120	0.50
150	0.45
200	0.40
250	0.35
350	0.30

Guideline for identitying significant factor loadings based on sample size (Hair et al., 2006).

7.2.4. Excluding Variables

Pattern Matrix[a]

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
livlig	,769			
vovet	,634			
munter	,596			
gavnlig	,383		,304	
rå	,346			
moderne		1,004		
nytænkende		,592		
smart		,440		
pålidelig			,840	
ærlig			,564	
succesfuld			,434	
glamorøs				1,029
charmerende				,362
naturnær				

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Pattern matrix of the factor analysis after excluding 'uhøjtidelig' (4 factors, MLE and promax rotation).

Pattern Matrix[a]

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
moderne	,971			
nytænkende	,723			
smart	,503			
rå	,317	,252		
livlig		,783		
munter		,652		
vovet		,539		
gavnlig		,368	,278	
pålidelig			,852	
ærlig			,534	
succesfuld	,288		,434	
glamorøs				1,055
charmerende				,346

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Pattern matrix of the factor analysis after excluding 'uhøjtidelig' and 'naturnær' (4 factors, MLE and promax rotation).

7.3. Stage 6: Validation

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,726	,725	3

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	livlig	munter	vovet
livlig	1,000	,544	,519
munter	,544	1,000	,342
vovet	,519	,342	1,000

CA and inter-item correlation for factor 1.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,661	,660	3

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	ærlig	pålidelig	succesfuld
ærlig	1,000	,442	,288
pålidelig	,442	1,000	,448
succesfuld	,288	,448	1,000

CA and inter-item correlation for factor 2.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,798	,797	3

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	nytænkende	moderne	smart
nytænkende	1,000	,660	,475
moderne	,660	1,000	,565
smart	,475	,565	1,000

CA and inter-item correlation for factor 3.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,637	,638	2

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	glamourøs	charmerende
glamourøs	1,000	,468
charmerende	,468	1,000

CA and inter-item correlation for factor 4.

7.3.1. Final Solution

To confirm the findings in the reliability analysis, the authors ran a final 4 factors solution (No ”Uhøjtidelig” – No ”Naturnær” – No ”Gavnlig” – No ”Rå”)

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis N	Missing N
ærlig	4,24	1,438	599	118
munter	4,27	1,533	678	39
vovet	2,89	1,480	660	57
livlig	3,90	1,587	667	50
nytænkende	3,55	1,618	679	38
moderne	3,98	1,642	696	21
pålidelig	4,66	1,469	652	65
smart	3,66	1,497	697	20
succesfuld	4,63	1,418	668	49
glamorøs	2,84	1,547	689	28
charmerende	3,36	1,473	672	45

Beer data’s sample size is 732 but since the authors opted for a pairwise exclusion, sample size varies for each variable (599 respondents for “Ærlig” is the lowest count).

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,834
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2138,542
	df	55
	Sig.	,000

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy is “meritorious” as it is above 80% (acceptable above 60%). Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity is significant, meaning that the originally observed correlation matrix has significant correlations among at least some of the variables.

Anti-image Matrices

		ærlig	munter	vovet	livlig	nytænkende	moderne	pålidelig	smart	succesfuld	glamorøs	charmerende
Anti-image Covariance	ærlig	,725	-,031	-,003	-,046	-,063	,032	-,237	-,040	-,015	,058	-,077
	munter	-,031	,640	-,061	-,218	,035	-,002	-,069	-,035	-,069	,076	-,050
	vovet	-,003	-,061	,620	-,153	-,107	,001	,060	-,052	-,002	-,136	,030
	livlig	-,046	-,218	-,153	,505	-,081	-,050	,031	-,017	,002	,043	-,064
	nytænkende	-,063	,035	-,107	-,081	,481	-,215	,066	-,031	-,012	,008	-,037
	moderne	,032	-,002	,001	-,050	-,215	,455	-,029	-,139	-,063	,043	-,043
	pålidelig	-,237	-,069	,060	,031	,066	-,029	,655	-,032	-,180	,002	-,087
	smart	-,040	-,035	-,052	-,017	-,031	-,139	-,032	,516	-,120	-,151	,000
	succesfuld	-,015	-,069	-,002	,002	-,012	-,063	-,180	-,120	,634	-,042	-,022
	glamorøs	,058	,076	-,136	,043	,008	,043	,002	-,151	-,042	,660	-,249
	charmerende	-,077	-,050	,030	-,064	-,037	-,043	-,087	,000	-,022	-,249	,621
Anti-image Correlation	ærlig	,821[a]	-,046	-,004	-,076	-,107	,056	-,344	-,066	-,022	,083	-,115
	munter	-,046	,833[a]	-,098	-,383	,063	-,004	-,106	-,060	-,109	,117	-,080
	vovet	-,004	-,098	,861[a]	-,274	-,196	,002	,095	-,091	-,004	-,213	,048
	livlig	-,076	-,383	-,274	,841[a]	-,165	-,104	,053	-,033	,003	,074	-,114
	nytænkende	-,107	,063	-,196	-,165	,829[a]	-,460	,118	-,063	-,022	,014	-,068
	moderne	,056	-,004	,002	-,104	-,460	,833[a]	-,053	-,288	-,117	,078	-,081
	pålidelig	-,344	-,106	,095	,053	,118	-,053	,746[a]	-,055	-,279	,002	-,137
	smart	-,066	-,060	-,091	-,033	-,063	-,288	-,055	,885[a]	-,210	-,260	-,001
	succesfuld	-,022	-,109	-,004	,003	-,022	-,117	-,279	-,210	,888[a]	-,065	-,035
	glamorøs	,083	,117	-,213	,074	,014	,078	,002	-,260	-,065	,707[a]	-,390
	charmerende	-,115	-,080	,048	-,114	-,068	-,081	-,137	-,001	-,035	-,390	,847[a]

a. Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA)

Every individual variable has a MSA of 0.70 or above therefore more than acceptable.

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
ærlig	,275	,324
munter	,360	,449
vovet	,380	,427
livlig	,495	,737
nytænkende	,519	,607
moderne	,545	,742
pålidelig	,345	,660
smart	,484	,519
succesfuld	,366	,412
glamourøs	,340	,999
charmerende	,379	,397

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

All initial and extraction communalities are acceptable as they are above 0.2 (communalities are the estimates of the shared or common variance among the variables). There is an issue with “Glamourøs” having a too high communality estimate. Later we will see that it loads higher than 1.0 in the pattern matrix. This process can be helped by lowering the kappa value of the rotation method to have a little less correlation between the factors.

Total Variance Explained

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings[a]
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	4,326	39,332	39,332	1,735	15,776	15,776	3,286
2	1,358	12,345	51,677	3,108	28,253	44,029	2,301
3	1,135	10,320	61,997	,939	8,533	52,563	2,875
4	,855	7,772	69,769	,492	4,475	57,037	2,109
5	,725	6,595	76,365				
6	,613	5,572	81,937				
7	,484	4,403	86,340				
8	,456	4,147	90,486				
9	,378	3,435	93,921				
10	,369	3,358	97,279				
11	,299	2,721	100,000				

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

a. When factors are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

The solution is good. Total variance explained is now at 69% (acceptable above 60%) and the 4th factor explains 4.47%.

Pattern Matrix[a]

	Factor			
	1	2	3	4
moderne	,950			
nytænkende	,766			
smart	,498			
pålidelig		,878		
ærlig		,511		
succesfuld		,447		
livlig			,854	
munter			,646	
vovet			,475	
glamorøs				1,066
charmerende				,344

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

All loadings below 0.30 have been ignored in order to have a clear pattern matrix.

All variables load significantly high in one factor only (above 0.3 is sufficient for the present sample size of 732 respondents).

7.4. Stage 7: Naming the Variables

7.4.1. Factor 1

Innovative					
Nytænkende		**Moderne**		**Smart**	
From focus group	From dictionary	From focus group	From dictionary	From focus group	From dictionary
opportunistisk		fingeren på pulsen	a la mode	klog	avanceret
fremsynet		hipt	af i dag	intelligent	tjekket
innovativ		nytænkende	aktuel	nørdet	chik
fantasifuld		med på moden	chik	højrøvet	elegant
kreativ		opdateret	elegant		fashionabel
fantasifuld		nutidig	fashionabel		fiks
opfindsom		evolutionært	fiks		fin
		up-to-date	groovy		flot
			hot		formfuldendt
			hypermoderne		fornem
			i kurs		raffineret
			in		oppe i tiden
			moderigtig		raffineret
			nutidig		rap
			nymodens		effektiv
			oppe i tiden		egnet
			populær		forbrugervenlig
			tidssvarende		formålstjenlig
			topmoderne		funktionalistisk
			ultramoderne		funktionel
			up to date		handy
			avanceret		hensigtsmæssig
			tjekket		nyttig
			frigjort		praktisk
			frisindet		velegnet
			liberal		beregnende
			modernistisk		durkdreven
			progressiv		udspekuleret
			på forkant		fiffig

7.4.2. Factor 2

Trustworthiness					
Ærlig		**Pålidelig**		**Succesfuld**	
From focus group	From dictionary	From focus group	From dictionary	From focus group	From dictionary
Troværdig	af ganske hjerte	stærk	sikker	vindende	fremgangsrig
ligetil	direkte	troværdig	velinformeret	anerkendt	god
direkte	helhjertet	til at stole på	velunderrettet	gennemført	succesrig
åben	ligefrem		brav	vellykket	vellykket
oprigtig	oprigtig		honnet		
pålidelig	ubesmykket		hæderlig		
	uskrømtet		lovlydig		
	usminket		loyal		
	utilsløret		ordholden		
	åben		redelig		
	åbenhjertig		reel		
	sanddru (glds.)		regulær		
	brav		retlinet		
	honnet		retsindig		
	hæderlig		retskaffen		
	lovlydig		sandhedskærlig		
	pålidelig		tro		
	redelig		troværdig		
	reel		ubestikkelig		
	retlinet		ærlig		
	retsindig				
	retskaffen				
	sandhedskærlig				
	solid				
	tilforladelig				
	tro				
	troværdig				
	ubestikkelig				

7.4.3. Factor 3

Extrovertion						
Livlig		**Munter**			**Vovet**	
From Focus Group	From dictionary	From Focus Group	From dictionary		From Focus Group	From dictionary
energisk	animeret	festlig	fornøjet	oprømt	udfordrende	forførerisk
livsglad	festlig	glad	frisk	opstemt	eventyrlig	fristende
motiveret	fyrig	opfordrende	friskfyragtig	overgiven	uden hæmninger	hidsende
oplæftende	kvik	venlig	fro	overstadig	uden frygt	ophidsende
entusiastisk	lebendig	positiv	gemytlig	sjov	hensynsløs	pikant
målrettet	levende	opløftende	glad	skæg	modig	pirrende
frisk	livfuld	glædeligt	glædestrålende	skælmsk	anderledes	raffineret
energirig	munter	positiv	gæv	sorgfri		æggende
	oprømt	fornøjelse	humørfyldt	sorgløs		dristig
	opvakt	glæde	hyggespredende	spøgefuld		fræk
	sprudlende		højt oppe	ubekymret		obskøn
	sprælsk		i den syvende himmel	uhøjtidelig		ophidsende
	temperamentsfuld		i godt humør	velfornøjet		pirrende
	veloplagt		i højt humør	animeret		pornografisk
	begivenhedsrig		i sit es	festlig		saftig
	bevæget		jovial	fornøjelig		sexet
	dramatisk		jublende glad	grinagtig		sjofel
	handlingsmættet		kisteglad	komisk		slibrig
	spændende		koket	kvik		stødende
	stormfuld		kåd	livlig		uanstændig
			kåd	lystig		uartig
			lattermild	morsom		udfordrende
			lun			under bæltestedet

7.4.4. Factor 4

Sophistication			
Glamourøs		**Charmerende**	
From Focus Group	From dictionary	From Focus Group	From dictionary
betagende	betagende	attraktiv	bedårende
fortryllende	fortryllende	gentleman	besnærende
blændende	blændende	tiltrækkende	charmant
overklasse	usædvanlig aktivitet	smuk	charming
højtidelig	eventyr		dejlig
snobbet	fuld af spænding		fortryllende
højrøvet			henrivende
elitært			indtagende
eksklusivt			kær
luksus			nydelig
			sød
			uimodståelig
			underdejlig
			yndefuld
			yndig

8. Testing for Bias

8.1. Test for Normality

Tests of Normality

	Before with ticket	Shapiro-Wilk		
F1_mo_ny_sm	0	,984	243	,007
	1	,975	44	,460
F2_ae_pa_su	0	,969	239	,000
	1	,967	47	,202
F3_li_mu_vo	0	,981	265	,001
	1	,971	52	,227
F4_gl_ch	0	,959	281	,000
	1	,945	54	,016
Attitude	0	,948	293	,000
	1	,945	57	,012
Intention	0	,900	298	,000
	1	,915	57	,001

Group 3 (pre event participants) is equal to 0 and group 1 (pre event non-participants) is equal to 1.

Tests of Normality

	After went	Shapiro-Wilk		
F1_mo_ny_sm	0	,989	185	,140
	1	,978	78	,192
F2_ae_pa_su	0	,980	192	,009
	1	,981	81	,255
F3_li_mu_vo	0	,985	221	,022
	1	,966	89	,019
F4_gl_ch	0	,960	226	,000
	1	,970	98	,026
Attitude	0	,976	241	,000
	1	,966	102	,010
Intention	0	,904	247	,000
	1	,904	99	,000

Group 4 (post event participants) is equal to 0 and Group 2 (post event non-participants) is equal to 1.

8.2. Number of Respondents in each Sub-group

8.2.1. Online

Online

Expected groups			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	Valid	0	171	55,0	55,0	55,0
		1	140	45,0	45,0	100,0
		Total	311	100,0	100,0	
2,00	Valid	0	162	62,8	62,8	62,8
		1	96	37,2	37,2	100,0
		Total	258	100,0	100,0	
3,00	Valid	0	35	59,3	59,3	59,3
		1	24	40,7	40,7	100,0
		Total	59	100,0	100,0	
4,00	Valid	0	48	46,2	46,2	46,2
		1	56	53,8	53,8	100,0
		Total	104	100,0	100,0	

8.2.2. Sex

sex

Expected groups			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	Valid	0	150	48,2	48,2	48,2
		1	161	51,8	51,8	100,0
		Total	311	100,0	100,0	
2,00	Valid	0	129	50,0	50,0	50,0
		1	129	50,0	50,0	100,0
		Total	258	100,0	100,0	
3,00	Valid	0	24	40,7	40,7	40,7
		1	35	59,3	59,3	100,0
		Total	59	100,0	100,0	
4,00	Valid	0	28	26,9	26,9	26,9
		1	76	73,1	73,1	100,0
		Total	104	100,0	100,0	

8.2.3. Student

student

Expected groups			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	Valid	0	65	20,9	20,9	20,9
		1	246	79,1	79,1	100,0
		Total	311	100,0	100,0	
2,00	Valid	0	58	22,5	22,5	22,5
		1	200	77,5	77,5	100,0
		Total	258	100,0	100,0	
3,00	Valid	0	10	16,9	16,9	16,9
		1	49	83,1	83,1	100,0
		Total	59	100,0	100,0	
4,00	Valid	0	24	23,1	23,1	23,1
		1	80	76,9	76,9	100,0
		Total	104	100,0	100,0	

8.2.4. Aarhus

Aarhus

Expected groups			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	Valid	0	59	19,0	19,0	19,0
		1	252	81,0	81,0	100,0
		Total	311	100,0	100,0	
2,00	Valid	0	68	26,4	26,4	26,4
		1	190	73,6	73,6	100,0
		Total	258	100,0	100,0	
3,00	Valid	0	4	6,8	6,8	6,8
		1	55	93,2	93,2	100,0
		Total	59	100,0	100,0	
4,00	Valid	0	14	13,5	13,5	13,5
		1	90	86,5	86,5	100,0
		Total	104	100,0	100,0	

8.3. 2 by 2 Contingency Tables

8.3.1. Overview of Tests

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Before_with_ticket * Online	370	50,5%	362	49,5%	732	100,0%
Before_with_ticket * sex	370	50,5%	362	49,5%	732	100,0%
Before_with_ticket * student	370	50,5%	362	49,5%	732	100,0%
Before_with_ticket * Aarhus	370	50,5%	362	49,5%	732	100,0%
After_went * Online	362	49,5%	370	50,5%	732	100,0%
After_went * sex	362	49,5%	370	50,5%	732	100,0%
After_went * student	362	49,5%	370	50,5%	732	100,0%
After_went * Aarhus	362	49,5%	370	50,5%	732	100,0%
Gobefore_vs_goafter * Online	163	22,3%	569	77,7%	732	100,0%
Gobefore_vs_goafter * sex	163	22,3%	569	77,7%	732	100,0%
Gobefore_vs_goafter * student	163	22,3%	569	77,7%	732	100,0%
Gobefore_vs_goafter * Aarhus	163	22,3%	569	77,7%	732	100,0%
Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter * Online	569	77,7%	163	22,3%	732	100,0%
Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter * sex	569	77,7%	163	22,3%	732	100,0%
Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter * student	569	77,7%	163	22,3%	732	100,0%
Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter * Aarhus	569	77,7%	163	22,3%	732	100,0%

8.3.2. Before_with_ticket*Online

Crosstab

Count

		Online		
		0	1	Total
Before_with_ticket	0	171	140	311
	1	35	24	59
Total		206	164	370

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,378[a]	1	,539		
Continuity Correction[b]	,223	1	,637		
Likelihood Ratio	,380	1	,537		
Fisher's Exact Test				,570	,320
Linear-by-Linear Association	,377	1	,539		
N of Valid Cases	370				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 26,15.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.3.3. Before_with_ticket*Sex

Crosstab

Count

		sex		Total
		0	1	
Before_with_ticket	0	150	161	311
	1	24	35	59
Total		174	196	370

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,136[a]	1	,287		
Continuity Correction[b]	,853	1	,356		
Likelihood Ratio	1,143	1	,285		
Fisher's Exact Test				,321	,178
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,133	1	,287		
N of Valid Cases	370				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27,75.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.3.4. Before_with_ticket*Student

Crosstab

Count

		student		Total
		0	1	
Before_with_ticket	0	65	246	311
	1	10	49	59
Total		75	295	370

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,479[a]	1	,489		
Continuity Correction[b]	,266	1	,606		
Likelihood Ratio	,496	1	,481		
Fisher's Exact Test				,597	,310
Linear-by-Linear Association	,478	1	,489		
N of Valid Cases	370				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11,96.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.3.5. Before_with_ticket*Aarhus

Crosstab

Count

		Aarhus		Total
		0	1	
Before_with_ticket	0	59	252	311
	1	4	55	59
Total		63	307	370

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,217[a]	1	,022		
Continuity Correction[b]	4,390	1	,036		
Likelihood Ratio	6,251	1	,012		
Fisher's Exact Test				,023	,013
Linear-by-Linear Association	5,203	1	,023		
N of Valid Cases	370				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10,05.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.3.6. After_went*Online

Crosstab

Count

		Online		Total
		0	1	
After_went	0	162	96	258
	1	48	56	104
Total		210	152	362

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8,422[a]	1	,004		
Continuity Correction[b]	7,753	1	,005		
Likelihood Ratio	8,356	1	,004		
Fisher's Exact Test				,005	,003
Linear-by-Linear Association	8,399	1	,004		
N of Valid Cases	362				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 43,67.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.3.7. After_went*Sex

Crosstab

Count

		sex		Total
		0	1	
After_went	0	129	129	258
	1	28	76	104
Total		157	205	362

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16,072[a]	1	,000		
Continuity Correction[b]	15,146	1	,000		
Likelihood Ratio	16,633	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,000	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	16,027	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	362				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 45,10.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.3.8. After_went*Student

Crosstab

Count

		student		Total
		0	1	
After_went	0	58	200	258
	1	24	80	104
Total		82	280	362

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,015[a]	1	,902		
Continuity Correction[b]	,000	1	1,000		
Likelihood Ratio	,015	1	,903		
Fisher's Exact Test				,891	,502
Linear-by-Linear Association	,015	1	,903		
N of Valid Cases	362				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23,56.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.3.9. After_went*Aarhus

Crosstab

Count

		Aarhus		Total
		0	1	
After_went	0	68	190	258
	1	14	90	104
Total		82	280	362

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,035[a]	1	,008		
Continuity Correction[b]	6,318	1	,012		
Likelihood Ratio	7,587	1	,006		
Fisher's Exact Test				,008	,005
Linear-by-Linear Association	7,015	1	,008		
N of Valid Cases	362				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23,56.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.3.10. Gobefore_vs_goafter*Online

Crosstab

Count

		Online		Total
		0	1	
Gobefore_vs_goafter	0	35	24	59
	1	48	56	104
Total		83	80	163

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2,612[a]	1	,106		
Continuity Correction[b]	2,112	1	,146		
Likelihood Ratio	2,624	1	,105		
Fisher's Exact Test				,142	,073
Linear-by-Linear Association	2,596	1	,107		
N of Valid Cases	163				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 28,96.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.3.11. Gobefore_vs_goafter*Sex

Crosstab

Count

		sex		Total
		0	1	
Gobefore_vs_goafter	0	24	35	59
	1	28	76	104
Total		52	111	163

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3,278[a]	1	,070		
Continuity Correction[b]	2,676	1	,102		
Likelihood Ratio	3,231	1	,072		
Fisher's Exact Test				,082	,052
Linear-by-Linear Association	3,258	1	,071		
N of Valid Cases	163				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18,82.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.3.12. Gobefore_vs_goafter*Student

Crosstab

Count

		student		Total
		0	1	
Gobefore_vs_goafter	0	10	49	59
	1	24	80	104
Total		34	129	163

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,856[a]	1	,355		
Continuity Correction[b]	,525	1	,469		
Likelihood Ratio	,877	1	,349		
Fisher's Exact Test				,425	,236
Linear-by-Linear Association	,851	1	,356		
N of Valid Cases	163				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 12,31.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.3.13. Gobefore_vs_goafter*Aarhus

Crosstab

Count

		Aarhus		Total
		0	1	
Gobefore_vs_goafter	0	4	55	59
	1	14	90	104
Total		18	145	163

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,711[a]	1	,191		
Continuity Correction[b]	1,098	1	,295		
Likelihood Ratio	1,830	1	,176		
Fisher's Exact Test				,298	,147
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,700	1	,192		
N of Valid Cases	163				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6,52.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.3.14. Noobefore_vs_nogoafter*Online

Crosstab

Count

		Online		Total
		0	1	
Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter	0	171	140	311
	1	162	96	258
Total		333	236	569

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3,541[a]	1	,060		
Continuity Correction[b]	3,226	1	,072		
Likelihood Ratio	3,551	1	,060		
Fisher's Exact Test				,061	,036
Linear-by-Linear Association	3,534	1	,060		
N of Valid Cases	569				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 107,01.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.3.15. Noobefore_vs_nogoafter*Sex

Crosstab

Count

		sex		Total
		0	1	
Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter	0	150	161	311
	1	129	129	258
Total		279	290	569

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,176[a]	1	,674		
Continuity Correction[b]	,113	1	,737		
Likelihood Ratio	,176	1	,674		
Fisher's Exact Test				,736	,368
Linear-by-Linear Association	,176	1	,675		
N of Valid Cases	569				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 126,51.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.3.16. Noobefore_vs_nogoafter*Student

Crosstab

Count

		student		Total
		0	1	
Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter	0	65	246	311
	1	58	200	258
Total		123	446	569

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,208[a]	1	,648		
Continuity Correction[b]	,125	1	,724		
Likelihood Ratio	,208	1	,649		
Fisher's Exact Test				,683	,361
Linear-by-Linear Association	,207	1	,649		
N of Valid Cases	569				

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 55,77.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.3.17. Noobefore_vs_nogoafter*Aarhus

Crosstab

Count

		Aarhus		Total
		0	1	
Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter	0	59	252	311
	1	68	190	258
Total		127	442	569

Chi-Square Tests

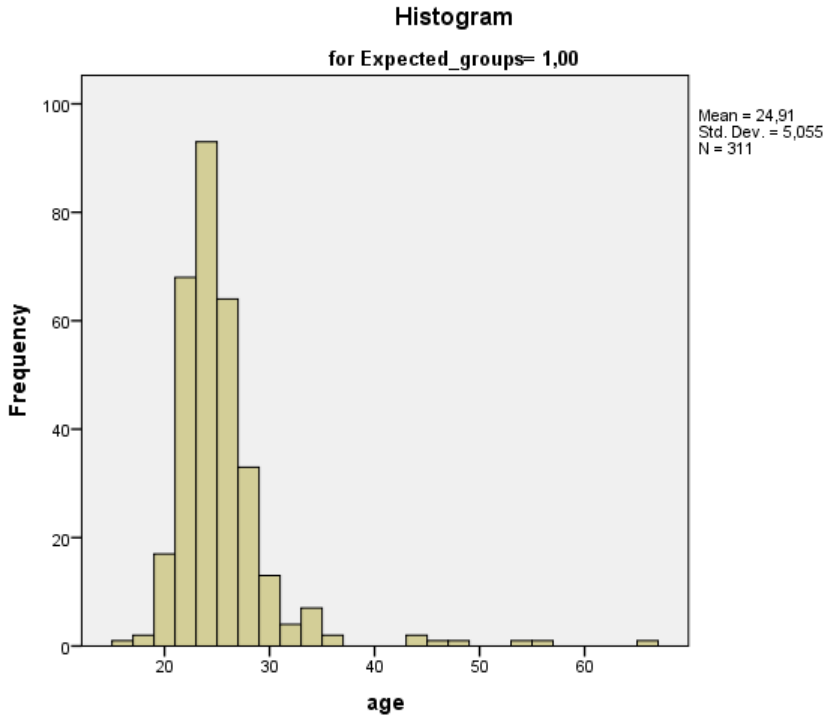
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,436[a]	1	,035		
Continuity Correction[b]	4,021	1	,045		
Likelihood Ratio	4,420	1	,036		
Fisher's Exact Test				,043	,023
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,429	1	,035		
N of Valid Cases	569				

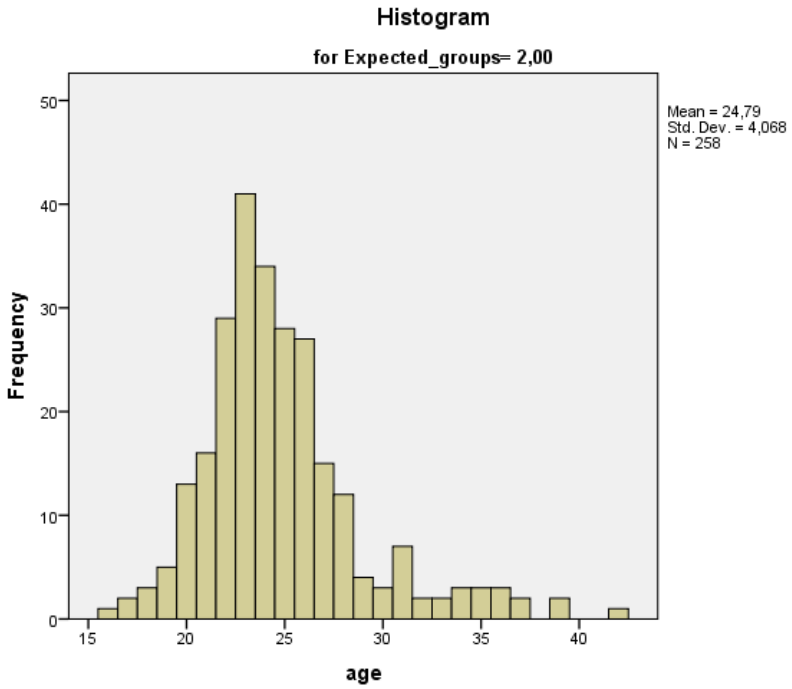
a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 57,59.

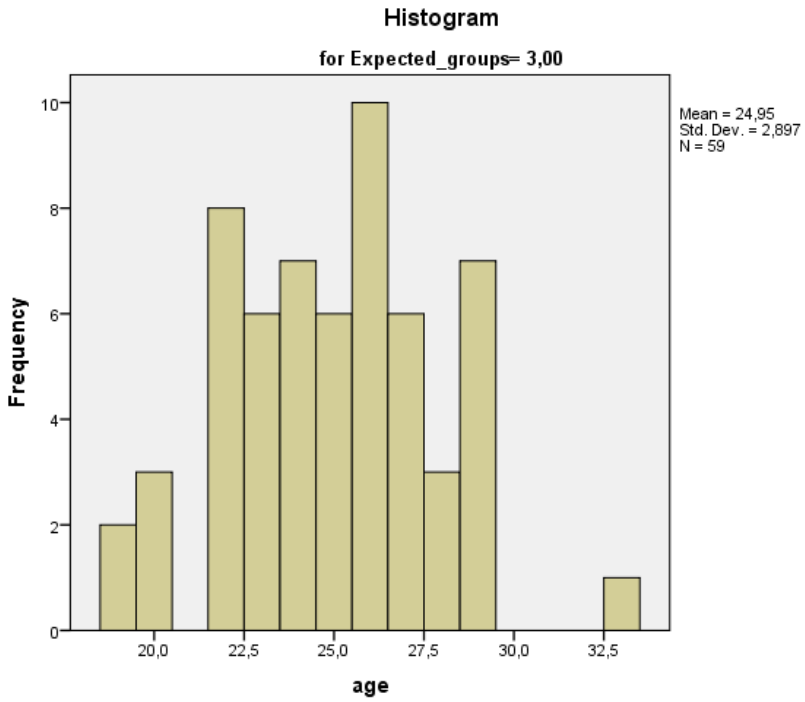
b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

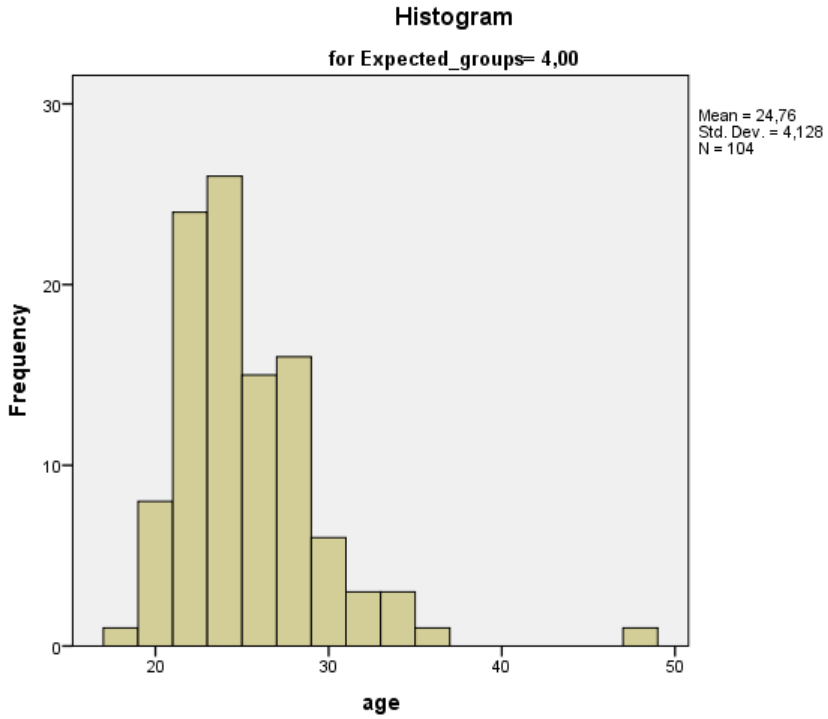
8.4. Homogeneity of Variances

8.4.1. Histograms of Age






Histogram
for Expected_groups= 3,00
Mean = 24,95
Std. Dev. = 2,897
N = 59
Frequency
age
0
2
4
6
8
10
20,0
22,5
25,0
27,5
30,0
32,5


Histogram
for Expected_groups= 4,00
Mean = 24,76
Std. Dev. = 4,128
N = 104
Frequency
age
0
10
20
30
20
30
40
50

8.4.2. Normality Tests for Age

Tests of Normality

	Expected groups	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
age	1,00	,207	311	,000	,675	311	,000
	2,00	,155	258	,000	,905	258	,000
	3,00	,099	59	,200*	,973	59	,210
	4,00	,140	104	,000	,871	104	,000

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

8.4.3. Homoscedasticity Test for Age

ANOVA

Age_dif_rank

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	46598,857	3	15532,952	1,316	,268
Within Groups	8594203,505	728	11805,225		
Total	8640802,362	731			

8.4.4. Homoscedasticity Tests for Online

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
online_dif_rank_f1	Between Groups	52951,594	3	17650,531	1,909	,127
	Within Groups	6094009,471	659	9247,359		
	Total	6146961,065	662			
online_dif_rank_F2	Between Groups	31061,091	3	10353,697	1,649	,177
	Within Groups	3485115,914	555	6279,488		
	Total	3516177,005	558			
online_dif_rank_F3	Between Groups	17642,139	3	5880,713	,727	,536
	Within Groups	5037192,943	623	8085,382		
	Total	5054835,082	626			
online_dif_rank_F4	Between Groups	102595,610	3	34198,537	3,587	,014
	Within Groups	6244665,908	655	9533,841		
	Total	6347261,519	658			
online_dif_rank_attitude	Between Groups	49055,107	3	16351,702	1,516	,209
	Within Groups	7432341,714	689	10787,143		
	Total	7481396,820	692			
online_dif_rank_intention	Between Groups	11896,208	3	3965,403	,419	,740
	Within Groups	6601110,551	697	9470,747		
	Total	6613006,758	700			

8.4.5. Homoscedasticity Tests for Sex

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
sex_dif_rank_F1	Between Groups	57943,936	3	19314,645	2,125	,096
	Within Groups	5989089,670	659	9088,148		
	Total	6047033,607	662			
sex_dif_rank_F2	Between Groups	20456,328	3	6818,776	1,095	,351
	Within Groups	3456300,484	555	6227,568		
	Total	3476756,812	558			
sex_dif_rank_F3	Between Groups	29248,059	3	9749,353	1,201	,309
	Within Groups	5057074,014	623	8117,294		
	Total	5086322,073	626			
sex_dif_rank_F4	Between Groups	104455,484	3	34818,495	3,640	,013
	Within Groups	6266146,433	655	9566,636		
	Total	6370601,916	658			
sex_dif_rank_att	Between Groups	48167,673	3	16055,891	1,558	,198
	Within Groups	7101654,383	689	10307,191		
	Total	7149822,056	692			
sex_dif_rank_int	Between Groups	7898,057	3	2632,686	,268	,848
	Within Groups	6846272,999	697	9822,486		
	Total	6854171,056	700			

8.4.6. Homoscedasticity Tests for Aarhus

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
aar_dif_rank_F1	Between Groups	56601,449	3	18867,150	2,098	,099
	Within Groups	5925416,451	659	8991,527		
	Total	5982017,900	662			
aar_dif_rank_F2	Between Groups	26876,339	3	8958,780	1,410	,239
	Within Groups	3526960,934	555	6354,885		
	Total	3553837,273	558			
aar_dif_rank_F3	Between Groups	18660,611	3	6220,204	,772	,510
	Within Groups	5021737,326	623	8060,574		
	Total	5040397,938	626			
aar_dif_rank_F4	Between Groups	107691,031	3	35897,010	3,762	,011
	Within Groups	6249817,552	655	9541,706		
	Total	6357508,584	658			
aar_dif_rank_att	Between Groups	41176,214	3	13725,405	1,288	,278
	Within Groups	7343275,795	689	10657,875		
	Total	7384452,008	692			
aar_dif_rank_int	Between Groups	20773,004	3	6924,335	,723	,538
	Within Groups	6675131,410	697	9576,946		
	Total	6695904,415	700			

8.5. Mann-Whitney Bias Tests and Kruskall-Wallis Bias Tests

Expected group 1=before without ticket.

Expected group 2=after did not attend the festival.

Expected group 3=before with ticket.

Expected group 4=after did attend the festival.

8.5.1. Grouping variable: Age

Ranks

	Expected_groups	N	Mean Rank
age	1,00	311	359,66
	2,00	258	366,71
	3,00	59	408,93
	4,00	104	362,37
	Total	732	

Test Statistics[a,b]

	age
Chi-Square	2,772
df	3
Asymp. Sig.	,428

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Expected_groups

8.5.2. Grouping variable: Online

Test Statistics[a]

Expected_groups		F1_mo_ny_sm	F2_ae_pa_su	F3_li_mu_vo	F4_gl_ch	Attitude	Intention
1,00	Mann-Whitney U	8971,000	7004,500	7482,500	9384,000	10570,500	10574,000
	Wilcoxon W	21691,000	13220,500	14268,500	17134,000	23450,500	23454,000
	Z	-1,192	-,188	-1,880	-,521	-,097	-,643
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,233	,851	,060	,602	,923	,520
2,00	Mann-Whitney U	5831,000	4123,000	5240,500	5816,500	6266,500	6659,000
	Wilcoxon W	9071,000	6679,000	8400,500	16256,500	10271,500	10754,000
	Z	-,104	-,466	-,812	-,187	-,958	-,770
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,917	,641	,417	,852	,338	,441
3,00	Mann-Whitney U	345,000	206,000	315,000	297,000	348,500	307,500
	Wilcoxon W	645,000	377,000	525,000	550,000	624,500	607,500
	Z	-,649	-1,218	-,095	-,985	-,703	-1,462
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,516	,223	,924	,324	,482	,144
4,00	Mann-Whitney U	1008,500	794,500	877,000	1137,000	1251,000	1160,500
	Wilcoxon W	2043,500	1460,500	1780,000	2172,000	2736,000	2645,500
	Z	-1,316	-,148	-,909	-,399	-,304	-,392
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,188	,882	,363	,690	,761	,695

a. Grouping Variable: Online

8.5.3. Grouping variable: Sex

Test Statistics[a]

Expected groups		F1_mo_ny_sm	F2_ae_pa_su	F3_li_mu_vo	F4_gl_ch	Attitude	Intention
1,00	Mann-Whitney U	8655,500	6403,000	8471,000	9288,500	8589,500	8582,000
	Wilcoxon W	18385,500	12731,000	17382,000	19299,500	19914,500	20363,000
	Z	-1,879	-1,335	-,494	-,860	-2,963	-3,454
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,060	,182	,621	,390	,003	,001
2,00	Mann-Whitney U	6308,500	4095,000	5640,500	6054,500	6584,500	6513,000
	Wilcoxon W	13211,500	8848,000	11418,500	12724,500	13965,500	14016,000
	Z	-,257	-1,338	-,969	-,673	-1,255	-2,030
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,797	,181	,333	,501	,209	,042
3,00	Mann-Whitney U	289,500	261,500	246,500	344,000	371,000	296,500
	Wilcoxon W	817,500	492,500	742,500	872,000	647,000	596,500
	Z	-1,573	-,249	-1,485	-,143	-,331	-1,644
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,116	,803	,138	,886	,741	,100
4,00	Mann-Whitney U	783,500	529,500	640,000	739,000	749,500	907,000
	Wilcoxon W	1161,500	829,500	940,000	1117,000	1127,500	3463,000
	Z	-1,396	-1,608	-1,301	-1,759	-2,008	-,691
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,163	,108	,193	,079	,045	,490

a. Grouping Variable: sex

8.5.3.1. Sex Overall

Ranks

	sex	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
F1_mo_ny_sm	0	304	339,51	103212,50
	1	359	325,64	116903,50
	Total	663		
F2_ae_pa_su	0	269	276,74	74444,00
	1	290	283,02	82076,00
	Total	559		
F3_li_mu_vo	0	284	309,60	87925,50
	1	343	317,65	108952,50
	Total	627		
F4_gl_ch	0	300	331,26	99379,00
	1	359	328,94	118091,00
	Total	659		
Attitude	0	313	361,60	113182,00
	1	380	334,97	127289,00
	Total	693		
Intention	0	322	377,13	121436,50
	1	379	328,80	124614,50
	Total	701		

Test Statistics[a]

	F1_mo_ny_sm	F2_ae_pa_su	F3_li_mu_vo	F4_gl_ch	Attitude	Intention
Mann-Whitney U	52283,500	38129,000	47455,500	53471,000	54899,000	52604,500
Wilcoxon W	116903,500	74444,000	87925,500	118091,000	127289,000	124614,500
Z	-,932	-,461	-,556	-,157	-1,753	-3,221
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,351	,645	,578	,875	,080	,001

a. Grouping Variable: sex

8.5.4. Grouping variable: Aarhus

Test Statistics[a]

Expected	groups	F1_mo_ny_sm	F2_ae_pa_su	F3_li_mu_vo	F4_gl_ch	Attitude	Intention
1,00	Mann-Whitney U	5628,500	4082,000	4520,500	4828,000	6315,500	6414,000
	Wilcoxon W	32889,500	5163,000	5696,500	6154,000	7911,500	8125,000
	Z	-,155	-,851	-1,436	-1,990	-,565	-,948
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,877	,395	,151	,047	,572	,343
2,00	Mann-Whitney U	4866,000	3540,500	4562,000	4791,000	4939,000	4833,000
	Wilcoxon W	19062,000	13410,500	6215,000	6502,000	7084,000	7044,000
	Z	-,208	-,292	-,270	-,190	-1,635	-2,352
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,835	,770	,787	,849	,102	,019
3,00	Mann-Whitney U	84,500	30,000	58,000	80,500	68,000	68,500
	Wilcoxon W	94,500	33,000	64,000	1355,500	78,000	78,500
	Z	-,624	-,800	-,613	-,655	-1,207	-1,198
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,533	,424	,540	,512	,227	,231
	Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	,549[b]	,474[b]	,576[b]	,534[b]	,252[b]	,252[b]
4,00	Mann-Whitney U	508,500	297,000	345,000	523,500	553,500	475,000
	Wilcoxon W	4078,500	363,000	3348,000	614,500	658,500	580,000
	Z	-,810	-1,221	-1,413	-,306	-,612	-1,232
	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,418	,222	,158	,759	,541	,218

a. Grouping Variable: Aarhus

b. Not corrected for ties.

8.6. 2-by-2 Contingency Tables: Royal_top3 and NS

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
royal_top3 * Online	732	100,0%	0	0,0%	732	100,0%
royal_top3 * sex	732	100,0%	0	0,0%	732	100,0%
royal_top3 * student	732	100,0%	0	0,0%	732	100,0%
royal_top3 * Aarhus	732	100,0%	0	0,0%	732	100,0%
NS * Online	732	100,0%	0	0,0%	732	100,0%
NS * sex	732	100,0%	0	0,0%	732	100,0%
NS * student	732	100,0%	0	0,0%	732	100,0%
NS * Aarhus	732	100,0%	0	0,0%	732	100,0%

8.6.1. Royal Top 3 Awareness

8.6.1.1. Online

Crosstab

Count

		Online		
		0	1	Total
royal_top3	0	347	267	614
	1	69	49	118
Total		416	316	732

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,155[a]	1	,694		
Continuity Correction[b]	,085	1	,770		
Likelihood Ratio	,155	1	,693		
Fisher's Exact Test				,761	,386
Linear-by-Linear Association	,155	1	,694		
N of Valid Cases	732				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 50,94.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.6.1.2. Sex

Crosstab

Count

		sex		
		0	1	Total
royal_top3	0	278	336	614
	1	53	65	118
Total		331	401	732

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,005[a]	1	,942		
Continuity Correction[b]	,000	1	1,000		
Likelihood Ratio	,005	1	,942		
Fisher's Exact Test				1,000	,512
Linear-by-Linear Association	,005	1	,942		
N of Valid Cases	732				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 53,36.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.6.1.3. Student

Crosstab

Count

		student		
		0	1	Total
royal_top3	0	133	481	614
	1	24	94	118
Total		157	575	732

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,103[a]	1	,749		
Continuity Correction[b]	,039	1	,843		
Likelihood Ratio	,104	1	,747		
Fisher's Exact Test				,807	,428
Linear-by-Linear Association	,103	1	,749		
N of Valid Cases	732				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 25,31.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.6.1.4. Aarhus

Crosstab

Count

		Aarhus		Total
		0	1	
royal_top3	0	125	489	614
	1	20	98	118
Total		145	587	732

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,724[a]	1	,395		
Continuity Correction[b]	,525	1	,469		
Likelihood Ratio	,747	1	,387		
Fisher's Exact Test				,450	,237
Linear-by-Linear Association	,723	1	,395		
N of Valid Cases	732				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23,37.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.6.2. NS Recall

8.6.2.1. Online

Crosstab

Count

		Online		
		0	1	Total
NS	0	276	203	479
	1	140	113	253
Total		416	316	732

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,352[a]	1	,553		
Continuity Correction[b]	,265	1	,607		
Likelihood Ratio	,352	1	,553		
Fisher's Exact Test				,583	,303
Linear-by-Linear Association	,352	1	,553		
N of Valid Cases	732				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 109,22.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.6.2.2. Sex

Crosstab

Count

		sex		
		0	1	Total
NS	0	200	279	479
	1	131	122	253
Total		331	401	732

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6,717[a]	1	,010		
Continuity Correction[b]	6,318	1	,012		
Likelihood Ratio	6,705	1	,010		
Fisher's Exact Test				,010	,006
Linear-by-Linear Association	6,708	1	,010		
N of Valid Cases	732				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 114,40.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.6.2.3. Student

Crosstab

Count

		student		Total
		0	1	
NS	0	108	371	479
	1	49	204	253
Total		157	575	732

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,993[a]	1	,319		
Continuity Correction[b]	,814	1	,367		
Likelihood Ratio	1,005	1	,316		
Fisher's Exact Test				,345	,184
Linear-by-Linear Association	,992	1	,319		
N of Valid Cases	732				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 54,26.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.6.2.4. Aarhus

Crosstab

Count

		Aarhus		Total
		0	1	
NS	0	110	369	479
	1	35	218	253
Total		145	587	732

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8,689[a]	1	,003		
Continuity Correction[b]	8,123	1	,004		
Likelihood Ratio	9,094	1	,003		
Fisher's Exact Test				,003	,002
Linear-by-Linear Association	8,677	1	,003		
N of Valid Cases	732				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 50,12.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

8.7. Beer Consumption

Ranks

	sex	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
beer_consumption	0	331	448,15	148338,50
	1	401	299,10	119939,50
	Total	732		

Test Statistics[a]

	beer_consumption
Mann-Whitney U	39338,500
Wilcoxon W	119939,500
Z	-9,763
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,000

a. Grouping Variable: sex

9. Analysis

9.1. Brand Awareness for Participants (Royal_top3)

Expected_groups * royal_top3

Count

		royal_top3		
		0	1	Total
Expected_groups	1,00	262	49	311
	2,00	217	41	258
	3,00	48	11	59
	4,00	87	17	104
Total		614	118	732

royal_top3

Expected_groups			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	Valid	0	262	84,2	84,2	84,2
		1	49	15,8	15,8	100,0
		Total	311	100,0	100,0	
2,00	Valid	0	217	84,1	84,1	84,1
		1	41	15,9	15,9	100,0
		Total	258	100,0	100,0	
3,00	Valid	0	48	81,4	81,4	81,4
		1	11	18,6	18,6	100,0
		Total	59	100,0	100,0	
4,00	Valid	0	87	83,7	83,7	83,7
		1	17	16,3	16,3	100,0
		Total	104	100,0	100,0	

9.1.1. Group 3 and 4 Compared

Gobefore_vs_goafter * royal_top3 Crosstabulation

Count

		royal_top3		
		0	1	Total
Gobefore_vs_goafter	0	48	11	59
	1	87	17	104
Total		135	28	163

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,140[a]	1	,709		
Continuity Correction[b]	,025	1	,875		
Likelihood Ratio	,138	1	,710		
Fisher's Exact Test				,829	,432
Linear-by-Linear Association	,139	1	,709		
N of Valid Cases	163				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10,13.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

9.1.2. Group 1 and 2 Compared

Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter * royal_top3 Crosstabulation

Count

		royal_top3		Total
		0	1	
Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter	0	262	49	311
	1	217	41	258
Total		479	90	569

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,002[a]	1	,965		
Continuity Correction[b]	,000	1	1,000		
Likelihood Ratio	,002	1	,965		
Fisher's Exact Test				1,000	,527
Linear-by-Linear Association	,002	1	,965		
N of Valid Cases	569				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 40,81.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

9.1.3. Group 2 and 4 Compared

After_went * royal_top3 Crosstabulation

Count

		royal_top3		
		0	1	Total
After_went	0	217	41	258
	1	87	17	104
Total		304	58	362

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,011[a]	1	,915		
Continuity Correction[b]	,000	1	1,000		
Likelihood Ratio	,011	1	,915		
Fisher's Exact Test				1,000	,514
Linear-by-Linear Association	,011	1	,915		
N of Valid Cases	362				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16,66.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

9.1.4. Group 1 and 3 Compared

Before_with_ticket * royal_top3 Crosstabulation

Count

		royal_top3		
		0	1	Total
Before_with_ticket	0	262	49	311
	1	48	11	59
Total		310	60	370

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,305[a]	1	,581		
Continuity Correction[b]	,129	1	,719		
Likelihood Ratio	,295	1	,587		
Fisher's Exact Test				,566	,350
Linear-by-Linear Association	,304	1	,582		
N of Valid Cases	370				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9,57.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

9.2. Sponsor Recognition for Participants (NS – Aarhus Only)

Males

NS

Expected groups			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	Valid	0	71	61,2	61,2	61,2
		1	45	38,8	38,8	100,0
		Total	116	100,0	100,0	
2,00	Valid	0	56	58,9	58,9	58,9
		1	39	41,1	41,1	100,0
		Total	95	100,0	100,0	
3,00	Valid	0	11	47,8	47,8	47,8
		1	12	52,2	52,2	100,0
		Total	23	100,0	100,0	
4,00	Valid	0	5	20,0	20,0	20,0
		1	20	80,0	80,0	100,0
		Total	25	100,0	100,0	

Females

NS

Expected groups			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1,00	Valid	0	106	77,9	77,9	77,9
		1	30	22,1	22,1	100,0
		Total	136	100,0	100,0	
2,00	Valid	0	78	82,1	82,1	82,1
		1	17	17,9	17,9	100,0
		Total	95	100,0	100,0	
3,00	Valid	0	19	59,4	59,4	59,4
		1	13	40,6	40,6	100,0
		Total	32	100,0	100,0	
4,00	Valid	0	23	35,4	35,4	35,4
		1	42	64,6	64,6	100,0
		Total	65	100,0	100,0	

9.2.1. Group 3 and 4 Compared

Males

Gobefore_vs_goafter * NS Crosstabulation

Count

		NS		Total
		0	1	
Gobefore_vs_goafter	0	11	12	23
	1	5	20	25
Total		16	32	48

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,174[a]	1	,041		
Continuity Correction[b]	3,016	1	,082		
Likelihood Ratio	4,244	1	,039		
Fisher's Exact Test				,066	,041
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,087	1	,043		
N of Valid Cases	48				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7,67.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Females

Gobefore_vs_goafter * NS Crosstabulation

Count

		NS		Total
		0	1	
Gobefore_vs_goafter	0	19	13	32
	1	23	42	65
Total		42	55	97

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5,027[a]	1	,025		
Continuity Correction[b]	4,097	1	,043		
Likelihood Ratio	5,020	1	,025		
Fisher's Exact Test				,031	,022
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,975	1	,026		
N of Valid Cases	97				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 13,86.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

9.2.2. Group 1 and 2 Compared

Males

Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter * NS Crosstabulation

Count

		NS		Total
		0	1	
Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter	0	71	45	116
	1	56	39	95
Total		127	84	211

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,111[a]	1	,739		
Continuity Correction[b]	,037	1	,848		
Likelihood Ratio	,111	1	,739		
Fisher's Exact Test				,778	,423
Linear-by-Linear Association	,111	1	,739		
N of Valid Cases	211				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 37,82.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Females

Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter * NS Crosstabulation

Count

		NS		Total
		0	1	
Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter	0	106	30	136
	1	78	17	95
Total		184	47	231

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,598[a]	1	,439		
Continuity Correction[b]	,369	1	,544		
Likelihood Ratio	,605	1	,437		
Fisher's Exact Test				,508	,273
Linear-by-Linear Association	,596	1	,440		
N of Valid Cases	231				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 19,33.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

9.2.3. Group 2 and 4 Compared

Males

After_went * NS Crosstabulation

Count

		NS		Total
		0	1	
After_went	0	56	39	95
	1	5	20	25
Total		61	59	120

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12,012[a]	1	,001		
Continuity Correction[b]	10,504	1	,001		
Likelihood Ratio	12,662	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,001	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	11,912	1	,001		
N of Valid Cases	120				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 12,29.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Females

After_went * NS Crosstabulation

Count

		NS		Total
		0	1	
After_went	0	78	17	95
	1	23	42	65
Total		101	59	160

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	36,191[a]	1	,000		
Continuity Correction[b]	34,212	1	,000		
Likelihood Ratio	36,918	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,000	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	35,965	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	160				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23,97.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

9.2.4. Group 1 and 3 Compared

Males

Before_with_ticket * NS Crosstabulation

Count

		NS		Total
		0	1	
Before_with_ticket	0	71	45	116
	1	11	12	23
Total		82	57	139

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,421[a]	1	,233		
Continuity Correction[b]	,921	1	,337		
Likelihood Ratio	1,400	1	,237		
Fisher's Exact Test				,253	,168
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,410	1	,235		
N of Valid Cases	139				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9,43.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Females

Before_with_ticket * NS Crosstabulation

Count

		NS		Total
		0	1	
Before_with_ticket	0	106	30	136
	1	19	13	32
Total		125	43	168

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,689[a]	1	,030		
Continuity Correction[b]	3,765	1	,052		
Likelihood Ratio	4,359	1	,037		
Fisher's Exact Test				,042	,029
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,661	1	,031		
N of Valid Cases	168				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8,19.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

9.3. Participation Effect on Brand Personality

9.3.1. Groups 3 and 4 Compared

Ranks

	Gobefore_vs_goafter	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
F1_mo_ny_sm	0	56	71,24	3989,50
	1	98	81,08	7945,50
	Total	154		
F2_ae_pa_su	0	47	66,83	3141,00
	1	81	63,15	5115,00
	Total	128		
F3_li_mu_vo	0	52	68,38	3555,50
	1	89	72,53	6455,50
	Total	141		
F4_gl_ch	0	54	71,59	3866,00
	1	98	79,20	7762,00
	Total	152		

Test Statistics[a]

	F1_mo_ny_sm	F2_ae_pa_su	F3_li_mu_vo	F4_gl_ch
Mann-Whitney U	2393,500	1794,000	2177,500	2381,000
Wilcoxon W	3989,500	5115,000	3555,500	3866,000
Z	-1,321	-,545	-,586	-1,030
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,186	,586	,558	,303

a. Grouping Variable: Gobefore_vs_goafter

9.3.2. Groups 1 and 2 Compared

Ranks

	Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
F1_mo_ny_sm	0	282	257,28	72553,50
	1	227	252,17	57241,50
	Total	509		
F2_ae_pa_su	0	239	212,65	50823,00
	1	192	220,17	42273,00
	Total	431		
F3_li_mu_vo	0	265	238,19	63121,50
	1	221	249,86	55219,50
	Total	486		
F4_gl_ch	0	281	250,20	70307,00
	1	226	258,72	58471,00
	Total	507		

Test Statistics[a]

	F1_mo_ny_sm	F2_ae_pa_su	F3_li_mu_vo	F4_gl_ch
Mann-Whitney U	31363,500	22143,000	27876,500	30686,000
Wilcoxon W	57241,500	50823,000	63121,500	70307,000
Z	-,391	-,626	-,915	-,656
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,696	,531	,360	,512

a. Grouping Variable: Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter

9.3.3. Groups 2 and 4 Compared

Ranks

	After_went	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
F1_mo_ny_sm	0	227	154,10	34981,00
	1	98	183,61	17994,00
	Total	325		
F2_ae_pa_su	0	192	138,93	26675,50
	1	81	132,41	10725,50
	Total	273		
F3_li_mu_vo	0	221	150,95	33360,00
	1	89	166,80	14845,00
	Total	310		
F4_gl_ch	0	226	157,44	35580,50
	1	98	174,18	17069,50
	Total	324		

Test Statistics[a]

	F1_mo_ny_sm	F2_ae_pa_su	F3_li_mu_vo	F4_gl_ch
Mann-Whitney U	9103,000	7404,500	8829,000	9929,500
Wilcoxon W	34981,000	10725,500	33360,000	35580,500
Z	-2,607	-,626	-1,413	-1,490
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,009	,531	,158	,136

a. Grouping Variable: After_went

9.3.4. Groups 1 and 3 Compared

Ranks

	Before_with_ticket	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
F1_mo_ny_sm	0	282	168,32	47465,50
	1	56	175,46	9825,50
	Total	338		
F2_ae_pa_su	0	239	142,65	34092,50
	1	47	147,84	6948,50
	Total	286		
F3_li_mu_vo	0	265	156,23	41400,00
	1	52	173,13	9003,00
	Total	317		
F4_gl_ch	0	281	166,72	46849,00
	1	54	174,65	9431,00
	Total	335		

Test Statistics[a]

	F1_mo_ny_sm	F2_ae_pa_su	F3_li_mu_vo	F4_gl_ch
Mann-Whitney U	7562,500	5412,500	6155,000	7228,000
Wilcoxon W	47465,500	34092,500	41400,000	46849,000
Z	-,501	-,396	-1,221	-,555
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,617	,692	,222	,579

a. Grouping Variable: Before_with_ticket

9.4. Participation Effect on Brand Attitude

9.4.1. Groups 3 and 4 Compared

Males

Ranks

	Gobefore_vs_goafter	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Attitude	0	23	28,54	656,50
	1	27	22,91	618,50
	Total	50		

Test Statistics[a]

	Attitude
Mann-Whitney U	240,500
Wilcoxon W	618,500
Z	-1,391
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,164

a. Grouping Variable: Gobefore_vs_goafter

Females

Ranks

	Gobefore_vs_goafter	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Attitude	0	34	52,81	1795,50
	1	75	55,99	4199,50
	Total	109		

Test Statistics[a]

	Attitude
Mann-Whitney U	1200,500
Wilcoxon W	1795,500
Z	-,491
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,624

a. Grouping Variable: Gobefore_vs_goafter

9.4.2. Groups 1 and 2 Compared

Males

Ranks

	Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Attitude	0	143	134,43	19224,00
	1	120	129,10	15492,00
	Total	263		

Test Statistics[a]

	Attitude
Mann-Whitney U	8232,000
Wilcoxon W	15492,000
Z	-,570
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,569

a. Grouping Variable: Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter

Females

Ranks

	Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Attitude	0	150	132,74	19911,00
	1	121	140,04	16945,00
	Total	271		

Test Statistics[a]

	Attitude
Mann-Whitney U	8586,000
Wilcoxon W	19911,000
Z	-,767
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,443

a. Grouping Variable: Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter

9.4.3. Groups 2 and 4 Compared

Males

Ranks

	After_went	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Attitude	0	120	76,17	9140,00
	1	27	64,37	1738,00
	Total	147		

Test Statistics[a]

	Attitude
Mann-Whitney U	1360,000
Wilcoxon W	1738,000
Z	-1,308
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,191

a. Grouping Variable: After_went

Females

Ranks

	After_went	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Attitude	0	121	91,38	11056,50
	1	75	109,99	8249,50
	Total	196		

	Attitude
Mann-Whitney U	3675,500
Wilcoxon W	11056,500
Z	-2,248
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,025

a. Grouping Variable: After_went

9.4.4. Groups 1 and 3 Compared

Males

Ranks

	Before_with_ticket	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Attitude	0	143	84,07	12022,50
	1	23	79,93	1838,50
	Total	166		

Test Statistics[a]

	Attitude
Mann-Whitney U	1562,500
Wilcoxon W	1838,500
Z	-,387
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,699

a. Grouping Variable: Before_with_ticket

Females

Ranks

	Before_with_ticket	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Attitude	0	150	89,53	13429,50
	1	34	105,60	3590,50
	Total	184		

Test Statistics[a]

	Attitude
Mann-Whitney U	2104,500
Wilcoxon W	13429,500
Z	-1,600
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,110

a. Grouping Variable: Before_with_ticket

9.5. Participation Effect on Purchase Intention (Aarhus Only)

9.5.1. Groups 3 and 4 Compared

Males

Ranks

	Gobefore_vs_goafter	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Intention	0	23	23,17	533,00
	1	25	25,72	643,00
	Total	48		

Test Statistics[a]

	Intention
Mann-Whitney U	257,000
Wilcoxon W	533,000
Z	-,646
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,518

a. Grouping Variable: Gobefore_vs_goafter

Females

Ranks

	Gobefore_vs_goafter	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Intention	0	30	53,68	1610,50
	1	60	41,41	2484,50
	Total	90		

Test Statistics[a]

	Intention
Mann-Whitney U	654,500
Wilcoxon W	2484,500
Z	-2,146
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,032

a. Grouping Variable: Gobefore_vs_goafter

9.5.2. Groups 1 and 2 Compared

Males

Ranks

	Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Intention	0	112	97,67	10939,00
	1	92	108,38	9971,00
	Total	204		

Test Statistics[a]

	Intention
Mann-Whitney U	4611,000
Wilcoxon W	10939,000
Z	-1,319
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,187

a. Grouping Variable: Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter

Females

Ranks

	Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Intention	0	128	105,98	13565,00
	1	89	113,35	10088,00
	Total	217		

Test Statistics[a]

	Intention
Mann-Whitney U	5309,000
Wilcoxon W	13565,000
Z	-,873
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,383

a. Grouping Variable: Nogobefore_vs_nogoafter

9.5.3. Groups 2 and 4 Compared

Males

Ranks

	After_went	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Intention	0	92	60,47	5563,50
	1	25	53,58	1339,50
	Total	117		

Test Statistics[a]

	Intention
Mann-Whitney U	1014,500
Wilcoxon W	1339,500
Z	-,929
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,353

a. Grouping Variable: After_went

Females

Ranks

	After_went	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Intention	0	89	73,68	6557,50
	1	60	76,96	4617,50
	Total	149		

Test Statistics[a]

	Intention
Mann-Whitney U	2552,500
Wilcoxon W	6557,500
Z	-,465
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,642

a. Grouping Variable: After_went

9.5.4. Groups 1 and 3 Compared

Males

Ranks

	Before_with_ticket	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Intention	0	112	69,14	7743,50
	1	23	62,46	1436,50
	Total	135		

Test Statistics[a]

	Intention
Mann-Whitney U	1160,500
Wilcoxon W	1436,500
Z	-,760
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,447

a. Grouping Variable: Before_with_ticket

Females

Ranks

	Before_with_ticket	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Intention	0	128	73,59	9419,00
	1	30	104,73	3142,00
	Total	158		

Test Statistics[a]

	Intention
Mann-Whitney U	1163,000
Wilcoxon W	9419,000
Z	-3,433
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,001

a. Grouping Variable: Before_with_ticket

9.5.5. The influence of Female Recognition on Purchase Intention

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Intention	15	1	7	4,40	1,454
Valid N (listwise)	15				

15 females recognized the sponsor and had a mean of 4.40.

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Intention	18	1	7	3,89	2,026
Valid N (listwise)	18				

18 females did not recognize the sponsor and had a mean of 3.89.

Ranks

	NS	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Intention	0	18	16,36	294,50
	1	15	17,77	266,50
	Total	33		

Test Statistics[a]

	Intention
Mann-Whitney U	123,500
Wilcoxon W	294,500
Z	-,427
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,669
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	,682[b]

a. Grouping Variable: NS

b. Not corrected for ties.

But there is no significant difference between the groups (p-value: 0.682).

9.6. Support for A Trend

9.6.1. Support for a Trend in Royal_top3

9.6.1.1. Nogobefore_vs_goafter (group 1 and 4)

Nogobefore_vs_Goafter * royal_top3 Crosstabulation

Count

		royal_top3		
		0	1	Total
Nogobefore_vs_Goafter	0	262	49	311
	1	87	17	104
Total		349	66	415

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	,020[a]	1	,887		
Continuity Correction[b]	,000	1	1,000		
Likelihood Ratio	,020	1	,887		
Fisher's Exact Test				,878	,498
Linear-by-Linear Association	,020	1	,887		
N of Valid Cases	415				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16,54.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

9.6.2. Support for a Trend in NS

9.6.2.1. Nogobefore_vs_goafter (group 1 and 4)

Males

Nogobefore_vs_Goafter * NS Crosstabulation

Count

		NS		
		0	1	Total
Nogobefore_vs_Goafter	0	71	45	116
	1	5	20	25
Total		76	65	141

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	14,055[a]	1	,000		
Continuity Correction[b]	12,446	1	,000		
Likelihood Ratio	14,656	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,000	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	13,955	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	141				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11,52.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Females

Nogobefore_vs_Goafter * NS Crosstabulation

Count

		NS		Total
		0	1	
Nogobefore_vs_Goafter	0	106	30	136
	1	23	42	65
Total		129	72	201

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	34,646[a]	1	,000		
Continuity Correction[b]	32,820	1	,000		
Likelihood Ratio	34,262	1	,000		
Fisher's Exact Test				,000	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	34,474	1	,000		
N of Valid Cases	201				

a. 0 cells (0,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23,28.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

9.6.3. Support for a Trend in Brand Personality

9.6.3.1. Groups 1 and 4 Compared

Ranks

	Nogobefore_vs_Goafter	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
F1_mo_ny_sm	0	282	182,90	51579,00
	1	98	212,36	20811,00
	Total	380		
F2_ae_pa_su	0	239	161,06	38493,50
	1	81	158,85	12866,50
	Total	320		
F3_li_mu_vo	0	265	170,96	45305,50
	1	89	196,96	17529,50
	Total	354		
F4_gl_ch	0	281	183,42	51542,00
	1	98	208,86	20468,00
	Total	379		

Test Statistics[a]

	F1_mo_ny_sm	F2_ae_pa_su	F3_li_mu_vo	F4_gl_ch
Mann-Whitney U	11676,000	9545,500	10060,500	11921,000
Wilcoxon W	51579,000	12866,500	45305,500	51542,000
Z	-2,293	-,187	-2,081	-1,992
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,022	,852	,037	,046

a. Grouping Variable: Nogobefore_vs_Goafter

9.6.4. Support for a Trend in Brand Attitude

9.6.4.1. Groups 1 and 4 Compared

Males

Ranks

	Nogobefore_vs_Goafter	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Attitude	0	143	88,19	12611,50
	1	27	71,24	1923,50
	Total	170		

Test Statistics[a]

	Attitude
Mann-Whitney U	1545,500
Wilcoxon W	1923,500
Z	-1,652
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,099

a. Grouping Variable: Nogobefore_vs_Goafter

Females

Ranks

	Nogobefore_vs_Goafter	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Attitude	0	150	103,20	15480,50
	1	75	132,59	9944,50
	Total	225		

Test Statistics[a]

	Attitude
Mann-Whitney U	4155,500
Wilcoxon W	15480,500
Z	-3,212
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,001

a. Grouping Variable: Nogobefore_vs_Goafter

9.6.5. Support for a Trend in Brand Intention

9.6.5.1. Groups 1 and 4 Compared

Males

Ranks

	Nogobefore_vs_Goafter	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Intention	0	112	69,02	7730,00
	1	25	68,92	1723,00
	Total	137		

Test Statistics[a]

	Intention
Mann-Whitney U	1398,000
Wilcoxon W	1723,000
Z	-,011
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,991

a. Grouping Variable: Nogobefore_vs_Goafter

Females

Ranks

	Nogobefore_vs_Goafter	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Intention	0	128	91,05	11654,00
	1	60	101,87	6112,00
	Total	188		

9.6.6. NorthSide Sponsor Awareness

9.6.6.1. Unaided awareness

Royal_unaided

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	97	44,5	48,3	48,3
	1	104	47,7	51,7	100,0
	Total	201	92,2	100,0	
Missing	System	17	7,8		
Total		218	100,0		

Unaided awareness is at 47.7% with 7.8% wrong answers and 44.5% that indicated that they could not answer the question of who the sponsor was without help.

9.6.6.2. Aided Awareness

Royal_aided

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	44	20,2	37,3	37,3
	1	74	33,9	62,7	100,0
	Total	118	54,1	100,0	
Missing	System	100	45,9		
Total		218	100,0		

Of 118 people that had the opportunity to answer the aided awareness question 62.7% was able to pin-point Royal Beer as the sponsor out of a selection of 5 possibilities.

9.6.6.3. Overall Sponsor Recognition

Royal_recognition_overall

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	44	20,2	20,2	20,2
	1	174	79,8	79,8	100,0
	Total	218	100,0	100,0	

That gives a total recognition of almost 80%.

9.6.6.4. Royal_recognition (Aarhus only, males=0, females=1)

Royal_recognition_overall

Sex			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
0	Valid	0	14	23,0	23,0	23,0
		1	47	77,0	77,0	100,0
		Total	61	100,0	100,0	
1	Valid	0	16	21,1	21,1	21,1
		1	60	78,9	78,9	100,0
		Total	76	100,0	100,0	

Test Statistics[a]

	Intention
Mann-Whitney U	3398,000
Wilcoxon W	11654,000
Z	-1,302
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	,193

a. Grouping Variable: Nogobefore_vs_Goafter

9.7. Trend Tests

9.7.1. Sponsor Recognition: Trend Test

Males

Correlations

			Expected_groups	NS
Kendall's tau_b	Expected_groups	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,165**
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	,002
		N	259	259
	NS	Correlation Coefficient	,165**	1,000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	,002	.
		N	259	259

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Females

Correlations

			Expected_groups	NS
Kendall's tau_b	Expected_groups	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,276**
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	,000
		N	328	328
	NS	Correlation Coefficient	,276**	1,000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	,000	.
		N	328	328

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

9.7.2. Brand Personality of the Sponsor: Trend Test

Correlations

			Expected_groups
Kendall's tau_b	Expected_groups	Correlation Coefficient	1,000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.
		N	732
	F1_mo_ny_sm	Correlation Coefficient	,053
		Sig. (1-tailed)	,041
		N	663
	F2_ae_pa_su	Correlation Coefficient	,006
		Sig. (1-tailed)	,426
		N	559
	F3_li_mu_vo	Correlation Coefficient	,069
		Sig. (1-tailed)	,014
		N	627
	F4_gl_ch	Correlation Coefficient	,057
		Sig. (1-tailed)	,034
		N	659

9.7.3. Brand Attitude towards the Sponsor: Trend Test

9.7.3.1. Males

Correlations

			Expected_groups	Attitude
Kendall's tau_b	Expected_groups	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	-,062
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	,090
		N	331	313
	Attitude	Correlation Coefficient	-,062	1,000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	,090	.
		N	313	313

9.7.3.2. Females

Correlations

			Expected_groups	Attitude
Kendall's tau_b	Expected_groups	Correlation Coefficient	1,000	,125**
		Sig. (1-tailed)	.	,001
		N	401	380
	Attitude	Correlation Coefficient	,125**	1,000
		Sig. (1-tailed)	,001	.
		N	380	380

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).