THE INFLUENCE OF ATTITUDES TOWARDS SPONSORSHIP ON THE PSYCHOLOGICAL SPECTATOR SEGMENTATION:

A CASE STUDY OF MALMÖ FF AND PUMA AB

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Abstract

To address the complexity of consumers' behavior in the sports industry, several models have been proposed to measure the relation between sponsorship success, perception of the sponsor as well as sponsor's and property's portfolio management. Recently, spectator segmentation based on psychological consumption motives has been proposed to enable direct targeting of different spectator groups to derive economic benefits from sponsorship activations.

In this context, the underlying study examines how spectators can be further segmented in terms of their attitude towards the property, sponsor, and sponsorship in order to derive managerial implications for customized sponsorship activation for commercial gain. With the case analysis of Malmö FF and Puma AB, the study is operationalized through secondary data sources by analyzing the theoretical landscape and relevant literature in the field of Relationship Marketing, Attitude towards Sponsorship, Spectator Segmentation Models, Congruence, Sponsorship Exposure, and Portfolio Management. Further, primary data in a quantitative, abductive research approach is collected by employing a questionnaire distributed among Malmö FF spectators. Statistical analysis of the convenience sample is performed for segmentation and discrimination.

Findings indicate that four segments of spectators can be derived that can primarily be discriminated by aspects relating to identification with the sponsor, attitude towards the sponsorship, and perceived fit of the property's sponsorship portfolio. Moreover, by analyzing what predicts each segment's attitude towards the sponsorship, each segment can be characterized. Spectators, grouped into Community Immersed Fans, External Observers, Receptive Casuals and Experience Seekers, are initially differentiated based on Community Motives, Hedonic Motives, and Trust Motives. Moreover, findings imply that spectators form attitudes towards sponsorships regardless of the sponsor's other sponsorship activities, and the fit of the property's sponsor portfolio is influential for forming attitudes towards the sponsor and sponsorship. Finally, the difference in spectators' locus of self-identification is found that significantly impacts the discrimination between segments.

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Introduction

Nowadays, sponsorships are crucial in the world of sports, as they have evolved into a global industry with significant commercial investment opportunities (Walliser, 2003). There is a plethora of research that provides evidence that sport sponsorship aids in enhancing a company's corporate image and creates incremental sales through increased awareness and, ultimately, loyalty among the target consumers (Ko, Kim, Claussen, & Kim, 2008). Especially in the area of sport marketing, numerous scholars have found significant support for a positive influence of sport sponsorships for the sponsor (Bühler, Heffernan, & Hewson, 2007; e.g. Masterman, 2007; Renard & Sitz, 2011). This positive influence stretches across aspects of increased brand exposure, recall and recognition (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005), an enhanced image of the sponsor (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999), increased positive attitudes towards the sponsor (Speed & Thompson, 2000), stock price increases (Cornwell et al., 2005) and an increased customer base (Hoye, Smith, Westerbeek, Stewart, & Nicholson, 2005). Particularly in the football industry, sponsorships represent a critical marketing strategy. Not only do companies use this tool to communicate with mass audiences and avoid a competitive disadvantage (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2005), they also provide a source of funding to the clubs (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2014). Across the globe, multinational companies have integrated sports sponsorship in their strategic marketing programs in the pursuit to create dynamic relationships between brands and consumers (Biscaia et al., 2016; Santomier, 2008). Within the context of professional football, Bühler, Heffernan, & Hewson (2007) define sponsorship as a business-related partnership between a sponsor and a football club based on reciprocity and commercial motives.

Various models have been proposed in order to evaluate sponsorship success. Previous scholars argue that consumer attitudes towards the sponsor and their brands are, on the one hand, essential outcome variables (Ko & Kim, 2014; Madrigal, 2001; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Speed & Thompson, 2000), and the other hand also a key antecedent of sponsorship success (Ko, Chang, Park, & Herbst, 2017). Attitude has been proven to be an important predictor of behavioral intentions and is positively related to purchase intentions (Keller, 1993; Kim, James, & Kim, 2013). Consequently, in order to evaluate sponsorship effectiveness, and thereby success, variables that influence the consumer's attitude need to be selected carefully (Cornwell et al., 2005).

However, the majority of research only considers sponsor or event characteristics as measures to evaluate effectiveness (see Speed & Thompson, 2000; Tripodi, 2001). These models fail to explain how sponsorships work in the mind of the consumer (Cornwell et al., 2005). Including the consumer in the equation is particularly important, as sport consumers display an array of values, attitudes, and behaviors (Stewart, Smith, & Nicholson, 2003), with significant differences in expression among them. The complexity of factors determining the consumers' perception, challenges the view that sport consumers can be reduced to a narrow set of similar traits (ibid). Hence, to create an effective sponsorship and to maximize the return on investment, not only the chosen sponsee, hereafter referred to as property, but also the audience, i.e., the spectators, needs to be evaluated. Ultimately, companies need to know which consumer groups shape the sponsorship's target audience. In order to accurately distinguish between different segments, underlying motives and behavioral characteristics need to be explored (Meenaghan, 2001). The resulting consumer typologies and profiles assist sponsors in adjusting their strategies in order to optimize their sponsorship portfolio.

Following the elaboration on the complexity of consumer behavior in the sport industry, the subsequent problem statement for the underlying research study is found.

Problem Statement

This study finds itself within the complex world of football. It is based on a single case study approach examining the relationships between Malmö FF (MFF), also referred to as property hereafter, and different stakeholders, more specifically its spectators, as well as its long term kit supplier Puma AB. Drawing from sponsors' universal pursuit of sponsorship success, the management decision problem inherent in this paper is thus how Puma and MFF can optimize their current sponsorship portfolio.

Based on the management decision problem, as well as Puma's and MFF's long-standing history, the research problem is derived. MFF's unique position in the league and extensive sponsor network provides tangible value to sponsors and further validates using the case to examine the underlying research question:

> *RQ. How can spectators be differentiated by their attitude towards sponsor and sponsorship when segmented based on their psychological attachment to the property?*

The aim of this paper is to find out what differentiates spectators, segmented based on their psychological attachment to the property, in terms of their attitude towards the property, sponsor, and sponsorship. In a subsequent step, the inter-segment differences in what predicts their attitude towards sponsorship will be analyzed. The study will draw from theories in behavioral economics, consumer psychology, and portfolio management.

Empirical Context

The case of Puma and MFF is particularly interesting, as the Swedish football industry is experiencing a transformation process, which led to tension between determinants of commercial immaturity and pressure for commercialization (Andersson & Carlsson, 2011; Junghagen, 2018a). The development of football has gone through multiple stages, from the foundation, over professionalization, and commercialization to post-commercialization (Beech & Chadwick, 2013). In Sweden, there is a long-standing tradition of member-owned clubs, which used to have amateurism as a guiding ideal (Junghagen, 2018a). In combination with a centralized model of sport, this has led Swedish Football to not yet reach the level of commercialization seen in other leagues (Andersson, Carlsson, & Backman, 2011). However, over the past years, MFF, as one of the leading clubs in Swedish football, has made numerous efforts to take a step further along the way and professionalize its club-sponsor relations. This has caused MFF to achieve a forerunner status not only in the Swedish process of professionalization, in which MFF is fully immersed, (Junghagen, 2018a) but also towards commercialization.

Following Friedman, Parent, & Mason (2004, p. 174), the "identity of the members within an organization's environment is at the core of Stakeholder Theory", the subsequent section will first give a more extensive overview of the environment in which the case study is set, followed by defining the different stakeholders and ultimately examining organization-stakeholder relationships.

Organizational Environment

Allsvenskan, in English the "All-Swedish", is the Swedish professional league for men's association football, founded in 1924. It is the top flight of the Swedish football league system that operates on promotion and relegation with Superettan, the second-highest league in Sweden (Allsvenskan, 2020).

Different associations scope the environment not only for clubs playing in the Allsvenskan but also in lower-tier leagues. Next to the SvFF (Swedish Football Association) and SFSU (Swedish Football Supporters United), the maneuverability for individual clubs is influenced by the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA), as well as the Union of European Football Associations (UEFA). Next to its domestic cup "Svenska Cupen", teams in the Allsvenskan thus have the chance to participate in, amongst others, the UEFA Champions League (CL) and the UEFA Europa League (EL). With a total of four spots for European competitions overall, the Allsvenskan follows in the footsteps of the most renowned European leagues, i.e., the German Bundesliga, the Spanish Primera Division, the English Premier League and the Italian Serie A (Transfermarkt GmbH & Co. KG, 2020). These four qualifying spots ensure, independent of the teams, continuous exposure for the Swedish league on an international level and support its journey towards professionalism.

The increasing presence of the Swedish league on European turf and the international recognition coming with it supports not only the relevance of Swedish football but also simultaneously the interest for companies to enter sponsorship deals with the top clubs in the Swedish league (Junghagen, 2018a).

Malmö FF

"With 20 Swedish Championships, 14 Swedish Club titles and regular participation in [international competitions], MFF has a long, proud and successful history that goes all the way back to its foundation" (Malmö FF, 2019b) .MFF was founded in 1910, with a sole focus on football. Even though the club has introduced several other sport disciplines throughout the years, it is mainly known for football (Junghagen, 2018b). The fact that professionalization of football is a relatively new concept in Sweden compared to other European countries implies that Sweden had a long tradition of amateurism before. In the process of professionalization, MFF was the first club in Sweden to introduce a complete squad of professional players and extensive partner network called 'Nätverket', i.e., "The Network". MFF describes Nätverket as a "football network [that is] a collaboration between [the club] and associations around Skåne." (Malmö FF, n.d.). Originally it consisted of several local companies that joined forces to strengthen the financial platform of MFF to help the club be promoted to Allsvenskan again. Initially, many sponsors joined because of their emotional attachment to the club, and volume (i.e., number of sponsors) was seen as a success factor. Back then, around 114 sponsors were exposed simultaneously

around the stadium. Since then, the sponsor structure of the club has changed drastically, with now only the 16 main and official partners exposed around the stadium.

MFF Supporters and members

Aside from MFF's sponsors, other crucial stakeholders are the club's members and supporters. MFF has a strong fan base in Malmö and a high number of social media followers (Junghagen, 2018b). Following Junghagen (2018a), the two groups, i.e., members and supporters, will be initially treated as one, as the main difference lies in the voting power of members, and members are further assumed to be supporters of the club. "MFF has a deliberate disposition to the different categories of members and supporters, but it is not formalized in an explicit strategy" (Junghagen, 2018b, p. 618). The club has previously lacked in communicating with the active supporters and has failed to fully capture how these supporters are not just mere spectators, but also co-producers of the event (ibid).

In all these categories, one can find members of the club, as well as non-members. Due to the regulatory environment of Swedish football, more specifically the "majority rule", professional clubs need to be owned by at least 51% by their members. This circumstance gives members an ownership status, including the above-mentioned voting rights, on top of the consumer status (Andersson & Carlsson, 2011). However, acknowledging that supporters and members together create MFF's spectator base, previously also referred to as sport consumers, gives a sound foundation for the later conducted case related spectator segmentation.

Sponsor Structure

The structure of member-based clubs protects the interest of club members and ensures the traditions of the club, as well as its anchoring within the member population. While at a later stage, this may be seen as a protection against over-commercialization, it is also seen as one of the main inhibitors in the development from professionalism towards commercialization (Junghagen, 2018a). Moreover, the attractiveness for financially powerful investors can be perceived to be reduced, as influential investors typically look for an asset that comes with a clear and concise decision power to the investment (Masterman, 2007). Hence, MFF has worked on finding other ways to provide concrete value for its sponsors, which contributes to the currently existing sponsor structure.

Compared to other renowned leagues across Europe, such as the Premier League in England with two allowed sponsors, the Swedish league does not have any rules in regard to how many sponsors can be represented on a club's match attire. Currently, MFF has three sponsor logos on their jerseys, which are distributed across the shirt. The concept of limiting the number of sponsors visible on the shirt is a unique phenomenon in Sweden (Malmö FF, 2019b). In contrast to MFF, other teams often have logos from eight to twelve partners scattered across the shirt. However, ever since building the new stadium in 2009 and adapting their sponsorship concept to UEFA standards, MFF follows the direction of "less is more". As a consequence, not only the number of sponsors visible on the shirt has been reduced. MFF has also limited the number of sponsors with exposure in and around the stadium, on the homepage, as well as on social media. This has led to a sponsor concept that now includes 16 companies overall, with six being main partners, and the other ten official sponsors. From the six main partners, Eleda has the naming rights to MFF's home turf "Eleda Stadion", Puma is the official kit supplier, and VW, limitado, and TicTac are shirt sponsors (Malmö FF, 2019b).

Aside from the benefits generated by MFF's success and its commitment to its sponsors, both the main sponsors, as well as MFF's official partners, are further part of the previously introduced "Nätverket". Next to the financial strength that MFF gains through Nätverket, its purpose further is to unite companies with a mind for business and that see sport as a positive community-building force (Malmö FF, n.d.).

Puma Nordic AB

Puma Nordic AB, from now on referred to as Puma, conducts business operations in Sweden and throughout the Nordics, while operating under the Puma SE strategy, which has an overall approach called "glocal". Puma SE has been in the world of sports for 70+ years, aiming at being perceived as "the fastest" sport brand in the world in terms of product innovation, brand associations, or others. Bloomberg (2020) describes Puma's business as "marketing recreational and sport products and apparel, as well as offering shoes and apparel for football, running, track and field, sailing, golf, motorsport, and cricket, as well as eyewear, fragrances, and accessories." Puma also caters to the basketball segment, as well as the lifestyle segment. In its future outlook, the company plans on focusing further on growth, being relevant

for the sport culture, and creating meaningful stories. Further, Puma's goal is to create brand heat through collaborations and partnerships, which also includes sponsoring activities.

The cooperation between Puma and MFF goes back to 1976 when Puma was first taken on board as the kit manufacturer. Since then, the long-standing relationship characterizes the partner's relationship significantly by establishing a high level of trust between the two (Malmö FF, 2019a). It is further enhanced by the geographic proximity of the Puma headquarter in the Nordics in Helsingborg to Malmö. To better understand the relationship and its dynamics, existing theories and frameworks are examined.

Theoretical Framework

To gain deep and thorough theoretical knowledge through secondary data sources, the current research body is analyzed and evaluated for its applicability to answer the underlying research question. The models and theories used in this section stem from the current research body within the field of sport marketing and management and consumer psychology.

The subsequent theoretical analysis of the current research body takes its point of departure in the general nature of sport marketing and the sporting industry, followed by an introduction to the relational paradigm. Further, previously highlighted areas such as sponsorship and sponsor attitudes, segmentation models, congruence theory, as well as portfolio management theories, are discussed and analyzed.

Nature of Sport Marketing

Among scholars, sport is commonly seen as a domain with distinct features and is referred to as a unique phenomenon with a universal appeal (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000). As such, common understanding has formed that traditional marketing approaches need to be re-evaluated when applied to the sporting industry. Nonetheless, the foundation for theoretical insight into sport marketing and management is still found within broader scholarly fields such as, among others, organizational theory, marketing, organizational behavior, and economics (Friedman et al., 2004).

According to Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton (2000), four overarching categories classify the main differences between traditional and sport marketing: sport product, sports market, sport financing, and sports promotion. By classifying sport as a product and acknowledging the intangible, experiential and

subjective nature, Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton (2000) pick up on Pine & Gilmore's (1998) idea of classifying sport marketing as the marketing of experiences. This view is supported by the understanding that sport is unique in its simultaneous production and consumption (Mullin et al., 2014). Hoye and Parent (2017) further bring forth the existence of passion in the form of loyalty and emotions created by the sport consumptive object (SCO). The core of the product sport is, unrelated to the type of sport, the game itself. This leads to a unique situation, where marketers may influence factors associated with the product, whereas the core is beyond their control (Mullin et al., 2000). In the sport market, many organizations simultaneously compete and cooperate. Additionally, product salience and strong levels of personal identification characteristic to the industry lead to an environment in which many sport consumers consider themselves experts within the field.

While participation and connection are used by Pine & Gilmore (1998) to describe the characteristics of experiences, other definitions focus on the aspect of consumption and the cognitive process inherent with experiences. The act of co-creation of experiences is an integral part of sport, where the consumer perceives value through the experience itself, as well as through created memories of such (Poulsson & Kale, 2004). As Junghagen, Besjakov, & Lund (2016) state, "both the psychological process in value creation and subsequent memory, as well as the consumption process revolving around the notion of co-creation, are a key aspect of the attendance of sports events" (p.95). This links to relationship marketing literature, in which commitment is generally being defined as an attachment-based attitudinal construct (Bansal, Irving, & Taylor, 2004; Fullerton, 2003). Here, commitment is further seen as the crucial most desirable stage in the development of an ongoing relationship between two parties (Wetzels, De Ruyter, & Van Birgelen, 1998).

Relationship Marketing

Within sport marketing, sponsorship is usually seen as a tool to strengthen both brand awareness and brand image for the sponsor (Keller, 2003). By creating brand associations, sponsorships are expected to have a positive impact on sponsor brand equity (Jiffer & Roos, 1999). Further, sponsorship is often referred to as a brand image creation strategy (Chien, Cornwell, & Pappu, 2011). Thereby, sponsorship management can be directly linked to the concepts of brand management.

In their work, Louro & Cunha (2001) identify four paradigms, routed in the goal to propose a classification of extant approaches to brand management. These paradigms are identified along two dimensions, namely brand centrality and customer centrality. The first one concerns the focus of activities, with a low score relating to short-term activities and products, and a high score implying a more long-term focus. The latter, i.e., customer centrality, "refers to the perception of to what extent customers take part in the process of value creation" (Junghagen, 2018a, p. 337; Louro & Cunha, 2001).

As the only paradigm scoring high in both brand and customer centrality, the relational paradigm offsets the lack of either one or both dimensions found in the other paradigms. The relational paradigm will, therefore, influence the underlying assumptions in this study, as it also conceptualizes brand management as an ongoing dynamic process. Within this process, Putnam, Phillips, & Chapman (1996) propose that brand value and meaning are co-created through interlocking behaviors, collaboration, and competition between parties, i.e., an organization and its consumers. The relational paradigm further emphasizes the importance of healthy and stable partnerships, as well as strategic brand management, to leverage on value-adding benefits from an organization (Renard & Sitz, 2011), with commitment as the central element. Research has shown that, rather than trust and effective communication, the key determinant of a successful relationship between two parties is indeed commitment (Bühler et al., 2007). The findings of Bühler et al. (2007) are in accordance with Farrelly et al. (2003), who provide evidence that trust in a relationship is dependent on the commitment to the specific relationship and not a determinant for success itself. According to Junghagen et al. (2018a, p. 339), "a successful relationship to a sponsor also depends on the successful management of the relationship with committed supporters" (p. 339). This finds its foundation in a study by Shaw & McDonald (2006), who analyzed the relationship between commitment to a club, i.e. the sponsee, and the orientation towards the brand or company sponsoring the respective club.

In the pursuit of evaluating the different relationships in the industry, Friedman et al. (2004) apply Stakeholder Theory, in order to "understand managerial decision-making by focusing on the groups and individuals (i.e., stakeholders) who can affect or are affected by an organization's actions, in general, and on particular issues as well" (ibid, p. 171). Based on Mahon & Waddock (1992), Stakeholder Theory allows for comprehensive and systematic identification of stakeholders, expectations, and claims of those involved, and recognizes the relevant groups with which an organization must interact effectively in

order to achieve success. Following the theory, stakeholders' different involvements in different matters are related to the extent to which they have a potential benefit or harm to the respective stakeholder. Combining Stakeholder Theory and Relationship Marketing allows for the understanding of the relationships among involved stakeholders and thus explains the actions of these (Friedman et al., 2004).

Attitude towards Sponsorship

Even though sponsorship relationships are often referred to as partnerships, it is essential to emphasize that a sponsorship is also a business relationship. From a sponsor perspective, entering a contract with a property can be a significant investment and thus requires previous evaluations of future return on investment, efficiency, and effectiveness (Masterman, 2007). Hence, one of the key issues relates to identifying factors that influence such sponsorship outcomes (Alexandris, Douka, Bakaloumi, & Tsasousi, 2008; Madrigal, 2001; Meenaghan, 2001). Previous research has focused on factors such as sponsor recall and recognition, purchase intent, as well as the perceived benefits of the sponsorship, to evaluate effectiveness. Hereby, the spectators' attitude towards sponsorship is seen as a primary antecedent (Alexandris et al., 2008; Crompton, 2004; Meenaghan, 2001). Within this context, it is important to distinguish between spectators' attitude towards sponsorship in general and the attitude towards a specific sponsorship. Distinguishing between different levels is crucial, as consumer response may vary (Meenaghan, 2001), and the general attitude towards sponsorship is assumed to have an influence on the attitude towards a particular sponsorship (Lee, Sandler, & Shani, 1997; Shani & Sandler, 1989). In their study, Lee et al. (1997) introduce aspects related to commercialization as a factor in evaluating general attitude towards sponsorship. While the study does not indicate whether these aspects have a positive or negative impact on the attitude, it does, however, find the overall impact to be significant.

Generally, the attitude towards an object is significant in predicting a person’s behavioral intentions and can thereby impact the response to the respective object (Ajzen, 1991). Applying Eagly & Chaiken’s (1993) definition of attitude to the sponsorship context, the attitude towards a sponsorship is seen as the spectators’ psychological tendency to evaluate the sponsor with some degree of favor or disfavor. Keller (2003) extends this assumption with the idea that the attitude towards a sponsorship is built on consumers' overall evaluation of the particular situation. Research within this area treats

consumer response as a strategic and conscious process. In this process, classical conditioning theory, which refers to a learning process that occurs when two stimuli are repeatedly paired, and a response is eventually elicited by one stimulus that used to be elicited by the other (Clark, 2004), emphasizes the cognitive aspect particularly. Within the scope of classical conditioning, there is a considerable amount of research that also examines the importance of consumer attitude towards an advertisement or towards the endorser. Extending this to sponsorships, it can be argued that the consumers' attitude towards a sponsorship plays an essential role in shaping their response to the sponsorship (Levin, Joiner, & Cameron, 2001) and, ultimately, their behavior. In order for a sponsor to elicit the desired behavior within its target consumers and reach its sponsorship outcome, it is therefore elementary to understand the factors that influence the consumers' attitude towards the respective sponsorship (Madrigal, 2001; Meenaghan, 2001).

Spectator Segmentation Models

As Stewart et al. (2003, p. 206) state, “the desire to understand the behavior of sport consumers has been a long-standing goal for sport marketers”. This desire stems, among others, from sport consumers displaying an array of values, attitudes, and behaviors, matching the unique nature of sport marketing. It is crucial to take the complexity of sports crowds into account, as sports, athletes, leagues, and events have, due to globalization, evolved to pass national boundaries, creating a heterogeneous spectator base. From this evolves a need to construct models of effective segmentation of sport consumers. Effective segmentation can, according to Stewart et al. (2003), reveal distinctive preferences and needs, identify sources of loyalty and commitment, and highlight differences in spending patterns of sport consumers. By understanding the different levels of psychological attachment to an object, or more specifically SCO, and the underlying factors causing these levels, one acknowledges the heterogeneity of spectator bases across the sporting industry (Doyle, Kunkel, & Funk, 2013). In turn, this knowledge can be leveraged to explain variances in perceptions and attitudes towards an evaluated property, its sponsors, and, ultimately, the relationship between the two.

Dualistic Segmentation

Segmentation models in sports have evolved from dualistic approaches, over tiered spectator typologies, to multidimensional segmentation approaches. The former involves contrasting one form of behavior with the opposite. Clarke (1978) developed a dualistic typology as a reaction to changes in European football during the 1970s and 1980s and the economic transformation of English football. Taking these changes into account, Clarke (1978) proposes the distinction between two types of fans, namely the genuine fan, who attend games for the sense of community and loyalty to the team, and the other fans, who perceive football to be entertainment. By differentiating between these two groups, importance is placed on seeing football as an experience, supporting Pine & Gilmore (1998). Similar conclusions are drawn by Boyle & Haynes (2000), who proposed a model that distinguishes between traditional fans and modern fans, who either value the game or the experience, respectively.

By actively including emotional attachment as a differentiating factor, Nash (2000) defines two groups as core fans, which are said to have a history with the team they are supporting, and corporate fans, who use the sport to consolidate their social and professional networks. Lastly, Ferrand and Pages (1996) and Quick (2000) segmented fans into irrational and rational fans. Irrational fans are said to have secure emotional connections with a club or a team, thus resonating with Nash's (2000) emotional attachment dimension. Rational fans were, according to the model, more inclined to leverage their club or team for a social or commercial benefit. In these different typologies, the increasing commercialization of the sport world is reflected, often leading to a more instrumental approach taken by the sport consumers (Stewart et al., 2003). Additionally, the latter distinction, rational versus irrational, serves as a baseline to understand how individuals can have different levels of affiliation with a sport, club, or team. Said understanding further initiates the design of more multifaceted models.

Tiered Segmentation

The second type of segmentation approaches concern models where consumers are grouped and ranked by the strength of their emotional or financial commitment to the property. By including spectators' beliefs and behavior, a continuum for multiple levels of attachment, loyalty, and identification is created (Schmid, Kexel, & Djafarova, 2016; Stewart et al., 2003). Common elements in tiered fan typologies

vary in their primary and secondary focus of fans and include tiers that reference emotional connections, levels of excitement and entertainment, and social interactions. Wann & Branscombe (1993) researched North American sport consumers and grouped them based on their relationship intensity with the property. By constructing a sport spectator identification scale, they concluded that sport consumers who were highly involved with sports in general, i.e. had high levels of interaction across various channels, also had higher levels of attachments to a club, team or its players. These individuals linked their favorite team to their self-perception and publicly displayed team loyalty accordingly (ibid).

Opposite to high involvement consumers, Wann & Branscombe (1993) positioned the low identification supporters, characterized by lower levels of involvement and less overall knowledge. By including attachment, identification, and involvement, as well as loyalty, the distinction made by Wann & Branscombe (1993) can be seen as the foundation for the development of a sport fan continuum. Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton (1993) extend the differentiation between high and low identification levels, and claim that sport consumers can be located along a "frequency escalator". Sport consumers can be classified as either low, moderate, or highly committed, with respective levels of game attendance. By including the escalator metaphor, the proposed model assumes some sort of continuum and thus potential movement along different floors. However, the model assumes only one possible direction, namely up, with a simultaneous increase in the consumption of the sport product (Mullin et al., 1993).

Another three-tier model is proposed by Sutton, McDonald, Milne, & Cimperman (1997), which distinguishes between vested fans, focused fans, and social fans. Vested fans are characterized by their strong sense of ownership, high levels of emotional investment, and a greater tendency to define themselves through their club or team. Focused fans have commitment and investment levels that are dependent on the team's success, whereas social fans, while showing low levels of team identification, were strongly attracted to the entertainment value of the game. Lastly, Clowes & Tapp (1999) also developed a model, using the same tiered approach as the previously introduced scholars. Like Kahle, Kambra, & Rose (1996), Clowes & Tapp (1999) assume that sport consumers could be differentiated by looking at loyalty and commitment. These two main factors lead them to the distinction between fanatic, committed casuals, and carefree casuals.

While all these models show slight differences in naming and characterization of single spectator segments, three general sport consumer types emerge that vary in terms of commitment, involvement, and loyalty. The top tier is characterized by highly committed consumers, with a strong emotional connection to the team and a secondary focus on excitement and experience. The second tier is characterized by expressive and focused consumers. In contrast, at the lowest level, consumers focus on social interaction and entertainment with low levels of commitment to the actual team (Stewart et al., 2003). Even though the tiered approach sheds light on different relationships that sport consumers can have with their favorite team, it fails to account for underlying motives, or differences within each tier, and a proposed explanation for how individuals move from one tier to the next.

Multidimensional Segmentation

The limitations that apply to tiered segmentation models can, to some extent, be relieved by including more variables in the model. Multidimensional segmentation approaches add further consumption related dimensions and combine these with different factors, such as factors that give sport meaning, indicators of loyalty, levels of emotional attachment and frequency of game attendance, to produce a diverse portfolio of consumer types (Bodet & Bernache-Assollant, 2012; Funk & James, 2001). One of the earliest models was constructed by Holt (1995), including dimensions centering around experiences of consumers and how they connected to the team, how they went about integrating the club and its personality into their sense of self, how they used their experience with the sport to classify their relationships to the club and projected this to their relationship to the broader community. Lastly, the final dimension centered around the play element in consumption, namely how consumers executed their sport experience alongside fellow consumers.

While some models are static in their segmentation, others provide a more sequential approach to explain how spectators can evolve in their psychological attachment to a property. Hunt (1999) proposes a fivefold segmentation, which is grounded within the field of consumer psychology. In the model, fans develop into different types through a so-called halo process. This process additionally explains how fans can transition from one type or segment to the next. The Halo-Process Theory is routed within the Information Processing Theory. As a model for human thinking and learning, information processing forms part of the cognitive perspectives of learning. Individuals are constantly processing

information about the world and adjusting their behavior accordingly. According to Chaiken (1980), cognitive processing takes place in two systems, labeled system one and system two, or systematic and heuristic, respectively. When processing information systematically, many aspects of a problem are taken into account to form an opinion, make a decision, or elicit a particular type of behavior. On the contrary, when information is processed through the heuristic system, intuition is often applied in the decision-making process.

Gigerenzer & Gaissmaier (2011, p. 454) define heuristics as "mental strategies that ignore information to make decisions faster and more accurately than more complex methods". Individuals can use different heuristics to make adequate decisions, which are determined by ability, motivation, and opportunity, as every decision can be seen as an accuracy-effort trade-off (Gigerenzer & Gaissmaier, 2011). Additionally, information can be processed by applying a summary or a halo construct. While the summary construct uses systematic processing, the halo construct is connected to the heuristic processing system. Generally, this means that when consumers have no prior experience with a product, brand, or else, they use an image, or informative cue, as a proxy. Over time, people build a reservoir of information, called schema, which they associate with the schema target, i.e., the object of the informative cue, summarized by Schema Theory (Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989). In the context of sport, this schema target can be an SCO or even the sponsor. Within this formed schema, as well as throughout the process of accumulating informative cues, different hierarchical levels of information are formed with relation to the target schema.

Ultimately, an individual reaches an overall judgment, using the limited available informative cues as a halo for the entire target schema (Evans, 2007; Josiassen, Assaf, Woo, & Kock, 2016). As the hierarchical levels of a schema are interlinked by definite connection, the primary target of a schema is assumed to extend to other levels as well (Bagozzi, 1996; Barwise & Ehrenberg, 1985). Fisher & Wakefiel (1998) support this connection, by providing evidence that the concept of identification with a target schema at a specific level also leads to identification at other levels. Thus, the halo effect explains how an individual may start to identify with a sport first, and then move on to the team and the player level, or vice versa. Referring back to spectator segmentation, Hunt (1999) concludes that the degree to which the halo effect takes effect depends on the strength of how informative cues are translated into a schema and its ability to transcend to different levels. Based on this sequentiality that is combined with

theories of motivation and elicited behavior, Hunt (1999) proposes a fan segmentation that includes the temporary fan, the local fan, the devoted, fanatical, and dysfunctional fan.

While Hunt (1999) assumes a unidirectional continuum, Funk & James (2001) introduce the Psychological Continuum Model (PCM) and an incremental stage metaphor. The sequential character of the model further, unlike Hunt (1999), introduces the idea of an individual being able to move both ways along the continuum. The PCM acts as a framework that attempts to conceptualize how a spectator can move from initial awareness to attraction, attachment, and, ultimately, allegiance. Thereby, Funk & James (2001) draw from similar models, such as the Hierarchy of Effects Theory (HET). The HET assumes that consumers can be motivated to elicit a particular behavior, i.e., the desired actions, by moving through stages of awareness, interest, and desire (Barry, 1987). Nonetheless, the HET centers around the outcome of a specific desired behavior, whereas the PCM actively focuses on the cognitive and psychological relationship an individual may form with an SCO. The vertical psychological continuum provides a general framework for how a relationship between an individual and an object (SCO) is mediated via a cognitive approach (Funk & James, 2001).

According to Funk & James (2001), the formation of a psychological connection starts with awareness. “Awareness marks the initial introduction to (a sport) (...) and can occur at different points in life” (ibid, p. 126). As levels of awareness rise, the individual moves towards the next stage of attraction, which is built on psychological features, as well as hedonic motives. The latter, specifically, have been subject to an abundance of research, including variables from achievement (Mahony, Madrigal, & Howard, 2000), over entertainment, escape, and experience (Pine & Gilmore, 1998), to stadium factors and a wholesome environment (Trail & James, 2001). Further research on attraction centers around involvement. In the context of the PCM, involvement is seen as a motivational construct that provides a way to differentiate between initial awareness, followed by attraction, attachment, and allegiance (Funk & James, 2001). Related to the level of involvement with an SCO, individuals have different levels of psychological attachment to the respective object.

Once individuals form a stable connection with an SCO, they reach the third level of attachment. Whereas the first two stages, namely awareness and attraction, are considered to be dominated by extrinsic features, attachment in the PCM is conceptualized as the intrinsic importance of the mental

associations linked to the SCO, namely the mental schemas. According to Funk, Mahony, Nakazawa, & Hirakawa (2000), this importance represents the psychological meaning and value attached to an individual's reactions elicited by the SCO. Drawing from consumer psychology theory, in previous stages formed mental images and links now trigger a response from the individual's memory. According to Gladden & Funk (2001), this intrinsic process is an explanation for how individuals attach meaning to external associations and give them psychological significance.

In the last stage, individuals move from attachment to allegiance, where is essential to highlight the importance of allegiance, as it represents a form of loyalty towards an SCO. Seeing allegiance to be a form of loyalty links the PCM back to consumer psychology, especially the concept of brand loyalty. Other scholars extend the concept of brand loyalty and directly put it in context with brand image creation strategies (Chien et al., 2011).

Ultimately, the PCM allows for an understanding of why and how consumer attitudes form and change and provides insight into the conceptual roots of the degree of attitude formation towards an SCO. However, even though the model is perceived as a continuum, the progression along the continuum is deconstructed into four individual stages. Although consumers can be differentiated based on their stage membership, distinction within a stage is not accounted for. In order to achieve a more detailed consumer classification and for the model to be used in empirical research it needs to be operationalized and specified.

Sport Consumption Motives

Underlying the discourse about the PCM is the implicit assumption that the intensity of psychological connections to an SCO at each stage will elicit different behaviors (Funk & James, 2001, 2006) such as the consumption of a sport. Various studies have investigated motivational factors that lead to the consumption of sports, as well as the willingness to invest financial, emotional, and temporal resources in this (James & Ridinger, 2002; Milne & McDonald, 1999; Trail & James, 2001; Wann, 1995). Wann (1995) introduce the preliminary validation of the sport fan motivation scale, including eustress, self-esteem, escape, entertainment, economics, aesthetics, group affiliation, and family needs, which has since been used and evolved by multiple scholars. Wann's (1995) model includes motivations that follow the later introduced distinction by Trail and James (2001) between social and psychological needs. While

motives are essential in understanding the consumption of sports, e.g., by attending a game, Sloan (1989) also indicated that spectators of different sports show different motives that are relevant to their consumption behavior. Based on this, Kim, James, and Kim (Kim et al., 2013) continue to conclude that the varying results may also indicate that different motives lead to different types of consumption patterns.

While Sloan (1989) first made the distinction between spectators and fans, this differentiation becomes essential in explaining why individuals have different motives for sport consumptions, especially in later studies. Trail, Robinson, Dick, & Gillentine (2003) give evidence that fans and spectators have different motives for attending games since fans differ from spectators in the emotional stakes they have in the outcomes. Additionally, fans are psychologically more connected with their team, compared to spectators, who are merely interested in social-situational or hedonic variables (Funk & James, 2001). Robinson, Trail, Dick, & Gillentine (2005) add, by stating that fans are likely to be more attracted by the achievements of their favorite team. Spectators, however, are assumed to be motivated by the opportunity of entertainment or spending time with their friends. According to Kim et al.'s (2013), examination of the results from multiple studies on sport consumption motives, it is evident that there is a high correlation among items across factors, which ultimately form different motives. In a previous study, Trail et al. (2003) classified these motives into three overarching groups, namely overarching motives (i.e., escape and social), spectator motives (i.e., skill, aesthetic, and drama) and vicarious achievement, simultaneously including the distinction between spectator and fan. This threefold distinction finds further support in the previously introduced PCM by Funk & James (2001). Alternatively, James & Ross (2004) propose a categorization of motives into three categories, which are sport-related motives (i.e., entertainment, skill, drama, and team effort), self-definition (i.e., achievement, empathy, and team affiliation), and personal benefits (i.e., social interaction and family). Looking at these different distinctions, one can derive the conclusion that there are likely to be motives, which are more relevant to spectators and others, which are more relevant to fans (Kim et al., 2013).

Ultimately, Kim et al. (2013) propose a threefold distinction that combines the definition of each sport consumption motive, where similar objects of a motive are classified into a motive construct (James & Ross, 2004), and lastly the distinction between fans and spectators (Sloan, 1989; Trail et al., 2003). They differentiate hedonic motives, psychological connection motives, and social influence motives.

Hedonic motives are defined as “pleasure-based drive factors concerned with hedonic fulfillment” (Kim et al., 2013, p. 176). Psychological connection motives represent “a person’s desire for social prestige, self-esteem, and sense of empowerment through affiliation with a sports team” (Funk & James, 2006, p. 203), such as achievement, team effort, and team affiliation. Lastly, social influence motives are the factors “which drive individuals to act or think in certain ways due to encouragement or pressure from peers or family members” (Kim et al., 2013, p. 176), such as peer or family pressure.

As previously introduced with the relational paradigm and further addressed in the PCM, the construct of commitment is essential when analyzing spectators. Measuring different levels of commitment can further enable researchers to distinguish between different levels of psychological connection within each stage of the PCM and define a more distinctive spectator segmentation. Following Kim et al. (2013), this paper will not consider commitment to be a unidimensional construct but adopt a multidimensional perspective that is assumed to “yield more detailed and relevant information regarding a consumer’s commitment in predicting specific behaviors” (ibid, p. 173). Further, commitment and motivation will be treated as distinct concepts (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004). Previous to Kim et al.'s (2013) model of the relationship between commitment, underlying sport consumer motives, and resulting behavioral intentions, there have been few attempts to bridge the gap between the domains of motivation and commitment.

The conceptualization of commitment across disciplines such as psychology and organizational behavior is multifaceted. A threefold split can be derived that divides commitment into continuance, affective and normative commitment. By not treating commitment as unitary, spectators with the same overall levels of commitment can be distinguished based on the origin of their commitment. Each dimension of commitment represents different underlying psychological states that are directly related to an individual's relationship with the target of interest, here the SCO (Bansal et al., 2004). By examining the relationship between sport consumer motives and a three-dimensional model of commitment, Kim et al. (2013) are the first to link a multidimensional approach to commitment with motivation.

Following Funk, Mahony, & Ridinger (2002), affective commitment can be seen to be directly related to hedonic motives, like excitement, drama, and aesthetics. As Funk & James (2006) explain, hedonic motives arouse pleasure-based interests that serve to initiate interest in the targeted SCO.

Further, hedonic motives reflect sport consumers' desires for an experience (e.g., a game), which also includes elements of aesthetics, drama, and escape. Hereby, emotional attachment serves as a catalyst and motivates people to connect with an SCO. Because hedonic motives are positively related to affective commitment, the relationship between the two can be defined as emotional (Kim et al., 2013). As an example, supporting a local team may satisfy a consumer's psychological need for pleasure, enjoyment, or delight (ibid).

Alternatively, sport consumers may identify with an SCO as they attempt to either maintain or enhance a positive social identity by affiliating themselves with the SCO (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Fisher & Wakefield, 1998). This links back to Self-Determination Theory and Social Identity Theory (Chen, Chen, & Shaw, 2004; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Tajfel & Turner, 1986), according to which an individual is motivated to consumption behavior, here attending a sport, due to the desire for enhancement of self-definition. From the perspective of Bansal et al. (2004), sport consumers create a psychological connection with a team that is elicited by their desire to affiliate, experience achievement, or empathize with a sports team. According to scholars who researched the phenomenon of Basking In Reflected Glory, sport consumers with a psychological connection to a team seek to associate with a team to enhance their esteem and prestige (James & Ridinger, 2002; Sloan, 1989). When previously mentioned motives such as achievement, team effort, and team affiliation increase in importance, sport consumers may perceive a feeling of being "locked-in" to the targeted SCO. As a result, psychological connection motives are assumed to relate strongly to continuance commitment, simultaneously reflecting self-interest in a team (Kim et al., 2013).

Lastly, normative commitment "develops as a function of cultural and organizational socialization and the receipt of benefits that activate a need to reciprocate'' (Meyer et al., 2004, p. 994). Past scholars have suggested that sport consumers attend games because they want to spend time with their friends or family (James & Ross, 2004; Trail & James, 2001). Research in the area of psychology and sociology has looked at such social influence motives and how behavior among friends or family members are related (Kim et al., 2013).

Perception of Property

Models of spectator segmentation, especially the PCM, and research of sport consumptive motives, indicate that the intensity of psychological connections with an SCO, as well as the underlying consumption motives, also influence the consumer's perception of the property. The highest level of psychological connection is, across models, loyalty. Day (1976) states that true loyalty only exists when there is a commitment to a brand or product. Jacoby & Chestnut (1978) further add that the commitment construct provided a crucial foundation in order to be able to distinguish between brand loyalty and other forms of repeat consumption behavior. While Hunt et al. (1999) refer to loyalty in the sport consumer context as “fanatical”, or “dysfunctional”, they still refer to the same loyalty that Funk & James (2001) consider to be “allegiance”. What all the different references to loyalty have in common is the assumption of a high level of psychological commitment, which, according to Crosby & Taylor (1983), leads people to “resist changing their preference in response to conflicting information or experience” (p. 414).

Additionally, Pritchard, Havitz, & Howard (1999) operationalize psychological commitment and provide evidence that highly committed people resist changing their preferences based on the desire to maintain cognitive consistency. This desire for consistency between an individual's beliefs and feelings towards an object then produces a stable behavioral intention towards that object (Rosenberg, 1965). In the context of sport, this means that the stronger the psychological commitment, the less likely the spectator changes his or her perception of the SCO.

According to Ko & Kim (2014), commitment is not the only factor to influence a consumer's perception of a property, i.e., the property. Speed & Thompson (2000) consider trust, prestige, and service quality to be relevant variables. Like commitment, the importance of trust as a variable stems from the marketing literature, in which trust has been defined as essential in establishing a successful relationship between partners (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). More specifically, trust has been defined as “one party [having] confidence in the exchange partner's reliability and integrity” (Morgan & Hunt, 1994, p. 23). Studies have shown that trust in a relationship develops when consumers believe that their needs will be satisfied by the actions undertaken by the property, which ultimately positively influences their perception of the property (ibid).

Lastly, prestige refers to consumers' perceptions of reputation and respect of the property. These perceptions are grounded within the level of exposure of an individual to direct and indirect experiences and information about the property (Ko & Kim, 2014). Aside from direct personal exposure to information and experiences, consumers' perceptions of prestige can further be influenced by word of mouth or the opinions of a reference group. The latter directly links back to sport consumption motives, such as social interaction. Moreover, if an individual is extensively committed to a property, the property itself can become the individual's reference group (Hunt, 1999).

Perception of Sponsor

Not only do different types of consumers have different perceptions of the property, but they also differ in the perceptions of sponsors. Ko & Kim (2014) introduce three variables that cause varying levels of sponsor perceptions, which are market prominence, ubiquity, and sincerity. Following Pham & Johar (2001, p. 124), market prominence can be defined as "variations in market prominence (reputation) of potential sponsors as a source of information when inferring the identity of event sponsors". Further, underlying factors such as brand awareness, market share, and visibility shape a consumer's perception of the market prominence of a sponsor. Putting this in the overall context of sponsorship, there is a higher chance that consumers identify a prominent sponsor or brand (Pham & Johar, 2001).

The second variable, ubiquity, encapsulates the different perceptions of consumers of frequency and selectivity of a company's sponsorship involvement (Ko & Kim, 2014). While ubiquity is generally perceived to be a critical component when determining the perception of sponsors, the findings of Speed & Thompson (2000) on the direction of the variable were not conclusive. Overall, the literature shows plausible explanations for both. On the one side, Speed & Thompson (2000) argue that companies that engage in a multitude of sponsorships simultaneously will only trigger a low response in consumers. They hypothesize that perceived ubiquity of the sponsor is negatively associated with the level of sport sponsorship response. On the other side, Shimp (2013) argues that ubiquity may demonstrate the success and financial soundness of a sponsor, which can then be translated into a positive image of the respective sponsor.

Lastly, Speed & Thompson (2000) provide evidence that a perceived sincere sponsor has a higher likelihood to elicit more positive consumer responses in terms of interest and willingness to consider the

sponsor's brand. Additionally, various scholars have shown that consumers develop positive attitudes and increased purchase intention if sponsors are perceived to have a philanthropic motivation rather than being motivated by purely commercial considerations (Rifon, Choi, Trimble, & Li, 2004; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006).

Overall, consumers' perception of the property, combined with the perception of the property's sponsor, influences the overall perception of the sponsorship. However, both studies only include a limited set of variables to measure both. As introduced previously, the perception of property and sponsor is further influenced by the level of psychological commitment to the respective property, as well as underlying consumption motivations.

Congruence

The concept of congruence and the congruity effect introduced by Sirgy (1982), have long been discussed within the area of corporate brand communication and advertising (Deitz, Myers, & Stafford, 2012), especially for research and practical insights within endorsements (Fleck & Quester, 2007). Reflecting upon spectator segmentation in relation to the perception of sponsorships, one does not come around the notion of sponsorship success, which is heavily dependent on the property choice within the sponsoring partnership (Coelho, de Amorim, & de Almeida, 2019).

However, as the sponsee, or property, is researched to have a mediating effect on sponsor - stakeholder relations (Junghagen, 2018a), the relationship cannot only be looked at in a dyadic manner but as interrelated relationships between sponsor, property, and spectator, as previously introduced with Stakeholder Theory (Friedman et al., 2004). The fit between all entities involved plays a vital role in the overall success of the sponsoring partnership and should, therefore, be analyzed separately (Pentecost & Spence, 2004). The extent to which the spectator identifies himself with the property, or team, and therefore expresses the level of engagement, affiliation, and motivation is captured by spectator segmentation. Thus, the level of congruence between sponsor and property and congruence between spectator and sponsor is investigated in further detail in the following section, as research has shown that the congruence effect has a significant impact on promotion effectiveness and consumer's affection towards brands (Gonzalez-Jimenez, Fastoso, & Fukukawa, 2019). Most sport sponsorship congruence research is focused on sporting events (Deitz et al., 2012; Fleck & Quester, 2007; Pentecost & Spence,

2004; Speed & Thompson, 2000), while the underlying research focuses on longer-term sponsorship partnerships. Additionally, it is essential to point out the different scopes of sponsorships that are executed on the individual athlete level, team, or club level or league level (Hoye & Parent, 2017). However, while research from a variety of sport sponsorship partnerships often overlaps and complements each other, the applicability of bespoken theories to the presented team and club-level sponsorship is analyzed.

First, the property fit is examined in current research, and relevant trends and research areas are evaluated. Second, the spectator's self-congruity with the sponsoring organization is analyzed through different viewpoints, including Sirgy's (1982) original notion of the self-congruity effect as well as through lenses including the Associative Network Theory (Drengner, Jahn, & Zanger, 2011) and Social Identity Theory (Carlson & Donavan, 2017; Coelho et al., 2019).

Property Fit

While there are several dimensions on which sponsorship success can be evaluated, property fit is found to be one of the main determinants for success in a sponsoring partnership, especially within sports, simultaneously with the concept of exposure (Chien et al., 2011; Coelho et al., 2019; Deitz et al., 2012). Being presented with nontraditional marketing techniques gaining in effectiveness and relevance over the years, corporate sponsorship turned into "a tool of the greatest prominence and participation" (Coelho et al., 2019, p. 5), which offers features of brand attributes transfers, image spillovers and further associations with the sponsor (Farrelly, Quester, & Burton, 2006). Many scholars proclaim brand associations as an indicator for sponsorship effectiveness, and while not being treated as an exclusive measure in the underlying project, it will likewise serve as a factor to indicate such (Pham & Johar, 2001; Quester & Thompson, 2001).

As presented by Fleck & Quester (2007), congruence can be referred to in a variety of terms that have associations to various vague concepts within marketing, advertising, brand management, and specifically relevant for this research, sponsorship. In early brand research, the term "fit" is used interchangeably for congruence that mainly appears in research related to brand extension and co-branding (Fleck & Quester, 2007; Lane, 2000). Pentecost & Spence (2004) argue to differentiate between first-order and second-order effects of fit between sponsor and sponsee. While many scholars analyze fit

constructs on a functional basis, Deitz et al. (2012) argue for the possibility to derive consumer judgments on fit on a variety of bases. Pentecost & Spence (2004) analyze fit perceptions between partners in terms of six dimensions, referring to targeting, image, geography, typicality, clash, and complementarity. Grouped into consumer-, sponsor- and sponsee focused, it is argued that fit between all stakeholders needs to be considered (Deitz et al., 2012).

Furthermore, rather than examining fit as a unitary construct, the concept should be analyzed on the basis of the strength of mental associations, subsequently introduced, as adopted in several previous studies (Deitz et al., 2012; Speed & Thompson, 2000). This understanding of congruence and fit is adopted in the underlying research, however, adapted to the sense that it is analyzed in terms of property fit and self-congruence. Jagre, Watson, & Watson (2001) understand fit as consistency to prior expectations and schemas, referring to Schema and Associative Network Theory (Coelho et al., 2019; Drengner et al., 2011). In their study on consumer responses to sponsorship information, Deitz et al. (2012) link Schema Theory with Attribution Theory and Social Identification. While the latter is conceptually elaborated in the following section, the former two can be related to studies by Meenaghan (2001), Myers-Levy, & Tybout (1989) and Speed & Thompson (2000). Following the above-mentioned Schema Theory, there is a relationship between information stored in memory and the degree to which these are similar, of the same schema. For example, a football shoe manufacturer sponsoring an elite football team is simpler to be remembered by spectators and consumers as in comparison to a more unrelated, less similar sponsor (Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989). Further, Attribution Theory describes the phenomenon of individuals, or in the underlying research context spectators and consumers, that enact in causal analysis of events that correspondingly affect the attitudes and behaviors of that individual. This process of attribution has been researched in contexts of product purchases and celebrity endorsements, where the latter is related explicitly to (corporate) sponsorship settings (Deitz et al., 2012). The spectator will make causal inferences based on trying to obtain a logical explanation of why specific actions, e.g., a sponsor contributing resources or money, occur (Kelley, 1973). A subsequent phenomenon, the Discounting Principle, elaborates consumers' reactions to endorsements and sponsorships. When the consumer perceives corporate self-interest, the purely economic motives are attributed to the sponsor, which discounts the relation between sponsorship partners. Dean (2002) links Equity Theory by Adams (1963) to Attribution Theory by stating that “perceived inequity may lead the

consumer to attribute some hidden objective to the firm's motivation for sponsorship" (p.80). However, attributions are not negative in every case. The process of attributing motives to sponsors could likewise result in favorable held attitudes by attributing altruistic motives (Dean, 2002). Consequently, both Attribution Theory and Schema Theory show the importance of congruence on sponsorship response between spectators and a sponsor's schema and the type of motive that is attributed to the sponsorship.

Similarly, in the study on sponsoring activities of the bank of Ireland with respect to congruency and formed associations and attributions, Meenaghan (2001) found that the level of knowledge about the partnership between sponsor and property determines the perception of congruence between both. This, in turn, is related to the extent to which consumers or spectators perceive a logical connection between the partners and are able to make associations and attribution. Drengner et al. (2011) posit the relevance of congruence being based on and explainable by Schema and Associative Network Theory by emphasizing that weaker links are formed for incongruent relationships and superior memory for congruent partnerships.

Becker-Olsen & Hill (2006) research the effect of fit on brand equity in the context of nonprofit service providers and conclude, in accordance with Speed & Thompson's (2000) findings, that not all sponsorships exert the same effect in terms of benefits. High-fit sponsorships tend to build brand identity through brand reinforcement and associations, which is to connect to brand recall and Attribution theory. Low-fit sponsorships, on the other hand, tend to evoke dilution in brand meaning and integrity, however not in terms of associations related to functional performance and brand expertise. These findings confirm previous research stating that high congruence between sponsoring partners have significant positive effects on brand image and identity and create spillovers between both partners in terms of intangible cues that concentrate on trust, sincerity, brand meaning and brand associations that ultimately affect the consumers' willingness to pay. However, it has less effect on trustworthiness in terms of functional performance and expertise, i.e., credibility.

For both presented theories, (perceived) fit plays a vital role, as it evokes positive or negative attributions leading to more intensified sponsorship response and success as well as does perceived fit strengthen brand recall in memory as elaborated in Schema Theory (Dean, 2002). Deitz et al. (2012) analyzed the concept of fit by measuring individual perceptions of sponsor-event fit, rather than viewing

it as a condition as it has been in previous research. Additionally, the role of Social Identification is put into context, which is further elaborated in the next section.

Becker-Olsen & Simmons (2002) distinguish fit on dimensions of native fit, which describes the degree to which sponsor and property are deemed to be congruent without any communication to the consumer, and created fit, where perceived fit is implicated through communication efforts. The former could also be understood as functional fit measuring the category fit or, in other words, the extent to which the brand could be used for or by the sponsored property. Consequently, it is proposed that the absence of functional fit requires the consumer or spectator more cognitive effort to identify a common basis between sponsor and sponsee (Deitz et al., 2012).

In similar ways, as it is proposed to measure fit on more bases than functional fit, as previously elaborated, national fit could be argued to influence sponsorship response. Within the international context of sport sponsorships, it is proposed that, among others, nationality poses one attribute that is included in the brand image transfer inherent in the relationship between sponsor and property (Martin & Eroglu, 1993). Misra & Beatty (1990) researched that congruent image attributes favorably impact sponsorship success. It could, therefore, be concluded that national congruence, or fit, is one predictor in determining the spectators' attitude towards a specific sponsorship.

Lastly, Speed & Thompson (2000) define fit or congruence as the attitude towards the combination of sponsor and property and the degree to which it is perceived to go well together. The higher the perceived fit between sponsor and property, the greater the positive influence on consumers' attitudes towards the partnerships that improve sponsorship effectiveness and translates into purchase intentions. These findings are supported by Rodgers (2003), extending the theory with the notion of enhanced sponsor recall as well as by Deitz et al. (2012) study emphasizing the importance of perceived fit for sponsorship response, referring back to previously identified congruence-based explanations relating to other marketing tools.

In order to achieve a high fit between two sponsorship partners to reap advantages resulting from high congruence within the partnership and success, sponsor identification and choice of property are critical determinants (Carlson & Donavan, 2017). Johar & Pham (1999) found that prominent and semantically related brands bias sponsor identification, as respective respondents engage in heuristics to

evaluate their perception of relatedness and fit. Additionally, it was found that the effects of relatedness weigh higher for sponsor identification in comparison to prominence, reinforcing the before stated argument of the importance of high congruence and perceived fit between sponsorship partners for sponsorship success. Carlson & Donavan (2017) identify credibility and Social Identification as a critical determinant for a successful choice of property, where the latter refers to the sponsor already maintaining their original brand image and identity that is to be recognized by spectators and consumers. Here, contrasting the research of Johar & Pham (1999), the discussion revolves around Social Identification being more important than perceived fit between sponsorship partners, as there are also cases where fit is low, however, the partnership returns as a success, i.e., a FastFood brand with athlete endorsements. However, the majority of the here presented research, and beyond, argue for high perceived fit in sponsorship relations, mostly researched in brand-event settings, for successful results. Perceived Fit, as part of the overall congruence construct in the underlying research model, is therefore proposed to impact sponsorship perceptions.

Self-congruence

Turning to the second part of congruence as presented in this study, self-congruence and the self-congruity effect should be looked at from the starting point in Sirgy's (1982) research on self-concept theories in consumer behavior. The proposed self-image and Product-Image Theory describe how product cues activate one's self-schema, similar to the previously described Schema Theory. Depending on the evoked self-schema, either a positive or negative value will be placed on the product from which the cues are perceived, resulting in a matrix of positive or negative product-image perceptions versus self-(in)congruity. These different states of congruity affect the consumers' perception towards the product and brand in various ways and therefore purchase motivation.

Further, Aguirre-Rodriguez, Bosnjak, & Sirgy (2012) research different moderators on consumer's self-congruity effect, while distinguishing between different self-motive types that describe self-concept facets, reflecting the moderator of self-motive socialness, i.e., consistency-type motives, and the extent of self-enhancement sought. Their hypothesis, proposing that "the degree of self-enhancement sought moderates the self-congruity effect, producing stronger effects under enhancement-type self-motives than consistency-type self-motives" (Aguirre-Rodriguez et al., 2012, p. 1180), found statistical

support, suggesting that brand's advertising should focus on value-expressive attributes to target and enhance consumer's self-concepts. To some extent, it opposes Pritchard et al. 's (1999) and Rosenberg's (1965) findings that a stronger desire for consistency, and therefore psychological commitment, leads to a less likely change in the perception of the SCO. However, the perception of the SCO (or property) and the degree of self-congruence to the property need to be distinguished. One could argue that the difference lies in the external versus internal point of view, in which, through self-congruence, the spectator sees himself involved in the "question" of perception.

To assess the concept of self-congruity within the underlying research subject, brand attitude and loyalty are other theoretical aspects that are important to look at. Sirgy, Lee, Johar, & Tidwell (2008), researched how self-congruity with sponsorship affects brand loyalty. They state that customer involvement, as well as awareness, moderates the positive influence of self-congruity with sponsored events on brand loyalty. Under the assumption that the research has been conducted in a setting that can be compared to sponsorship events, the applicability to the proposed research model is to be evaluated.

Social Identity Theory describes the process of individuals perceiving an overlap between one's self-schema and the schema of the brand or endorser. Within sport management and sponsorship research, positive relationships have been found between consumer's identification and purchasing intentions (Carlson & Donavan, 2017). This relates to the previously mentioned research by Filo et al. (2010), providing ground to assume that people with a greater sense of identification, attachment, or gratitude towards an event or a sponsor have a higher likelihood to support the sponsor and a higher likelihood of purchase. Ultimately, this will generate higher sales, which is one way to measure sponsorship success.

Additionally, next to the studies above and research on the importance of (perceived) fit between sponsor and property, diverse brands have managed to accomplish successful endorsements where fit was low, e.g., Cristiano Ronaldo and Kentucky Fried Chicken. The researchers Carlson & Donavan (2017) suggest that two factors influence the success between sponsorship partners, specifically within individual endorsements, namely that fit is being measured on multiple dimensions as well as that, in the case of individual athlete sponsorships, endorser identification is more influential than fit. Here, identification refers to the previously elaborated Schema Theory (ibid), the overlap between the

spectator's or consumer's self-schema, and the endorser's schema, i.e., the property. It is found that bespoken endorser identification has a positive effect on the psychological sense of brand community, a part of Social Identity Theory describing self-categorization into groups and thereby serving to define one's role (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

Referring to MFF, this phenomenon can be best described by spectators identifying themselves with MFF Fans leading to a sense of community among and with other MFF Fans. This finding by Carlson & Donavan (2017) supports the understanding of cultural meaning transfer often related to sport athlete endorsements. More specifically, the researchers conclude that "the effectiveness of an athlete endorser appears to be influenced by a perceived connection among consumers who support the athlete's team" (p.187). This implies that the strength of the bond between supporters of the same team has an effect within the proposed model. It is in the researchers' opinion that the level of loyalty towards the team is included in the analysis and elaboration of the PCM. Nevertheless, it affects the choice of property relating to congruence by supporting managers' decisions of seeking endorsements with athletes and teams that are associated with specific consumer segments.

Following the discussion on the four facets of the individual self when discussing congruence, as well as the cultural effect on congruence, Gonzalez-Jimenez et al. (2019), are analyzing the universal applicability of the (self-)congruence effect. Here, the four self-construals are chosen to represent the personal cultural variable, where independence and interdependence reflect the orthogonal dimensions to these individual levels. While the former has a focus on individual advancement, the latter represents stability and consistency in social relations. Empirical evidence is found to support self-congruence effects for the actual rather than ideal self, suggesting global advertisers to engage in campaigns reflecting the "average" rather than the desired consumer. However, it opposes the research above by Aguirre-Rodriguez et al. (2012), who declare to engage in value-expressing advertisement in order to cater to self-enhancement motives. The results by Gonzalez-Jimenez et al. (2019) can be transferred to sports management in the sense of engaging with sponsorship partners where the spectator can self-identify very well with the sponsor, seeing him or herself congruent with the perceived brand image. Here, the study by Davies, Veloutsou, & Costa (2006) can be seen as complementary, as it investigates the role of team rivalry in relation to spectator attitudes and brand preferences, which can be linked to brand image. The authors indicate that higher committed spectators respond less favorably in terms of brand preference

when presented with the rivaling sponsorship in comparison to less committed spectators who consider the situation more rationally. This could be explained by Schema Theory, where the highly committed spectator's self-schema could be perceived to fit less to the brand's schema after gaining knowledge about a sponsorship with a rivalry team, as opposed to before.

Summarizing, it can be seen that self-congruence with the sponsor posits an important construct in sport management and specifically within consumer - sponsored events relations. It is, therefore, part of the proposed model and assumed to have similar effects on longer-term sponsorship relations as it is with the underlying case study of Puma and MFF.

Several scholars have discussed the role of congruency on the effect of sponsorship perception and attitude towards sponsorship (Deitz et al., 2012; Ko & Kim, 2014; Speed & Thompson, 2000). As previously introduced, the proposed research model finds its inspiration and adaption on Ko and Kim's model, stating that sponsor-property congruence posits a mediating factor between the perception of sponsorship and the attitude towards the sponsorship. However, based on the provided analysis of current research and theories for which support has been found, it is proposed that congruence has a direct effect on the attitude of sponsorship. It is the objective proposition of the researchers that congruence, even in weaker forms through, for example, low perceived fit or weak self-identification with the sponsor, influences the spectators' attitude of the sponsorship on different dimensions. In addition, research by Deitz et al. (2012) suggests that Social Identification Theory impacts perceived fit in the sense that “highly identified individuals are more likely to attribute favorable motives to the sponsoring firm, resulting in stronger fit perceptions” (p. 236), supporting the here proposed construct of congruence including perceived fit between sponsor and property as well as self-identification from spectator to sponsor. This study adopts the view of Speed & Thompson (2000), where sponsorship factors, such as the sponsor-event fit, here referred to as perceived fit between sponsor and property, impact the sponsorship response. This proposition is modified due to the aforementioned analyses about the impact of perceived fit and congruence theory on the attitude towards sponsorship.

Sponsorship Exposure

So far, the concept of exposure has been treated as unitary, being a necessary, sometimes even sufficient, condition to evaluate sponsorship effectiveness (Levin et al., 2001). However, in order to accurately

evaluate the influence of sponsorship exposure, it is crucial to acknowledge the different facets that can affect how exposure impacts effectiveness.

Various scholars who have researched within the area of social cognition and cognitive psychology have found evidence that accessible objects in memory are essential for information processing, which has been examined in detail in the discussion on spectator segmentation models as well as congruence theory. Accessibility, in this case, refers to the likelihood that specific information will be used by an individual (Bargh & Pratto, 1986), with more accessible information being more important than less accessible information. According to Higgins, King, & Mavin (1982), the accessibility of an object is affected by the recency and frequency of the object's use. The higher the frequency of use, the more often the respective object is activated in the individual's memory, and the more accessible it becomes (Levin et al., 2001).

In the context of sponsorship, this means that the more often an individual is exposed to a sponsorship, the more accessible the sponsorship stimuli become (Biscaia, Correia, Ross, & Rosado, 2014). Using primary brand associations as an example, the following can be concluded: the more often an individual is exposed to the brand's logo or name, independent of the context, the more accessible the sponsorship, as well as the sponsor brand, become. Yang, Sparks, & Li (2008) provide support with their findings that seeing a sponsor's name associated with a property regularly (such as over multiple games within a football season), reinforces the impression of the relationship in the consumer's mind. This is in line with Walliser (2003), stating that repeated exposure to a sponsorship increases the salience for a given brand in the consumer's mind. Increasing accessibility, as well as salience, are further assumed to enhance the individual's ability to correctly recall and recognize the sponsor in situations without exposure (Biscaia et al., 2014; Levin et al., 2001).

Pham (1992) adds to the construct of exposure, by providing evidence that the effect of exposure to sponsorship stimuli further depends on the proximity of the respective stimuli to the center of involvement of the individual. For example, adapting Pham's (1992) findings to today's football environment, highly involved fans may disregard screens around the stadium during games, as they are more focused on what is happening on the field, which reflects the exposure based model of assessment of sponsorship effectiveness (Hermanns, Drees, & Wangen, 1986). Here, exposure functions as both a

necessary and sufficient condition to evaluate sponsorship success, however, it is sufficient only in low involvement situations. In these situations, the so-called mere exposure effects are relevant and can lead to a higher evaluation of the sponsorship and, thus, a better attitude. Research has shown that in cases where involvement exceeds initial levels, exposure is necessary, but not sufficient to elicit a response to a sponsorship (Levin et al., 2001). Stuart, Shimp, & Engle (1987) investigate the role of pre-exposure, which, in the context of sponsorship, implies that the level of prior knowledge about the sponsor and sponsorship influences the response to the sponsorship (Speed & Thompson, 2000). Later, research resumes on knowledge as an influencing factor and provides evidence that highly knowledgeable consumers are more likely to seek out information about the sponsors actively. Consumers who are more knowledgeable about the property will process more information about the sponsorship than those consumers with lower levels of knowledge (Biscaia et al., 2014; Cornwell et al., 2005). This is in line with Consumption Capital Theory, stating that the utility consumers derive from a particular good or service, here equal to the sponsorship of the property, increases with prior consumption, comparable to exposure (Stigler & Becker, 1977). With this, parallels can be drawn to the consumption of sport as a product, with the game itself at its core (Mullin et al., 2014).

Ultimately, research shows that in high involvement situations, the consumer's ability to identify a sponsor, caused by more accessible information, increases as a function of exposure duration (Walliser, 2003) and frequency. Combining the Theory of Cognitive Dissonance, which proposes that people strive for internal psychological consistency (Festinger, 1962) with Information Processing Theory (Daniels, 2009), it can be assumed that if the accessible information fits the consumer's overall mental schemas, these schemas are reinforced by the exposure to the sponsorship (Deitz et al., 2012). Additionally, it can be assumed that the sponsorship can strengthen mental schemas that refer to aspects such as the perceived fit between property and sponsor and influence the overall attitude towards the sponsorship per se. If, however, the exposure to the sponsorship activates incongruent mental schemas, the new information is likely to be disregarded in the consumer's striving towards avoiding cognitive dissonance, which would negatively impact the effectiveness of the sponsorship.

Sponsorship Portfolio

Sponsorships in the sporting industry have succeeded as a brand-building tool over the last years and decades and have even been referred to as brand image creation strategies. As mentioned before, sponsorships rarely occur in one sponsor-sponsee dyad (Chanavat, Desbordes, & Dickson, 2016), and the use of single sponsorship strategies has become increasingly rare. Complex portfolios with multiple sponsorship properties have started to become more ubiquitous (Chien et al., 2011).

According to Modern Portfolio Theory, first introduced by Markowitz (2015), assets in a portfolio should not be selected individually. Rather than assessing each asset on its own, they should be looked at by how each asset contributes to the overall portfolio dynamics. Even though the Modern Portfolio Theory was developed in an economic context, its basic principles of evaluating interactions and interdependencies between different assets still apply across different industries. According to Chanavat et al. (2016), not only the dyadic sponsor-sponsee relationships are essential, but also the relationships between different sponsors and thereby the effects of the main sponsor having relationships with more than one sponsee. Therefore, the investigation of a sponsorship portfolio examines the interdependencies between different sponsorship properties of a given brand (Markowitz, 2015; Terho, 2008).

With the heterogeneous composition of sponsorship portfolios, each addition of a new asset to the brand's existing portfolio, here, the addition of a new sponsorship property, is assumed to affect the consumers' knowledge network (Cornwell, 2008). Similar to how a product can share, for example, the image of an endorsing celebrity, meanings held by other types of properties, such as a team or club, are transferable to a brand through sponsorship (Cornwell & Coote, 2005; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999). According to Chien et al. (2010), a brand's sponsorship portfolio "includes properties that are distinctive in image, sometimes even seemingly incompatible" (p. 142). Nonetheless, the fit between a brand's sponsorship properties, has been proven to influence the consumers' processing of the portfolio, as well as their evaluations of the sponsor's brand image. Further, Lei, de Ruyter, & Wetzels (2008) and Mao & Krishnan (2006) provide evidence that consumer evaluations of brand extensions depend on the degree of relatedness between different brand entities within a portfolio. Within the area of brand management, research has shown that the introduction of a brand extension can create a feedback effect on the parent brand, as well as existing products. Following this assumption, Chien et al. (2010) investigate how similar

effects can occur in the case of new sponsorship introductions to an existing portfolio. In their study, they draw on the concepts of brand meaning and brand personality as indicators for brand image. These two measures gain importance, as brand personality allows for differentiation and competitive positioning (Aaker, 1997), consumers select brands with meanings congruent with an aspect of self-concept, self-image congruity has a positive influence on brand loyalty (Sirgy et al., 2008), and consistency and clarity in communication allow people to know what to expect from a brand (Keller, 1993).

In order to assess the consumer processing of a sponsorship portfolio, Chien et al. (2010) apply the previously introduced Associative Network Memory Theory. In this context, a sponsor brand's network of nodes consists of multiple concepts associated with each property in the portfolio. These thematically grouped organizations in memory allow for connections between different schemas if these share common structures. This connection even applies when the context of the two schemas is unrelated (Seifert, McKoon, Abelson, & Ratcliff, 1986). Chien et al. (2010) argue that sponsored properties in a portfolio share the sponsor brand. The properties can be further connected in memory through the sponsor's strategy by highlighting common underlying features, such as sportsmanship or camaraderie. Once a new property is added to a brand's sponsorship portfolio, corresponding concepts in memory that tie to the sponsor are likely to be activated. According to Keller (1993) and Associative Network Theory, the extent of spreading activation depends on the relatedness of brand nodes.

In previous sections, dimensions to assess sponsor-property fit have been introduced. As discussed, perceived sponsor-property fit can arise from similar images (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999), matching personalities (Lee & Cho, 2009), as well as common associations (Olsen & Pracejus, 2004). However, when looking at sponsorship portfolios, literature shows that the issue of perceived fit becomes more complex. Whenever a new property is added to an existing portfolio, another set of attributes or beliefs linked to the property is added to the portfolio. However, this set may not necessarily be consistent with the already existing properties in the portfolio. Consequently, scholars have proposed a multi-dimensional approach to conceptualize perceived fit, with some dimensions being more likely than others. Following categorization theory, as well as research in brand extensions, it is suggested that consumers process properties in a sponsorship portfolio based on either category or attribute characteristics. The former refers to sport events or social causes (Gwinner, 1997), while the latter is seen

as an independent trait of an object (Yamauchi & Markman, 2000), such as its personality (Chien et al., 2010). In line with previous scholars, Chien et al. (2010) thus propose two ways to measure how consumers may perceive fit amongst properties in one portfolio. First, if properties belong to the same category, the sponsorship category relatedness (SCR) can be measured. Second, if properties have high perceived similarity on personality dimensions, the event personality fit (EPF) can be measured.

Following Chien et al. (2010), SCR is defined as the degree of domain similarity between individual properties in a portfolio. As Yamauchi & Markman (2000) stated, the structure of superordinate categories, here sponsorship domains, allows for inferences to be made about characteristics of subcategories, i.e., individual properties. This can then be combined with the image-imagery duality, which is closely interlinked with the Information Processing Theory. More precisely, it has been shown that members of one category are structured in a way that resembles a social unit (Brewer & Feinstein, 1999). This structure derives from a generalized image, representing the most common features of the social unit (Malt, 1989). Once a generalized image has developed, superordinate imagery exists at the category level, and information about individual instances resides under this imagery, i.e., the category impression (Mao & Krishnan, 2006). Within this superordinate structure, prototypes serve as a decision heuristic. The fit between prototypes facilitates information processing, as it generates an intuitive explanation of why, in this case, different properties, belong to the same category (ibid). As Lee & Aaker (2004) have shown, people strive away from cognitive dissonance and look for conceptually fluent information. Supported by the previous discussion on functional fit, a brand can extend more quickly when the new category is similar to the original (Lei et al., 2008). “An initial sponsorship creates a prototype based on a category against which consumers interpret additional sponsorships in a portfolio” (Chien et al., 2010, p. 143).

From a sponsor perspective, this implies that sponsors should ensure to select sponsorships that possess logical connections on salient property characteristics. Even though a diverse portfolio may allow a sponsor to capitalize on positive associations of each property, it may also expose the sponsor to risks that can ultimately weaken the brand image. Understanding the above-mentioned personality dimensions of each sponsorship property will ultimately allow a sponsor to deal with the paradox of having an either loosely related or closely related portfolio. The former may lead to a dilution of the desired sponsor concept, whereas the latter may create an unexpected brand personality (Chien et al., 2010). Crucial to

managing and maintaining a healthy and complex portfolio is the evaluation of fit on different dimensions. Whereas different dimensions of fit have been elaborated on in previous sections, the essential fit dimension here is between each property within the portfolio, as well as the fit of a new property with the portfolio prototype (ibid).

Sponsor Portfolio

While the above-introduced sponsorship portfolio referred to one sponsor and multiple properties, the sponsor portfolio described now refers to one property with multiple sponsors. More specifically, Cobbs, Groza, & Rich (2016) propose that "a sponsor portfolio exists where multiple brands sponsor a single [...] property, such as a sporting event, teams, league, or a charity simultaneously" (p.107). When assessing a property's sponsorship portfolio, multiple points of view can be taken, which are the point of view of the property itself, the point of the consumer, and ultimately the sponsor as part of the portfolio. However, due to the underlying research problem, only the first two perspectives will be elaborated on in more detail.

In order to apply portfolio theory to professional sport clubs, one first needs to acknowledge that the property indeed possesses a series of assets. Secondly, one has to define what constitutes an asset in this particular context. Following Hill & Vincent (2006), a football club's asset includes assets such as players and facilities that the club owns, but also marketing assets, such as the brand, and important for the further course of this study, sponsors. Specific to the building of a successful global sport team, Hill & Vincent (2006) further mention the importance of team composition, player development systems, and partnerships with corporate sponsors.

Following Aaker (1991), this set of assets directly linked to the property determines brand equity. Further, five specific dimensions are attributed to brand equity, which are brand loyalty, brand awareness, perceived quality, brand associations, and other proprietary assets (ibid). However, when assessing previous research on brand associations, most scholars have only addressed the topic in the context of sponsorship focuses on consumers' associations of a property with a sponsor (Cobbs et al., 2016; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Meenaghan, 2001).

Only recently, the possibility of brand associations between sponsors within a property's sponsor portfolio has been analyzed (Cobbs et al., 2016). According to Keller (1993), both primary and secondary brand associations influence a consumer's perception of brand equity. Keller (2003) adds, by giving evidence that especially secondary associations with other brands are relevant when establishing attributes and benefits of a brand. The concept is completed by Lederer & Hill (2001), who not only recognize the impact of such brand associations but also acknowledge that each brand within a portfolio carries specific characteristics that contribute to consumers' perceptions of other brands in the portfolio. In the case that consumers' perceptions of a brand are indeed influenced by other brands in an alliance or joint branding situation, spillover effects occur (Samu, Krishnan, & Smith, 1999).

Even though the previously introduced concepts are easily transferable to the sponsor portfolio context, Cobbs et al. (2016) are the first to do so. In their research, they extend the above-described conceptualization and allow for the possibility that the equity of a particular sponsor's brand can influence, but also be influenced by other brands included in a multiple sponsor environment. They give evidence for brand spillover effects between corporate sponsors of a sport property's sponsor and suggest that “consumers may attribute greater brand equity to a sponsor's brand that is part of a sponsor portfolio with other sponsor's brands that they perceive as high in brand equity” (Cobbs et al., p.8). This extends the concept of spillover effects within a portfolio to secondary associations, thus showing the presence of brand equity spillover effects among sponsors within a shared property’s portfolio.

This study has previously introduced the concept of congruence and fit as one of the most widely studied aspects of sponsorship (Fleck & Quester, 2007). Recalling these two concepts, compared to high fit sponsorships, a low fit sponsorship is generally less effective when it comes to consumers’ sponsorship recall (Cornwell, Humphreys, Maguire, Weeks, & Tellegen, 2006) and image transfer (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999). Further, a low fit sponsorship can adversely affect brand clarity (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006), which is commonly seen as a critical component of brand identity (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003) and thereby lead to a dilution of both brand image and identity. Sponsors thus strive towards an environment that is conducive to assimilation effects. The latter occur, according to Accentuation Theory, when individuals exaggerate either similarities to reinforce schema grouping, or differences to reinforce grouping into different schemas (Tajfel & Cawasjee, 1959). In the context of a property's sponsor portfolio, this translates to the assumption that where an incongruent sponsor coexists with

another sponsor, who is perceived to be more congruent with the property, consumers perceive contrast effects to be more salient. Hence, the sponsor who is perceived to be more incongruent will be placed in a separate schema. Contrary, if both sponsors are perceived to be congruent with the sponsored property, the consumer is more likely to keep all entities in one schema (Cobbs et al., 2016).

Based on the above discussion, this paper proposes that the level of perceived fit among sponsors in a property's sponsor portfolio influences the consumers' perception of the sponsorship of a sponsor in this portfolio. Building on previous research, it is assumed that the higher the level of perceived fit amongst sponsors, the better the perception of sponsorship.

Proposed Conceptual Model

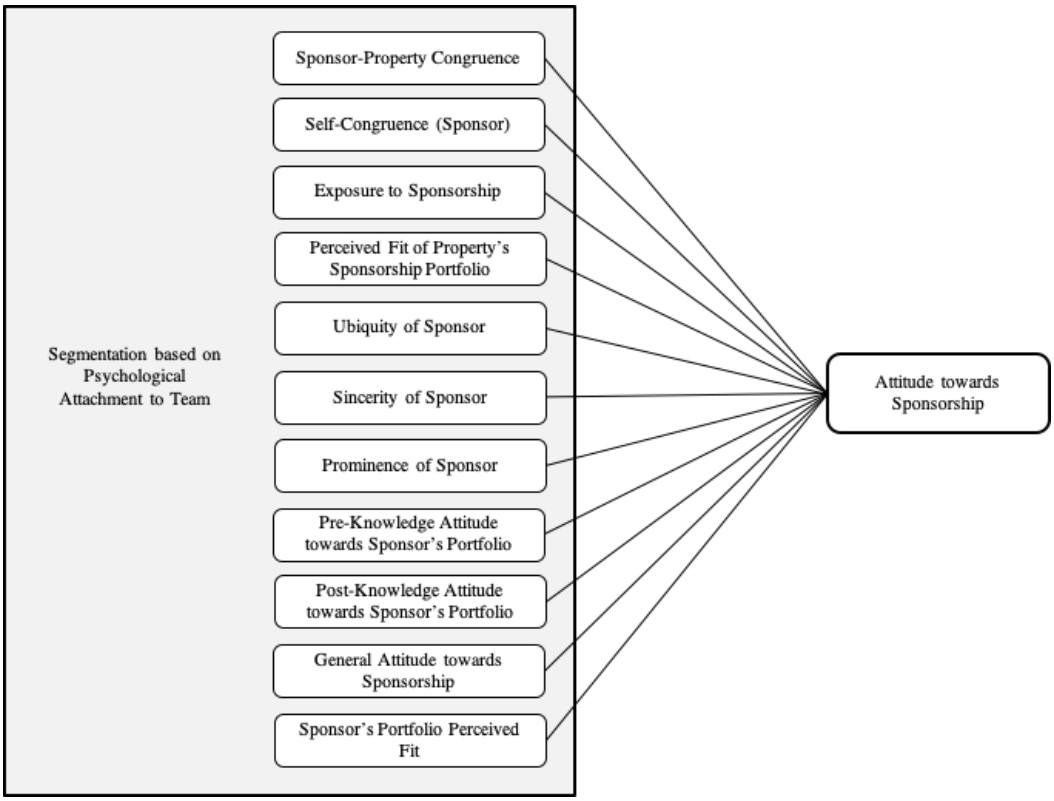

Figure 1 Proposed Conceptual Model. Own Creation.

Adaptations from Ko & Kim (2014), Speed & Thompson (2000), Funk & James (2001), and Kim, James, & Kim (2013).

With regard to the introduced theory, previous research, as well as the application of research to the underlying study environment, the presented conceptual model is proposed. Within sports management

and research relating to sponsorship relations within sports, several models and frameworks dealing with the dyadic relationship of sponsors and properties, as well as Stakeholder Theory, are proposed (Junghagen, 2018a; Ko & Kim, 2014; Lee et al., 1997; Meenaghan, 2001; Speed & Thompson, 2000; Vance, Raciti, & Lawley, 2016). Most of the previously proposed models incorporate sponsorship evaluations in the setting of sponsors and events and, to a lesser amount, the evaluation of longer-term relationships between sponsors and (football) teams or properties in general. Additionally, it has been argued that consumer behavior and concepts of behavioral economics are lacking in representation in these models (Biscaia et al., 2014; Ko et al., 2017; Ko & Kim, 2014; Meenaghan, 2001).

Further, the proposed conceptual model adopts concepts introduced in the model proposed by Ko & Kim (2014) and Speed & Thompson (2000). The study is adapted by first spectator segmentation represented through the psychological continuum model (Funk & James, 2001), and sport consumption motives (Kim et al., 2013; Stewart et al., 2003; Sutton et al., 1997; Wann, 1995), which describe the psychological attachment to the property and underlying motives, therefore influencing the perceptions and attitude held by the sport consumer. Second, sponsor-property congruence and self-congruence towards the sponsor are proposed to be influential in further differentiating spectators within the found clusters and predict their attitude towards the sponsorship differently, as opposed to having a mediating factor between the perception of sponsorship and attitude towards the sponsor (Ko & Kim, 2014). Third, the perception of the property's sponsorship activities and portfolio management is investigated as it is proposed to impact the overall perception of the sponsorship under investigation by, for example, the within-portfolio congruence.

The general attitude held towards sponsorship is included, which relates to how spectators perceive the commercialization of football and the sports industry as well as how the importance of such is viewed (Lee et al. 1997). In addition, and in line with Speed & Thompson (2000), sponsor's ubiquity, prominence, and sincerity are assumed to have an influential role by resembling aspects of how the sponsor is perceived. Finally, it is assumed by the researchers, after a thorough analysis of the theoretical landscape in sports management, that the sponsor's sponsorship portfolio (activities) will have discriminating power within the created clusters based on psychological attachment to the team.

Figure 1 displays the proposed model for conceptualizing the underlying research, where all variables are assumed to positively impact the attitude towards sponsorship, here between MFF and Puma. It generally alters Ko & Kim (2014)'s model by examining the influence of the sponsor's sponsorship portfolio, among other relevant concepts constituting a potential influence, between identified clusters of spectators. The presented proposed constructs and variables are discussed and elaborated in greater detail in the following section, which further exemplifies the development of the preceding theoretical discussion.

Research Approach

To provide a structured and validated framework that guides the research process and analysis of the previously presented research question, the approach is determined by the researchers' philosophy of science, and the consequential research design is constructed (Malhotra, Birks, & Nunan, 2017). Following, the researchers' underlying philosophy is elaborated and discussed, as well as consequences for research design and interpretation of results are outlined.

Philosophy of Science

The philosophy of science in research describes the nature of knowledge and the researchers' understanding of how knowledge is created. It entails how researchers view and understand their surroundings and reality, that guides the way research is designed and approached and how knowledge is aimed to be discovered and gained. Thereby, considerations about the research philosophy of science and the inherent ontology and epistemology are to be taken in and reflected upon, as it is crucial for the outcome of the study, its interpretation, and implications of results (Healy & Perry, 2000). It is argued that questions of method are to be seen as secondary in comparison to the questions of the research philosophy, as the latter defines the researchers' belief system (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009).

An essential aspect of the consideration of the research philosophy relates to the ability to not only determine the extent to which the research is philosophically supported. More, it relates to the ability to reflect upon the philosophical choice and to be able to distinguish as well as defend it to alternative approaches that could have provided different results and implications. There are different possibilities to analyze and think about research philosophy, with epistemology and ontology being the most

prominent ones (Saunders et al., 2009). The ontology describes the nature of reality, all things that exist, and the differences, beliefs, and views held between different entities within reality. It is the researchers' view of reality and the being that constructs one part of the researcher's philosophy of science. On the other hand, epistemology describes the knowledge and the researcher's view on what true and acceptable knowledge is. Differences between researchers' epistemologies can be best described by the way information, i.e., knowledge is collected (Healy & Perry, 2000). Therefore, the purpose of analyzing the researchers' philosophy of science and dismantling the different epistemologies and ontologies leads back to the overall question of what knowledge is and how it is defined to be gained and uncovered that in turn determines how research is designed and results interpreted (Johnson & Clark, 2006). Hence, through methodology, the "reality" as described through ontology will be examined.

The epistemological and ontological assumptions, the conception of knowledge as well as beliefs about the reality are influential in the differentiation of research philosophies and guiding in the elaboration of the underlying philosophy (Packer & Goicoechea, 2000). There are two aspects of ontology debated in the current research body, objectivism, and subjectivism, describing the position of social entities in reality as either external to social actors or, as captured by subjectivism, as immersed as social phenomena are created through an enduring process of revision guided by social actors' perceptions and subsequent actions (Saunders et al., 2009). With epistemological and ontological assumptions in mind, there are different philosophies of science prevailing in current managerial research that capture most distinguishing philosophical assumptions underpinning one's research strategy, namely Positivism, Realism, Interpretivism, and Pragmatism. While the ontology in Positivism and Realism falls within objectivity where social actors are characterized as external and independent to how reality is viewed and perceived, Interpretivism is describing a socially constructed subjective reality that similar to Pragmatism is possible to change and multiply (Saunders et al., 2009).

However, Pragmatism differs in relation to its focus on the guiding research question and the underlying ontology, and the view of reality is chosen in a way that best answers the research question (Nonaka & von Krogh, 2009). Pragmatists claim that either observable phenomena or subjective meanings provide knowledge and are accepted as "true", as long as they serve the research question at hand. Any proposed belief is ultimately accepted as the truth if it proves to be the "best available instrument for successfully informing our behavior in the interest of adapting to the world in some

fundamental way under the principle of homeostasis" (Almeder, 2007, p. 171). Some scholars, such as Putnam (1981), argue that it is an interactive process between individuals and "reality" that collectively shape the truth. Within Pragmatism, the way that knowledge is defined suggests that, with time, assumptions and beliefs become true through their usefulness to the object in question and therefore enable that reality is shaped (Johnson & Clark, 2006; Nonaka & von Krogh, 2009). Extending this view, pragmatists like Charles S. Peirce and John Dewey argue that some proposed beliefs can be rationally acceptable and justified through epistemology that is neither established through inductive or deductive inference methods in science (Almeder, 2007; Pierce, 1878). When adopted as accurate, they argue, behavioral consequences follow that, in turn, prove reasonable adaptation of such proposed beliefs under homeostasis. Almeder (2007) summarizes these under defining the pragmatic principle (PP) where the proposed proposition P would be justified to be accepted "as long as there is no compelling evidence either for or against accepting P and as long as accepting P could provide cognitive or moral consequences that would tend to better the world or believing subject, more that if the subject were to disbelieve P" (ibid, p.172).

Pragmatism in management and business research focuses on improving practice with a wide range of research strategies available that are dependent on the nature of the underlying research problem. On the opposite, with Positivism, the observable social reality is analyzed in order to produce generalizations or Interpretivism where through subjectivity, human beings are analyzed differently to physical phenomena as meaning-creating agents (Saunders et al., 2009). In this research, pragmatist ontology and epistemology guide the research design, analysis, and interpretation of results. Here, by constructing a modified segmentation of spectators, under the light of the psychological attachment to the team, and the attitude towards the sponsor, implications for improved portfolio management can be derived.

Before elaborating further on the design of the research, the overall approach taken on for this project follows abductive reasoning, a dynamic movement between deduction and induction (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). A conceptual model and testable propositions are deduced from existing theories and further secondary data. By indicating proposed variables that are to be measured, a theoretical confirmation or the need for extension or modification of the theory above will be derived (Saunders et al., 2009). Within this process, inductive reasoning allows for flexibility in the emphasis as the research

progresses. In order to facilitate potential replication of results (Gill & Johnson, 2002), ensuring reliability, the structured methodology underlying this research will be presented in the following two sections by an elaboration on the research design and, more specifically, the methodological approach.

Research Design

Succeeding the defined research approach, the research design serves as a framework to conduct the presented research, detailing the specifics of the research process, and laying the foundation for the project. Further, the research design is determined in accordance with the researchers' pragmatist ontology and epistemology in mind. The categorization of the research into exploratory, descriptive, or causal follows, as well as the design of measurement techniques, construction of the appropriate form of data collection and specifications of the sampling process, and sample size (Malhotra et al., 2017). The plan for the data analysis is outlined, but further elaborated and discussed in the subsequent section.

As mentioned before, the focus within Pragmatism lies on methods and research designs that answer the guiding research problem and research questions best. To answer how Puma, i.e., the sponsor, can and should optimize its sponsorship portfolio, a quantitative, exploratory, as well as conclusive, single cross-sectional research design to measure the specific phenomena and examine relationships seem most appropriate (Malhotra et al., 2017; Saunders et al., 2009). Initially, an exploratory research design is employed as an initial step to define and identify the variables used for the second, conclusive step. A descriptive research design, also referred to as survey research design, is found to fit the second step of analyzing the research problem by unfolding and describing specific characteristics of the target group and offers the possibility of making predictions, i.e., developing a framework that allows for segmentation from which predictions and consequences of actions can be derived as a source of input for managerial decision-making. A quantitative, multi-method approach is deemed most fitting for the research question at hand, to obtain suitable data for statistical analyses that allow for the exploration of relationships between variables and identification of clusters and patterns in the data. While qualitative data allows more specifically for exploring sensitive information, subconscious feelings, and the development of theory, these characteristics of bespoken research design are not as relevant to answer the research question as are the characteristics of quantitative research designs.

To answer and analyze the stated research question, both secondary and primary data are collected and used. Commonly used with descriptive research designs, compiled secondary data in the form of documentary and multiple-source data is adopted as input and source for a part of the survey research strategy that collects primary data (Saunders et al., 2009).

Secondary Data

External data sources in the form of written materials and multiple sources are employed in a preceding step to the primary data collection. Both forms of data are used as partial input sources for developing the survey as part of the research strategy. Written materials in the form of organizations' websites add to construct a solid foundation of the stakeholders' background information necessary to gain an in-depth understanding of the sponsor's operations as well as of the property's activities in its daily, and especially in relation to sponsorships, business. In addition, secondary data from multiple sources in the form of journals, books, and research papers are analyzed and serve as the foundation for the creation of the primary data collection through survey research. The selection and analysis procedure of the bespoken and relevant literature body is further detailed in the following section on the theoretical framework.

The reliability and validity of the chosen secondary data are discussed in the following section to ensure trustworthy and relevant data sources. Generally, it is ensured that the secondary data in use for this research project adds in addressing the overall problem statement and meets the objective of providing background knowledge and input data for the survey research strategy. As public data is used in this step, accessibility is not an issue for the researchers and therefore presents little cost invested relative to the benefits gained by accessing these sources and in comparison, to alternative sources of data, as for example secondary survey data. Measurement bias for the presented selected forms of secondary data can occur by changing the way it is collected (Saunders et al., 2009). However, the same process is applied to all secondary data sources used, and data is not distorted for which the measurement bias can be said to be reduced.

Primary Data

The focus of the underlying research project lies on the collection of primary data through a survey research strategy that allows gaining knowledge on spectators’ attitudes towards sponsors in relation to

their level of commitment to the property. In order to conduct quantitative research and data analysis, input data is collected through the aforementioned secondary data sources build. First, literature and research are analyzed and synthesized to detect research gaps and form propositions that are then adapted and complemented through primary data collection. Second, for the development of the quantitative survey, secondary data sources have guided the determination of variables that are to be investigated as well as the development of item scales used to examine these variables. Additionally, primary data through semi-structured interviews are collected to adjust and complement the identification of variables and item scales used in the questionnaire.

In total, four semi-structured interviews are conducted, of which two are in a longitudinal manner. Preliminary interviews were held on the 21st of January 2020 with Magnus Svensson, Director of Sales in B2B for Malmö FF (MFF) in MFF's headquarter in Malmö/ Sweden, and Rutger Hagstad, Head of Marketing at Puma Nordic AB in the company's Nordic headquarter in Helsingborg/ Sweden. While the first round of interviews served the purpose of setting the scene with interview partners and to get acquainted, a second round serves as main interviews. For both, the same semi-structured interview guide is employed with slight adaptations, where questions evolving around the organization's general operations, specifics to the interviewee's position, sponsorship relations and in more elaboration questions about the partnership between MFF and Puma are stated (Appendix A). Subsequently, the main interviews, held on the 5th of February 2020, further intensified topics relating to experiences with partnerships, segmentation of fans based on the respective subjective opinion and the selection process of sponsorship partners, and the role of spectators in it (Appendix B).

Methodological Approach to the Problem

Approaching the above-stated problem statement requires the consideration of the objective theoretical framework, data collection, and analytical model. Therefore, conducted expert interviews provide background information for constructing the methodological approach to the quantitative research strategy.

Interview Analysis

Interviewing representatives of MFF, as well as Puma, allows for an examination of new connections between the stakeholders, and provides the chance to gain a broader perspective on the stakeholders. The conducted interviews are not, however, part of the analytical research strategy, but rather allow for an understanding of results in context and provide the researchers with additional insights when constructing items based on theoretical analyses.

In this section, the overview of the information gathered follows the structure of the empirical context. While the relation to the spectators is inherent across interviewees, more detail on the other two stakeholders is given via the respective interviewee.

MFF Sponsor Structure

Following the empirical context, MFF adapted the number of main and official partners to a total of 16 in 2009. In addition to limiting the total number of sponsors, MFF also has strict rules for the nature of these, with each sponsor covering a different industry. Consequently, if a sponsor leaves the cooperation and is to be replaced, the new sponsor will not be from an industry already covered by one of the remaining 15 sponsors. Generally, MFF has limited leverage when choosing a new sponsor (Appendix D). However, MFF sees itself to be higher than other Swedish clubs, which drives up the cost for a potential sponsor to enter into an agreement. The club aims to deliver overall high-quality sponsorships. One of the reasons to strive for this is that MFF wants to generate positive word of mouth and raise other companies' interest to join MFF as partners.

MFF is aware of the necessary active engagement with its sponsors. Aside from MFF's success in different areas, such as consistent high performance in Allsvenskan and participation in the EL, the club makes sure to develop its sponsor relationships also in other ways. For example, MFF excels in working with and activating its sponsorships in the relevant target audience, which also includes communicating with and activating its fans. Consequently, MFF knows it’s worth for sponsors. But the club also knows that a successful relationship with a sponsor is not only the result of the buying rights, e.g., exposure, a sponsor gets, but a sponsor has to invest money to activate the sponsorship. Only if a company has a structure, a marketing plan, and the willingness to invest beyond the sole buying rights,

the relationship can be successful, and return on investment will be seen, says Magnus Svensson (Appendix D).

In the interview conducted with MFF's Director of Sales, Magnus Svensson, he describes the spectator base as consisting of "all sorts of people". Generally, the attitude of MFF spectators towards sponsors is considered to be very positive. For the last ten to twelve years, fans have started to understand the importance of sponsors for the club. (Appendix D).

Puma

In addition to the insight gained into MFF, the interviews with Puma follow a similar line of question and provide a more elaborate view on Puma's overall approach to sponsoring.

Sponsorship contracts that apply to the Nordics can lie with either Puma Nordic AB or Puma SE. According to Rutger Hagstad, the Head of Marketing of Puma Nordic AB, there are five pillars to sponsoring. First, activation is essential to successful sponsorship. In the case of sponsoring a team or a club, activation happens via the property, e.g., for the launch of new products, the property is used to activate the respective product. Activation can also happen through single players, building the second pillar of the sponsoring construct. Contracts with single players are negotiated on top of the contracts that Puma has with a specific club. The most crucial advantage of additional activation through single players is their closeness to a club, ease in the activation due to the minimization of people involved, as well as the creation of visibility. Working together with an individual player, further supports Puma's main sales driver, which is football shoes. The third pillar is B2B. Here, MFF's Nätverket comes into play. Generally, such networks are crucial for Puma, as they provide the chance to get access to additional sales beyond the borders of the initial sponsored property. Fourth, sales, in general, are an essential pillar of sponsoring. These sales cover everything from merchandise and fan wear to equipment for youth teams. Last but not least, strategic sponsoring activities can also create credibility for the company. Sponsoring a top tier league symbolizes to the industry that the company's products are suitable enough for the best in the field (Appendix C).

Within the Nordics, Puma has a diverse sponsorship portfolio, in which the most prominent sport is football, with the strongest presence in Sweden, followed by Denmark and Norway. Aside from

football, handball is prominent in Denmark and Finland. Puma Nordic sponsors teams on a club, but also a national level. Besides, sponsorships also include individual assets, such as the previously mentioned individual players, or athletes. There are different reasons why Puma may add another asset to its existing sponsorship portfolio. From a company's point of view, the main reason is to grow market share, especially in Puma's central business area of football shoes. In order to grow market share, a potential asset needs to provide credibility, as well as authenticity. Aside from strategic reasons, contracts can also be signed for geographical or sales reasons. For example, a low presence in a specific geographical area can be a reason to connect with local retailers or teams to gain a foothold and ultimately establish "ownership" of the region. In terms of sales, a broad membership base or a club's connection with a big retailer may drive the signing. The latter type is especially important, as having contracts that generate money allow Puma to sign contracts that may not be beneficial from a monetary point of view but are, e.g., highly reputational (Appendix D).

While it is not seldom that a club approaches Puma directly in order to negotiate a contract, there is also a thorough selection process in place to find and evaluate potential assets from the company's side. At first, both existing business units and the existing portfolio are analyzed to identify blind spots and potential to maximize. After markets in scope have been examined, the sponsorship in these particular markets is broken down into existing contracts and players. This process step is crucial to gather information, as the company is not allowed to contact assets with assets having existing contracts with other companies. However, contact can be established once these contracts run out, and a new contract with Puma can be negotiated (Appendix D).

There are several reasons why sponsorships are beneficial and necessary for Puma. First and foremost, Puma considers long-term sponsorships to be the most beneficial. Other success indicators include potential added sales volume or the before mentioned gain in credibility and awareness. The return on investment for sponsorship can be measured from two different points of view. A calculation can be conducted beforehand, including variables such as the number of members, prospective sales, and the expected cost. In contrast, ROI can also be measured afterward by evaluating actual sales and achieving marketing exposure. While these approaches only evaluate single sponsorships from the company's point of view, it also considers interdependencies between the assets, as well as possible consumer reactions to new assets being added to the portfolio. For example, Puma clearly states that it

would not consider signing a contract with two rival teams, as such actions create conflicts of interest and communicate an un-loyalty message (Appendix D). This statement also shows that Puma is indeed aware and mindful of potential interdependencies between assets in its portfolio.

Stakeholder Relations

> "[MFF has] very strong relations with Puma on all levels. [We] try to do everything together, [to accomplish] the best for both sides. [Due to our history], we both know each other's needs [in order] to be most successful." - Director of Sales B2B, MFF (Appendix D)

The Head of Marketing Puma Nordics states that there is a difference not only in sponsoring a club and other sponsoring contracts but also among contracts with different clubs. In the case of MFF, the club has a plan that defines key development areas but also what players are wearing and what Puma is selling to, for example, MFF's youth teams. Additionally, MFF is not connected to a specific retailer, as it is usually the case for clubs in Sweden. The direct business connection between MFF and Puma allows for faster business, a higher margin, as well as easier activation for Puma.

Within the Nordics, Puma perceives MFF to be the most critical club, not only because of the club's continuity to be one of the best in the league but also due to its significant member base, which gives Puma a broader base to communicate with. While the company is aware of the role that MFF members and supporters play, it has no specifically designated strategy to address distinct categories among those.

> "There is a difference between hardcore [fans] and supporters. [The hardcore supporters] do not like any commercial [activity] at all. They think they own the club, or even do, and pull that card all the time. [But because] they have such a loud voice, Puma has to listen to them." - Head of Marketing, (Appendix D)

However, not only Puma has to pay attention to these fans, other sponsors have to do the same. This importance is reflected in the "ICA incident", where an originally red sponsor logo was changed to white and blue, after an uproar amongst fans. Ever since then, MFF requires all sponsor logos to be exposed in sky blue and white.

The “hardcore” fans create one end of the spectrum, vocalizing their opinions strongly. On the other end of the spectrum, Puma sees the generic consumers of the game.

> “[Opposite to the hardcore fans] there is also the more generic fan or consumer, [who] does not really care and only wants the team to succeed. [Sponsorship activities] are not a big topic for them.” - Head of Marketing, (Appendix D)

A couple of years ago, Puma launched an initiative together with MFF to have fans design the MFF shirt the way they wanted. According to Puma, this jersey has been the best shirt in terms of sales, yet. This shows how important it is for Puma to understand the different segments that ultimately form MFF’s spectator base, what characterizes and drives them, and ultimately how they differ in their perception of Puma as one of the main sponsors of MFF.

This importance is reflected in the extent to which Puma considers the impact on MFF spectator's behavior, and fan's behavior and reaction from sponsors in general, when adding a new asset to the portfolio. On one side, Puma does acknowledge the position of MFF in its portfolio and the interlinked importance of its fans. Thereby, however, the company only considers explicit conflicts of interest, such as rival teams, but not the overall composition of its portfolio.

> We would not [enter] in a contract with [for example] two teams in the same city. It is conflicting when you are partnering with competitors.” - Head of Marketing, Puma (Appendix D)

On the other side, the company follows its strategic goals and business plan, such as expanding its geographical footprint in the Nordics.

Instrumentation and Questionnaire Development

The underlying research strategy and investigation into the research problem is based on objective evidence that finds support in theory and empirical findings from existing research. However, as theory can sometimes be somewhat abstract and its applicability to real-world phenomena may vary and deal with a non-exhaustive presentation of variables, these are identified and examined through the before mentioned primary data sources. Resulting from bespoken primary data collection and secondary data collection through theory, 16 potential variables are identified, of which 14 are to be included in the

survey research, and that will then be tested for their underlying factor structure. Extracting factors that will make more conceptual sense will be analyzed in the context of the proposed conceptual model, whose validity and applicability is to be tested (Malhotra et al., 2017).

Next to the theoretical analysis of previously conducted research in the area of sports management and marketing, as well as the evaluation of existing models and theories, derived constructs and item scales are put into context with what is discussed and discovered by the primary data sources. Concepts as perceived fit between sponsors and property, self-congruence between spectator and sponsor, and aspects of perceived fit among sponsors within one portfolio (i.e., MFF's sponsorship portfolio), are supported by the information gained through the expert interview with Magnus Svensson (Appendix C, Appendix D). For example, the expert states that spectators and fans would behave similarly in terms of purchase behavior regardless of the kit manufacturer and the main sponsor, as long as "[the] kit supplier listens to fans, [a] holistic approach, it is more important than money" (Appendix D).

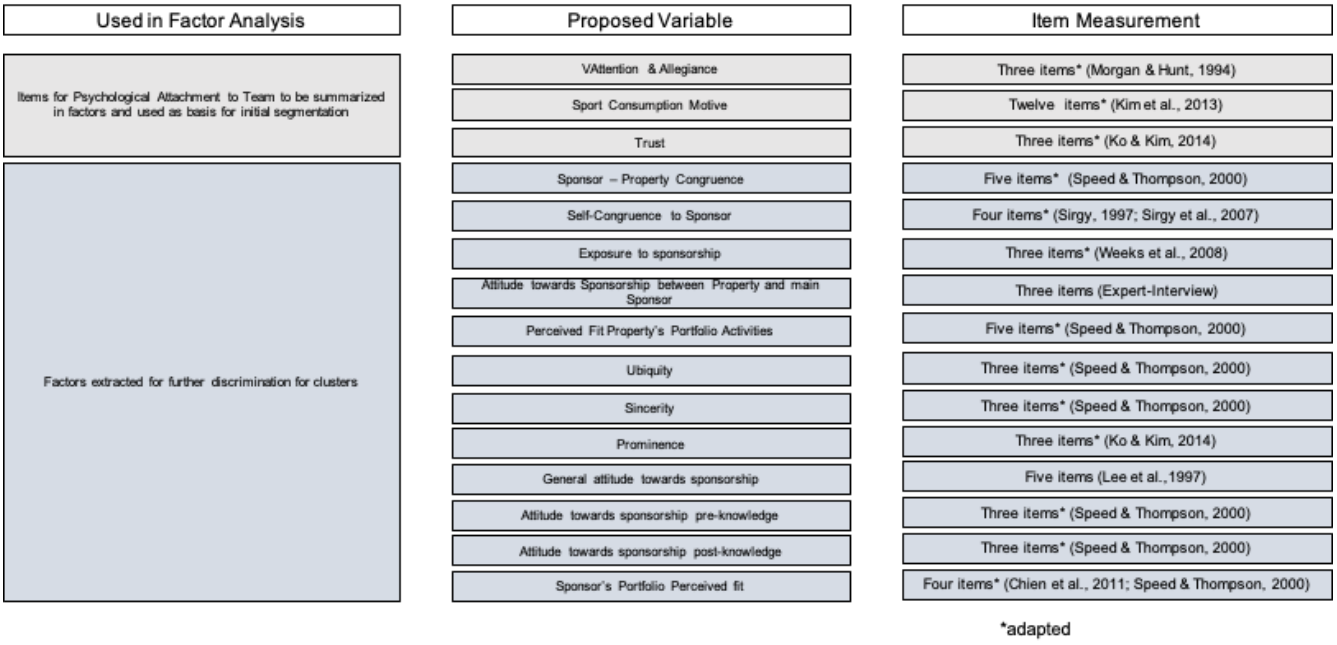

Figure 2 Variables identified for primary data collection. Own creation.

Figure 2 depicts the proposed variables and items identified, describing the different concepts that are believed to influence the spectator's attitude towards the sponsorship, as presented in the conceptual model (*Figure 1*). Spectators are to be segmented by the concept of psychological attachment to the team, where different aspects relating to the psychological continuum model, sport fan motivation scale as well

as trust, are included. Here, the variety of item scales derived from different theories and concepts are complemented by insights from the expert interviews. More specifically, one sport consumption motive refers to escape in relation to one's daily routine. Taking the knowledge gained throughout the background interviews into consideration, another item not included in the original item set used in previous research, is included, pertaining to the perception of football games as part of one's daily routine.

The congruence effect is measured on different levels of congruence between sponsor and property and the spectators' self-congruence to the sponsor, where congruence between spectator and property is covered by the segmentation through the PCM and sport consumption motives. Next is exposure to the sponsorship, as adapted by Weeks, Cornwell, & Drennan (2008), who related the items to event experiences, stating that knowledge about a specific sponsorship (event) influences the perception of congruence and, therefore the attitude towards the sponsorship. As the underlying proposal encompasses the aspect of knowledge about the sponsor's portfolio being a significant discriminant between different spectator segments, the previously statistically proven items are seen as an appropriate measure for exposure with the notion of knowledge. Here, exposure is measured as a mixed construct between knowledge about the sponsorship evoked by continuous exposure and activation activities.

Proposed variables five and six encompass items relating to the attitude towards the sponsorship between Puma and MFF and the perceived fit between the different sponsoring activities MFF is engaging in. The former constitutes items that are based on the primary source, where it is stated that fans value the sponsorship between Puma and MFF, especially through the inclusion in the decision-making process and its unique sponsorship concept in the league (Appendix D). Sponsor's Ubiquity, Sincerity, and Prominence are included as items in the instrumentation to identify an overall construct relating to the spectator's perception of the sponsor, as adapted from Ko & Kim (2014). The spectators' general Attitude Towards Sponsorship, adapted from Lee et al. (1997), as well as items relating to the sponsor's perceived fit of its portfolio, are combined based on item measurements employed by Chien et al. (2011) and Speed & Thompson (2000). Finally, two variables are identified that construct the spectators' attitude toward a specific sponsorship before and after additional information about the sponsor's sponsoring portfolio is provided, intended to measure the impact of knowledge about the sponsor's portfolio activities.

The exclusion of two variables, identified during the interview phase of primary data collection, is based on further analysis and evaluation through secondary data sources. Bespoken eliminated variables relate to national fit and functional fit between sponsor and property and are evaluated as not relevant enough to be tested in this research. Several scholars within the field of sports management have proven the concepts to be of direct, straightforward nature where findings are adopted (Deitz et al., 2012), which supports the exclusion from the survey research strategy. Consequently, the two variables concerning national and functional fit are considered as binary variables and can be included in a later stage for discussion and interpretation in relation to secondary data and background information about both stakeholder groups (Deitz et al., 2012; Fleck & Quester, 2007).

A self-administered, internet-mediated questionnaire is chosen for the survey design, because of advantages in automated data input, the scope of dispersion, ease of data collection and low likelihoods of distorted answers by respondents as compared to other forms of questionnaires involving interviewer-administered characteristics (Saunders et al., 2009). For instrumentation of the identified variables, previously validated measures from relevant studies and literature are selected for the underlying research under the prospect of minor adaptations to the presented research context. In total, 63 items that are used in the factor analysis are included in the constructed survey presented in Figure 2, in addition to twelve items relating to demographic and filter questions.

Based on the researchers' philosophy of science and focus on the research problem, the response format of all items is administered on a 7-point Likert-Scale that supports the selected data analysis and analytical model (1 = strongly agree, 7 = strongly disagree). Most items are measured in a matrix of questions that are linked through their themes. Acknowledging the increased complexity of understanding the question grid design, the advantage of logically grouping questions, and decreasing the perceived amount of questions asked, which often poses a response barrier, is seen to outweigh the concerns of complexity. Items on attitude are equally measured on a 7-point Likert-Scale (1 = Extremely Good, 7 = Extremely Bad; 1 = Like a great deal, 7 = Dislike a great deal; 1 = Extremely Positive, 7 = Extremely Negative). Due to the potential obstacle of respondent's sensitivity to personal data, items measuring characteristics and demographics of participants are placed at the end of the survey while filter questions that separate the target sample from the population are placed at the beginning of the questionnaire (Malhotra et al., 2017). These are constructed to measure awareness and attraction and are

derived from Funk & James (2001), to ensure that the respondents are representative of the target population. To measure respondents' attention while answering the online survey, a test question has been placed into the survey flow (Berinsky, Margolis, & Sances, 2014) (Appendix E). By adopting measurement item scales proven in previous research designs by scholars in the field of sport management, the wording is considered to be ensured as valid. Additionally, due to the primary sampling location in Malmö, Sweden, the survey is translated into Swedish to increase engagement by MFF's spectators answering the questionnaire and to decrease bias of language barriers in English (Polkinghorne, 2005; Saunders et al., 2009). While Polkinghorne (2005) refers to the importance of language in qualitative research design, the researchers assume that the approach proves likewise valid in survey research strategies, due to a relatively similar presentation of the relevant written words to the participant.

Data Collection

Quantitative data is selected through the before determined and elaborated survey research design, where non-probability sampling is concluded to serve best to investigate the underlying research problem (Appendix E). As it is with descriptive research strategies, a large sample size serves to answer the research problem best through the chosen methodology by increasing representativeness. Snowball sampling and self-selection sampling is determined as a sampling technique, as engagement and access to difficult-to-identify cases of the population are being reached (Saunders et al., 2009), as it is the case by specifically targeting MFF spectators with the underlying research. To obtain a convenience sample, the survey is distributed through an online format and promoted through the researcher's contacts to the target group, where snowball sampling further executed the data collection. The questions included in the survey did not allow for skipping, as they were obligatory to be answered. Respondents that did not know what to answer for a specific question but answered the remaining questions were not able to proceed and finish the questionnaire. This is instrumentalized in order to mitigate the amount of invalid and partially answered surveys that may distort the evaluation and analysis of the collected data.

Further, self-selection sampling is commenced through the physical distribution of flyers that link to the online survey format at one home-game of MFF, primarily to specifically reach the difficult-to-identify part of the target sample that is not reached through contacts of contacts, i.e., snowball sampling.

Although the likelihood of representativeness of samples is lower as compared to a quota- or generally probability-sampling, the cases will have the characteristics desired and are self-selected. Additionally, relative costs are reasonably low, which further supports the choice of sampling method in the given research frame. By taking a "snapshot" of the investigated phenomenon at a specific point in time, rather than analyzing the underlying subject over several time points to study the timely development, the research project is categorized as cross-sectional. Although constrained in time, due to external limitations of this project, data will be collected until decided sufficiently by the researchers to provide new insights to answer the research problem (Saunders et al., 2009). By acknowledging sampling errors related to sample size, representativeness, and the chosen quantitative over qualitative research, the researchers try to take an objective position while analyzing and interpreting collected data in consideration of potential bias inherent through the research design.

Analytical Model

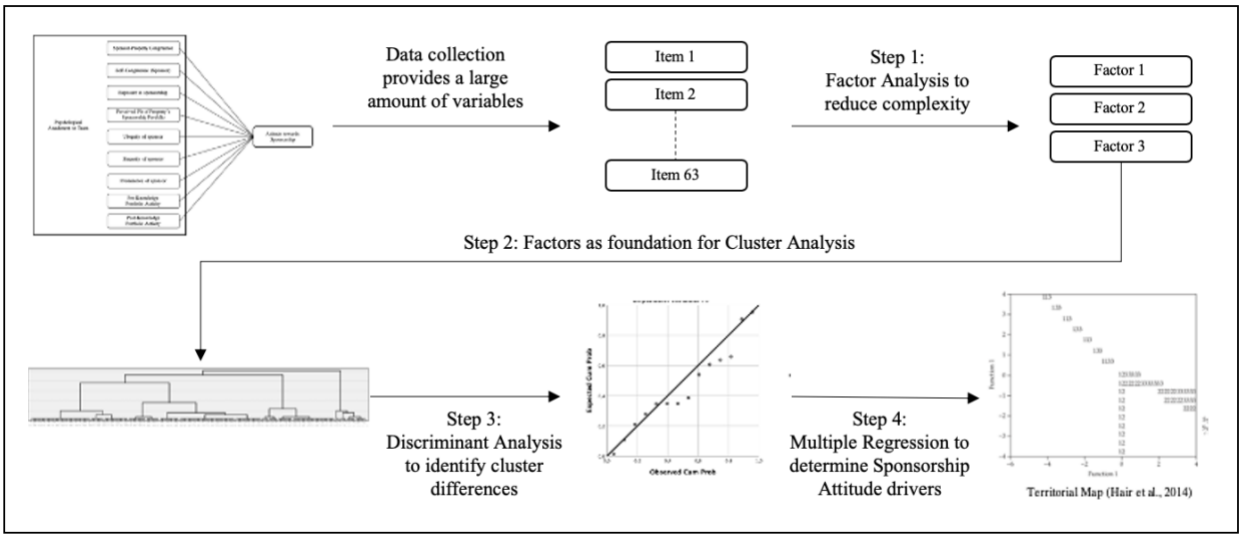

Figure 3 Analytical Approach. Own creation.
with adaptations from Hair et al. (2014).

Reflecting on the problem statement guiding the underlying research, the aim is to find out whether spectators are to be segmented differently in terms of their attitude towards the sponsorship based on their psychological attachment to the team and if they can be further differentiated based on, specifically, their perception of the sponsor's portfolio activities, next to other influencing variables. In order to be able to interpret the data correctly, the analytical model has to capture the different steps to respond

correctly to the problem statement. Before elaborating in a more detailed manner how each analysis step is employed in the current research, the overall logical construct is presented.

First, factor analysis is conducted to reduce the complexity in the data set by the reduction of amount variables, while as little information as possible is lost. The objectives of applying this method are to select representative variables that are constructed in factors for use in the following multivariate analysis (Malhotra et al., 2017), more precisely to group the underlying objects into clusters and assess their discriminating power. Therefore, a hierarchical cluster analysis is conducted using the previously identified factors. The ultimate objective in this step of the analysis is to find clusters with high intra-homogeneity and high inter-heterogeneity, meaning grouping objects together that are very similar but at the same time have a substantial dissimilarity to objects in other clusters (James, Witten, Hastie, & Tibshirani, 2013). Further, discriminant analysis is used to find out what distinguishes the identified clusters based on the remaining variables included in the dataset, which were not initially included in deriving the clusters. By computing multiple discriminant functions, class membership can be determined for further added objects (Hair, Black C, Babin, & Anderson, 2014). Finally, a multiple regression within each cluster is run to determine which individual factors explain the (potential) difference in attitude towards sponsorship, with a specific focus on the sponsor's portfolio activity.

Factor Analysis

The goal of the factor analysis is to set the base for the segmentation, which builds on factors that describe the psychological attachment to the team. Following the problem statement and the synthesized analysis of the previously discussed theoretical concepts, it is possible to distinguish spectators further in terms of their attitude towards the sponsorship.

As displayed in *Figure 1*, the conceptual model is based on thorough theoretical discussion and analysis of current research and theories. Potential parameters are derived that are believed to affect the spectators' attitude towards the sponsorship, which ultimately is an essential predecessor of sponsorship effectiveness and success. The outlined latent variables are measured through the instrumentation of a questionnaire, where several items are set to collect data on the different concepts. In order to find factors that conceptually provide more logic and reduce the complexity of the data in comparison to the manifest variables, a Q-type, exploratory factor analysis, precisely a principal component analysis (PCA), is

performed. This method is chosen as it will minimize the number of factors to account for the maximum variance within the data set, as it also is a recommended and frequently employed process before continuing with further multivariate analyses (Malhotra et al., 2017).

The underlying factor structure for psychological attachment items is unknown, as is the number of factors, which is why an exploratory, instead of confirmatory factor analysis is conducted. By combining several previous segmentation models, consumer psychology theories, and commitment concepts, the inherent factor structure is unknown. Through the Eigenvalue, an indication for how much of the total variance can be attributed to a specific factor, the number of factors constructed is determined. The cut-off value here lies at 1, as it would not be logical to include factors that explain less of the variance than the standardized variable it is summarizing. The resulting factor matrix shows correlations between the variables, which also aids in determining the appropriateness of factor analysis through the test statistics for sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure for sampling adequacy (Malhotra et al., 2017). In order to provide a more straightforward interpretation of the factor matrix, representing correlations between factors and variables, the factor matrix is transformed through rotation. The goal is to have factors with significant factor loadings for few variables while having variables that only have significant loadings with few factors. The variance explained by each factor might change through rotation and differ among different methods of rotation.

Orthogonal rotation is employed, which assumes that factors are not correlated, and axes are kept at right angles, whereas an oblique rotation allows for factors to be correlated by not keeping factors in a right angle (Hair et al., 2014; Malhotra et al., 2017). It is assumed that variables have the potential to correlate and, therefore, factors, too, given the theoretical context and nature of the items included in the study. However, an orthogonal rotation is employed to ensure that factors fulfill the assumption for uncorrelation in further analysis steps, given the datasets provide the appropriate indicators and significance scores. Factor analysis is first employed on variables relating to the psychological attachment to the team construct, to build the base for the initial clustering. Following, the same way of analysis is conducted for all the other constructs of interest, which are assumed to be influential for the attitude towards sponsorship. Thereby the number of variables is reduced to factors that conceptually provide more sense.

Cluster Analysis

The subsequent cluster analysis determines different segments within the data set based on the previously identified factors. Through hierarchical clustering, objects are partitioned into two or more groups based on dissimilarity between individual objects. Another possibility to compute clusters is partitioning-based (PB) clustering, where predefined K clusters are computed through an iterative procedure by determining prototypes. However, this method is limited by its susceptibility to outliers and the risk of being trapped in local optima (James et al., 2013).

Therefore, hierarchical clustering is chosen for the underlying clustering process due to the additional advantages of the highly interpretive power of dendrograms resulting from this method, as compared to scree plots through PB clustering. Hierarchical clustering provides reproducible clusters, depending on the number of clusters decided to be appropriate after analyzing the metrics and visual aids, and improving explainability. Although advantages for hierarchical clustering outweigh in relation to the underlying research and the specific problem statement at hand, a certain degree of rigidity is present due to the impossibility of undoing individual steps in the clustering process (Han, Kamber, & Tung, 2001).

The goal is to achieve high intra-homogeneity and inter-heterogeneity. With hierarchical clustering, a distinction is to be made between an agglomerative, bottom-up approach, and the divisive top-down approach. Agglomerative hierarchical clustering fuses two similar clusters resulting in n-1 clusters, to then merge the next two most similar clusters to n-2 clusters until all objects ultimately result in one large cluster (James et al., 2013). While divisive hierarchical clustering works oppositely, agglomerative clustering is used for the research at hand for computational reasons.

Depending on the type of linkage, describing the distance between clusters, the resulting dendrogram will look distinct, and therefore clusters are computed differently (James et al., 2013; Malhotra et al., 2017). The most commonly used combination is the (squared) Euclidean distance and Ward's linkage. For the underlying dataset, Ward's linkage is used as opposed to the single, complete, or median linkage, as the former minimizes within-cluster variance instead of measuring the distance between closest or farthest objects in the dataset making it highly susceptible to outliers (Malhotra et al., 2017). In combination with the said type of linkage, it is advised to apply squared Euclidean distance.

While this method is ultimately applied, several other combinations with Manhattan and Maximum distance are tested to obtain the most suitable option (James et al., 2013).

The number of clusters is determined based on the obtained dendrogram, as well as the agglomeration schedule. At this step, a feature of discriminant analysis is used to evaluate cluster solutions by examining the predictive power through the resulting hit ratio. It shows classification accuracy by indicating how many of the original cases would be correctly classified, based on the same variables used for segmenting (Hair et al., 2014). Ultimately, the clusters are aimed to represent individual "personas" and characteristics inherent in the sample population, preferably with high discriminant power, to derive appropriate results and interpretations.

Discriminant Analysis

In the third step of the underlying analytical process, discriminant analysis is used to determine what differentiates the different clusters, i.e. the extent to which independent, interval scaled variables can explain the variation in the dependent, nominal variable, namely class membership. Discriminant analysis is not to be confused with multiple regression, where independent variables are regressed against dependent interval variables to explore the extent of how far these variables can predict the outcome of the dependent variable. The objective with (multiple) discriminant analysis is to develop discriminant functions that are best suitable to discriminate between the groups of the dependent variable, in order to determine which predictor variables, contribute most to the differences existing among the groups, i.e., the inter-group differences.

There are several assumptions with discriminant analysis that need to be met, including normality of independent variables, the linearity of relationships, equal dispersion of matrices as well as the lack of multicollinearity among the factors employed as predictor variables. Using the before computed orthogonal rotated factors, the latter assumption is ensured to be met. The previous assumptions are examined through validity measures as subsequently further elaborated. Additionally, membership is defined by the dependent, categorical variable representing the cluster groups (Hair et al., 2014).

Variables that are to be included in the discriminant function are most often selected in a stepwise procedure, where the variable with the highest discrimination is selected first, then a second variable that,

in combination with the first, will provide the best discrimination and so on. This forward procedure continues until either all variables are included or until no additional variable would add significant discriminating power. While there is also the backward selection process, starting with all variables but risking removing variables that weaken another variable's discriminant power, it is also possible to select a maximum set of variables. In order to obtain an optimal set of variables and cater to the purpose of the research to include a relatively large set of variables, a forward stepwise selection is chosen (Hair et al., 2014; Malhotra et al., 2017). Finally, the derived discriminant functions are used to determine the difference between the cluster groups, based on the relative weight of each variable per function. The higher the weight, the more the variable contributes to the discrimination. In addition, discriminant loadings are used for interpretation through which different functions can be labeled, and conceptual and theoretical meaning is derived. Correspondingly, a visualization of the discriminant functions is displayed in a territorial map and scatter plot, which is used for interpretation and deriving conceptual meanings (Hair et al., 2014).

Multiple Regression

In the final step of the present analysis process, multiple regression is conducted to determine what predicts the attitude towards sponsorship for each identified group of spectators and to what extent the difference in attitude can be explained by the independent variables involved, namely the general attitude towards sponsorship, the perceived fit within the property's sponsorship portfolio, self-congruence, congruence, exposure to sponsorship, sponsor's ubiquity, sincerity and prominence, the attitude towards the sponsor and the sponsor's other sponsorship portfolio activities measured by two variables pre- and post-information about bespoken activities. The preferred non-zero R2 value tests the regression's significance for both the overall regression as well as by a partial F Test for partial regression coefficients. Examining the residuals will further add to evaluate the regression’s significance.

Similar to the discriminant analysis, the predictor variables are chosen by a stepwise selection procedure to obtain the set of variables that account for most of the variation. While it is also possible to either forward include or backward eliminate variables based on a cut-off value for the F ratio, the stepwise solution is a combined procedure where variables can also be removed again after being added if they do not meet the criteria anymore (Malhotra et al., 2017). A critical and inherent limitation to

multiple and stepwise regression is multicollinearity, which describes high intercorrelations among the predictor variables. However, similar to the discriminant analysis, the predictor variables are computed through the principal component analysis in the first step with orthogonal rotation. Consequently, these predictors are not correlated, and therefore the risk of multicollinearity is minimized (Hair et al., 2014; Malhotra et al., 2017). To determine the relative importance of the predictors, a collection of measures are examined to obtain useful insights, such as the statistical significance, partial coefficients or beta weights that take into account effects of other predictor variables and the stepwise regression through which the order of inclusion or removal can infer the relative importance of the variables (Malhotra et al., 2017).

Research Ethics

Throughout the process of topic choice to develop a research design and data collection methods, the researchers are subject to ethical considerations. While these considerations underlie the researcher's judgment, no harm, personal embarrassment, or material disadvantage for the research population can follow the chosen research design (Saunders et al., 2009). Further, even though the spectator is referred to with the male gender pronoun for simplification, it is not with the intent to exclude any gender.

Generally, research ethics are susceptible to the researchers' own values and principles. Addressing several general ethical issues as participants' privacy and anonymity, volunteer nature of participants, consent of participants, maintenance of confidentiality of provided data as well as the researchers' behavior and objectivity, several measures have been taken on to ensure proper conduct.

In the research process at hand, voluntary participants were informed to be part of a research study before giving consent. The overall objective for the research was explained, and responses are treated anonymously by referring participants to online questionnaire access through an anonymous link or QR-Code. The researchers approached every potential participant in the same manner and used the same wording for all actions taken for distribution, online, and offline. Provided personal information by the participant, specifically, their email addresses were optional and inserted voluntarily. Lastly, collected data is treated confidentially and anonymously to allow honest answers (Saunders et al., 2009).

Validity and Reliability

Ensuring credible research findings and finding the right answer to the investigated research problem can be achieved by drawing attention to the reliability and validity of the research design, analytical models, and by critically reviewing the literature.

Methodological Credibility

Reliability within research findings translates into replicability, transparency, and consistency of results (Saunders et al., 2009). Analyzing common threats to reliability according to Saunders (2009), such as participant or observer error, it can be concluded that by conducting quantitative, descriptive research, high data reliability is ensured by executing a structured survey research approach. It ensures little bias through the researcher's influence by asking questions in different ways, as it would be the case in personal interview research settings or other qualitative methods. Additionally, by ensuring anonymous data entry through an online survey form, participant bias in the form of pressured answers is mitigated. However, observer bias, i.e., researcher bias, can be said to be inherent when related to data analysis and interpretation. As the interpretation of results is a vital part of the research project, and subjectivity is an unavoidable part of data interpretation, the researchers acknowledge such and consider the existence of bias when interpreting data, proposing recommendations and courses of action. Reliability and consistency for the operated questionnaire can be administered by re-tests, where the correlation of data is examined, i.e., administering the questionnaire twice to respondents (Mitchell, 1996). However, limited by the scope of the research project, the researchers ensure reliability not only by implementing previously proven measurement scales but also by internal consistency that concerns correlating responses between questions. In operational terms, a test question is included in the questionnaire flow to ensure full attention and engagement by respondents and to further strengthen the consistency and reliability of the questionnaire design.

Research validity is concerned with whether results are actually about what they appear to be, i.e., if they capture the actual phenomenon under investigation. Similar to research reliability, there are obstacles to research validity that can be evoked through historical events happening right before the research is conducted and therefore alter results or instrumentation of how to respond to the research design, i.e., the survey questions (Saunders et al., 2009). The researchers are confident in the chosen

research design to prove to instrumentalize objective research results by stating clear and structured questions that are identical to all respondents. By investigating rather broad aspects of the stakeholder relationship, instead of specific sponsorship changes that are influenced by, e.g., match results close to the data collection time frame. In addition, external validity or generalizability is referring to whether the research results found to apply to other research settings, for example, distinct organizations or industries. The scope generalizability of conclusions and proposed theoretical implications have to be assessed after the data collection and analysis of results; however, a longitudinal and cross-industry research design reaches the constraints of the presented research project (Saunders et al., 2009).

In Factor Analysis, reliability of variables and adequacy of using the analysis can be examined by different measures and assumptions. Assumptions for normality, homoscedasticity, and linearity apply, however, to the extent that observed correlations are decreased. Testing for normality is relevant as the significance of the extracted factors is tested throughout the later stages of analysis. The degree of interrelatedness needs to be evaluated for the factor analysis, as the objective is to identify sets of correlated variables (Hair et al., 2014). Several measures can be employed for intercorrelation, most commonly the visual interpretation of the correlation matrix, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, and the prior mentioned KMO measure, with values above 0.5 as being acceptable (Malhotra et al., 2017). Bartlett's test of sphericity examines whether the hypothesis, stating that the population correlation matrix is an identity matrix, can be rejected. If one fails to do so, the factor analysis is deemed to be less appropriate. Lastly, to evaluate individual variables' reliability inherent in the factors model, the communalities of original variables are examined, indicating the proportion of variance explained by all extracted factors. This indicator shows the variance extracted for each variable, which is then summarized in the respective factor (ibid).

For the cluster analysis, the appropriateness and validity will be evaluated based on the visual representation in a dendrogram and the agglomeration schedule, to examine whether suitable clusters can be derived. While it is theoretically determined to choose Ward's Linkage and squared Euclidean distance, several distance and linkage combinations are tested to obtain the optimal solution. Further, as described before, discriminant analysis is run, which tests how many of the original objects will be assigned to the same cluster again, given the variables used to form the clusters (Malhotra et al., 2017).

Before testing for the individual factor's significance in discriminating the identified clusters, the assumption for multivariate normal distribution in the population from which the groups are drawn, and linearity have to be met (Hair et al., 2014). Wilk's Lambda builds the basis to test the statistical significance of the discriminant function resulting from the discriminant analysis. If it proves significant, the null hypothesis of having equal means in all groups for all discriminant functions can be rejected (Malhotra et al., 2017). To assess the equality of covariance matrices, Box's M test is used to assess the significance between groups, where a nonsignificant probability level is aimed at. For normality and linearity assumptions, the normality probability plot and scree plot are examined. By including a non-metric dependent variable, a measure for model fit as R^2 is not possible for discriminant analysis. Moreover, each observation would need to be investigated on classification accuracy. Here the hit ratio and correlation matrix are useful to determine the predictive ability of the discriminant functions. Further, the percentage of correctly classified cases based on cross-validation serves as an additional indicator, where each case is classified by the functions derived from all other cases. For both, unequal group size is accounted for.

To further assess the overall fit of the discriminant functions, the respective discriminant Z scores can be calculated for every observation, or object, evaluating the contribution of the predictor variables. The first assessment of the overall model fit can here be derived by the magnitude of the difference of the Z score between members of each group. Group centroids are the average discriminant Z score for the whole group and can, therefore, be used as a summary measure for group differences. These scores can also be used to predict class membership's prediction accuracy, and therefore play an important role in the model adequacy and interpretation process (Hair et al., 2014).

Finally, with multiple regression, R^2 and the partial regression coefficients are indicative of appropriateness and significance of the regression results, as is the evaluation of the residuals. Another additional method to evaluate whether the built model holds for comparable data is done by cross-validating with a test sample, obtained by splitting the available data set in two separate sets, of which one is used to build the sample and the test sample to specifically bespoken regression model. However, it has to be evaluated if the resulting sample size allows for a hold-out sample valid in size (Malhotra et al., 2017).

Validity of Extant Literature

The literature referenced in the secondary data analysis can be seen as a "purposive sample of studies [selected by the researcher] that fit self-established criteria" (Dellinger, 2005). These self-established criteria are derived from the research philosophy. Grounded within Pragmatism, the selection of a purposive sample of literature follows the research problem at hand and aids in developing and executing a study that improves the general practice. Selecting a purposive sample is in accordance with Cooper (1998), who states that a literature review that introduces a new study has a restricted extent, as it will be limited to "theoretical works as empirical studies pertaining to the specific issues addressed" (ibid, p. 3). The chosen literature sample is analyzed in a way that patterns and meanings are deduced from an aggregate evaluation of findings of the set of studies. The result is an overall assessment of the body of literature examined. Cooper (1998) further elaborates by highlighting the importance of the degree of care taken in the review process.

In his model of validity, Messick (1995) treats validity as a unitary construct to the measurement of psychological constructs. Following Dellinger (2005), the evaluation of the validity of the literature included in the above review will use the term "measure" to refer generically to data generated by any data gathering process. Thereby, both quantitative and qualitative data from previous research are included in the evaluation process. This meaning of measure, which Messick (1995) labels construct validity, is placed at the core of validity, encompassing all forms of validity evidence. According to Messick (1995), the process of literature validation requires the "empirical evaluation of the meaning and consequences of measurement" (p.747). The term empirical evaluation is meant to convey that the validation process is scientific as well as rhetorical and requires both evidence and argument. Consequently, evaluative judgments of the validity of selected literature are made as to the study's credibility, worth, quality, and trustworthiness. The research validity will be evaluated by examining both traditional measurements, such as construct validity, content validity, credibility, and trustworthiness, as well as design-related validity, such as internal and external validity and generalizability (ibid). Eventually, a concluding assessment is made of the appropriateness of the inferences made in the used literature (Dellinger, 2005; Messick, 1995). The selection, synthesis, interpretation, and evaluation of the literature ultimately constitute the perceived meaning of the conducted study.

The validity of the key literature used in the preceding review is established. Nonetheless, it remains important to mention that validation of measure, and thus literature, is a continuous process, as the pragmatic belief is that reality is not static, but changes constantly (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). Following Dellinger (2005), this paper assumes that "inferences from measures, consequences of those interpretations, use of inferences and consequences of use are part of the evidence continuously accumulated to demonstrate construct validity" (p.43). Such an accumulative process goes hand in hand with the pragmatic worldview, which doubts that reality because it is not static, can never be determined once and for all (Pansiri, 2005). In an attempt to accumulate knowledge, however, the researchers gain experience, which serves as a benchmark for the knowledge gained through the evaluation of literature (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019).

Statistical Results

Having conducted the previously described analysis steps, the results will be presented and analyzed. The entire frame of data collection amounts to 28 days, starting on the 27th of February 2020. The included filter is operationalized through questions one and two in the questionnaire, determining the respondents' affiliation to the pre-specified population as well as through the included test question (Appendix E, E-Test7) for respondents' attention, cleaning data for invalid response recordings. As all items are instrumentalized on equal, 7-point interval Likert-scales, standardization or normalization of data is concluded not to be needed. Further, extracted factors that will be used in subsequent stages of the analysis are automatically standardized after computation. After filters are applied, a total of 151 valid responses, out of 276 response entries, remain. Subsequently, results in order of Factor Analysis (Appendix G), Cluster Analysis (Appendix H), Discriminant Analysis (Appendix I), and Multiple Regression (Appendix J) are presented, and the first findings are drawn. For all four steps in the analysis, SPSS 26.0 (IBM Corp., 2019) is used. In most statistical research, a validation, or hold-out sample is used to test the validity of the extracted model. Here, a validation sample could be employed to test the classification power of both the cluster analysis and the discriminant functions as well as by cross-validation for the results in multiple regression (Hair et al., 2014). As stated by Hair (2014), a minimum size of 100 respondents in the total sample would be needed to justify the division of the sample. However, the resulting number of valid data entries results to be relatively small, even though above the threshold of 100, as discussed subsequently. To ensure a large enough sample size for the construction

of the models, and to derive insights, the researchers decide to rely on other measures of validity and appropriateness as previously introduced.

Before focusing on the different analysis steps, the demographic information of the sample population needs to be analyzed. Out of a total of 151 respondents, 114 indicated to be male and 31 respondents as female, with the remaining six respondents preferring not to disclose gender. The vast majority of respondents, 90.1%, are Swedish and, together with the gender distribution, a demographic distribution that was expected by the researchers. In terms of educational background, respondents holding a Bachelor's, Master's, or High School diploma are almost equally distributed with 25.2%, 31.1% and 25.2% of the sample population, respectively. Finally, 73.5% of respondents indicated to be employed full-time, and 14.6% classified as students. Looking at the age distribution after recoding the same variable into equal age intervals, it is reasonably equally distributed ranging from 17 to 86, where age groups 18-24, 25-34, 35-44, and 45-54 are represented with 13.9%, 31.8%, 26.5%, and 17.2% respectively (Appendix F, Table F1-5).

Factor Analysis

To explore the factor structure for items relating to the psychological attachment to the team, 18 individual items employed in the questionnaire were included in the first exploratory factor analysis, more precisely principal component analysis, with orthogonal rotation (Varimax). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure indicates adequacy for the factor analysis in regard to the sample at hand, with KMO = 0.885. Simultaneously, Bartlett's test of sphericity, $\chi 2$ (153) = 1625.785, p<0.001, shows significant results within the correlation structure (Appendix G, Table G3). Examining the variables' communalities, only two variables show lower values for extracted variances, Hedonic2, and Hedonic3, which could indicate a potential struggle to load into one factor significantly (Appendix G, Table G4).

The resulting correlation matrix shows a determinant <0.0001, indicating multicollinearity between individual items (Appendix G, Table G2). However, it seems to make sense that these manifest variables correlate amongst each other and that variables with high correlations are loaded into the same factor. By rotating orthogonally, the resulting factors cannot be correlated, for which problems inherent with multicollinearity are not given for further analysis steps, and the determinant score close to the cut-off value is accepted here. Including a cut-off point of 0.4 for factor loadings to facilitate reading and

interpretation of the resulting table and the criterion for Eigenvalues to be greater than 1, three factors are extracted, which explain 61.79% of the total variance (Appendix G, Table G5).

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	Community Motives	*Hedonic Motives*	*Trust Motives*
Commitment1	,892		
Commitment2	,866		
Psychological Connection motives5	,821		
Psychological Connection motives1	,820		
Social influence motives1	,792		
Trust1	,730		,442
Commitment3	,719		
Psychological Connection motives4	,709		
Hedonic motives4	,700		
Psychological Connection motives3	,668	,436	
Hedonic motives1		,722	
Social influence motives2		,648	
Social influence motives3		,624	
Hedonic motives3		,528	
Hedonic motives2		,507	
Psychological Connection motives2		,494	,465
Trust2			,825
Trust3			,800

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Table 1 Factor loadings for analysis of psychological attachment to team attributes.

Interpreting the rotated component matrix (*Table 1*) with factor loadings of each variable larger than 0.4 into the respective factor, it is possible to label the factors accordingly. The first factor can be labeled as *Community Motives*, as all variables loading into that factor contribute to the bespoken concept. For example, items labeled *Commitment1-3* relate to the spectators' devotion, dedication, and commitment to MFF. Further items describe the personal involvement, feeling of connectivity to the team, and the sense of being part of the community with MFF playing a vital role in the spectators' daily routine, seen in *Psychological Connection Motives 1, 3-5*. Interestingly, *Trust1* loads into the *Community Motives* factor, whereas the other two, *Trust2* and *Trust3*, are loaded into the third factor, labeled *Trust Motives*. Looking at the items employed in the instrumented questionnaire, *Trust1* states “I can count on MFF as a team and as a club” (*Table 2*), where *Trust2* and *Trust3* relate to MFF's integrity and reliability as a club, excluding the facet of individual involvement. The second factor has six variables loaded into that all relate to entertaining, leisure motives, and reasons, therefore it is labeled *Hedonic Motives*. Examples include aspects of attending MFF games for spending time with friends, for enjoyment, and the thrill of

the game as well as for the chance to escape one's daily routine. It is notable that here the escape of the routine is inherent, whereas for the *Community Motives* factor attending games is seen as part of the daily routine.

Item	Variable	Factor
I am devoted to MFF	Commitment1	Community Motives
I am dedicated to MFF	Commitment2	
I am committed to MFF	Commitment3	
When MFF loses a game, I feel sad.	Psychological Connection motives1	
I attend MFF games because I feel being a part of the MFF community.	Social influence motives1	
I come to MFF games in order to feel connected to MFF.	Psychological Connection motives3	
I feel a personal sense of achievement when the team does well.	Psychological Connection motives4	
It is important to me that MFF wins.	Psychological Connection motives5	
For me, MFF games are a part of my daily routine.	Hedonic motives4	
I can count on MFF as a team and as a club.	Trust1	
Wanting to spend time with my friends is one reason to go to MFF games.	Social influence motives2	Hedonic Motives
The opportunity to spend time with my family is why I like attending MFF games.	Social influence motives3	
One reason I attend MFF games is because the team plays hard all the time and the players do their best.	Psychological Connection motives2	
The main reason I attend MFF games is because of the experience.	Hedonic motives1	
I enjoy watching MFF games because of the thrill and excitement of the competition.	Hedonic motives2	
For me, MFF games are a good chance to escape from my daily routine.	Hedonic motives3	
MFF as a club has integrity.	Trust2	Trust Motives
MFF is reliable.	Trust3	

Table 2 Item overview with factors for psychological attachment to the team. Own Creation.

Following, a similar factor analysis is conducted with the remaining concepts that are found to be influential on spectators' attitude towards sponsorship. From the 45 items, in total ten factors are derived that conceptually make more sense than the original manifest variables and explain 71,5% of the total variance (Appendix G, Table G12). The items used in this step are all derived from existing theoretical models representing different aspects. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure, as well as Barlett's Test of Sphericity, indicate appropriateness for the factor analysis as the employed method, with KMO = 0.872 and Bartlett's test of sphericity, $\chi 2$ (990) = 4889.669, $p < 0.001$ (Appendix G, Table G10). As before, the cut-off value for showing factor loadings above 0.4 is included as well as the criterion for Eigenvalues greater than 1. Communalities for the initial individual variables generally show a large proportion of variance extracted (Appendix G, Table G11), except for one item (AttitudeSponsorship4), which was instrumentalized as "It makes sense to me that Puma sponsors these properties" (*Table 4*). In addition, given the low determinant value for correlations, through orthogonal rotation, limitations through multicollinearity are not present for the created factors that will subsequently be used in further analysis steps.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component									
	Sponsors Portfolio Activity's	Identification with Sponsor	Attitude towards Sponsor	Perceived Fit Property Portfolio	Exposure Sponsorship	Attitude Sponsorship	Sponsor's Ubiquity	Sponsorship as Means	Sponsor's Commercial Intent	Commercialization
PostKnowledge1	,937									
PostKnowledge3	,933									
PostKnowledge2	,921									
PreKnowledge3	,921									
PreKnowledge2	,907									
PreKnowledge1	,882									
Congruence3	,512	,448								
Congruence5	,472		,448							
SelfCongruence2		,859								
SelfCongruence3		,814								
SelfCongruence1		,809								
SelfCongruence4		,640								
GeneralAttitude3		,536								
Congruence2		,501	,419							
Sincerity2		,469				,425				
Sincerity3										
AttitudeSponsor4			,677							
AttitudeSponsor2			,676							
AttitudeSponsor3			,667							
AttitudeSponsor1			,636							
Prominence2			,536							
Congruence4			,536							
Prominence1			,492				,453			
Congruence1			,480							
PerceivedFitProperty3				,853						
PerceivedFitProperty2				,835						
PerceivedFitProperty4				,806						
PerceivedFitProperty1				,779						
PerceivedFitProperty5				,633						
Exposure2					,835					
Exposure3					,763					
Exposure1		,425			,703					
AttitudeSponsorship3						,701				
AttitudeSponsorship2						,665				
AttitudeSponsorship4						,513				
AttitudeSponsorship1						,493				
Ubiquity2							,801			
Ubiquity3							,717			
Ubiquity1							,641			
Prominence3			,444				,463			
GeneralAttitude5								,777		
GeneralAttitude4								,665		
GeneralAttitude2									,730	
Sincerity1						,438			,447	
GeneralAttitude1										,802

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]
a. Rotation converged in 20 iterations.

Table 3 Factor loadings for analysis of remaining items for discriminant analysis.

In contrast to the proposed conceptual model, where twelve factors are assumed, ten different factors result to be inherent in the data structure. The Rotated Component Matrix, as seen in *Table 3*, presents factor loadings with values above 0.4 and allows for conceptual interpretation of the different variables loading into respective factors. Factor one can be labeled as *Sponsor's Portfolio Activities*, summarized of variables relating to aspects concerning the spectators' evaluation of the sponsor with and without provided information of bespoken sponsorship activities that the sponsor engages in, as well as two variables that relate to the fit between sponsor and property. The second factor summarizes variables referring to self-congruence between spectator and sponsor and the extent to which the spectator relates himself with it. Additionally, an item questioning the assessment of the sponsor's sincerity is included in the factor which is labeled *Identification with Sponsor*. *Attitude towards Sponsor*, the third factor, summarizes variables relating to how the sponsor is viewed individually and how the sponsor is viewed in relation to the sponsorship activities it engages in.

Factor four, five, six, and seven are labeled *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio*, *Sponsorship Exposure*, *Attitude towards Sponsorship* with respect to the specific sponsorship between Puma and MFF under investigation and *Sponsor's Ubiquity*, respectively. Interestingly, these four factors describe the same factor structure and summarize the same items as analyzed in the previous theoretical analysis of existing research (Chien, Pappu & Cornwell; Speed & Thompson, 2000; Weeks, Cornwell & Drennan, 2008). The eighth factor identified comprises variables that were set out to identify the spectators' general attitude towards commercialization and their attitude towards the importance of sponsorship in sports, labeled *Sponsorship as Means*. The last two identified factors are labeled *Sponsor's Commercial Intent* and *Commercialization*, respectively. These two factors are weaker in terms of their explanatory power for the total variance, seen in the Eigenvalues of 1.18 and 1.004, respectively (Appendix G, Table G12). The former summarizes the extent to which a sponsor engages in a solely commercial relationship with a focus on economic benefits. The latter rarely made the cut to be considered as a factor, which is taken into consideration when further discussing the results and encompasses the level of commercialization of the soccer industry.

Item	Variable	Factor	Factor ID
Puma and MFF fit well together.	Congruence3	Sponsor's Portfolio Activities	F1_A
It makes sense to me that Puma sponsors MFF.	Congruence5		
Overall, my attitude toward Puma is: - Extremely good (1) to Extremely bad (7)	PreKnowledge1		
Overall, my attitude toward Puma is: - Like a great deal (1) to Dislike a great deal (7)	PreKnowledge2		
Overall, my attitude toward Puma is: - Extremely positive (1) to Extremely negative (7)	PreKnowledge3		
Overall, my attitude toward Puma is: - Extremely good (1) to Extremely bad (7)	PostKnowledge1		
Overall, my attitude toward Puma is: - Like a great deal (1) to Dislike a great deal (7)	PostKnowledge2		
Overall, my attitude toward Puma is: - Extremely positive (1) to Extremely negative (7)	PostKnowledge3		
Wearing Puma products in casual situations is consistent with how i see myself	SelfCongruence1	Identification with the Sponsor	F2_A
Wearing Puma products in casual situations reflects who i am	SelfCongruence2		
People similiar to me wear Puma products in casual situations	SelfCongruence3		
I can relate to Puma and Puma's values in a way I can't relate to other companies.	SelfCongruence4		
The image of MFF and the image of Puma are similiar.	Congruence2		
Puma would be likely to have best interests of the sport at heart.	Sincerity2		
I am more likely to buy products from companies that are official sponsors.	GeneralAttitude3		
There is a logical connection between MFF and Puma	Congruence1	Attitude towards the Sponsor	F3_A
Puma and MFF stand for similiar things.	Congruence4		
Puma is well known.	Prominence1		
Puma is highly regarded in the industry.	Prominence2		
I perceive the sponsoring activities of Puma to be coherent and with a logical connection among the	AttitudeSponsor1		
The sponsorship of MFF makes sense within Pumas portfolio.	AttitudeSponsor2		
The image of Puma's sponsored entities are similar	AttitudeSponsor3		
It makes sense to me that Puma sponsors these properties.	AttitudeSponsor4		
There is a logical connection among the main partners.	PerceivedFitProperty1	Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio	F4_A
The image of the main partners are similar.	PerceivedFitProperty2		
The main partners fit well together.	PerceivedFitProperty3		
The main partners stand for similar things.	PerceivedFitProperty4		
It makes sense to me that the main partners sponsor MFF.	PerceivedFitProperty5		
I have had a lot of experience with the sponsorship between Puma and MFF.	Exposure1	Exposure to Sponsorship	F5_A
I am highly knowledgeable about the sponsorship between Puma and MFF.	Exposure2		
I would describe myself as being familiar with the sponsorship between Puma and MFF.	Exposure3		
I feel included in MFF decision making processes.	AttitudeSponsorship1	Attitude towards Sponsorship	F6_A
Compared to other football clubs, MFF has a good sponsorship concept.	AttitudeSponsorship2		
I am aware of the fact that MFF has a unique sponsorship concept compared to other clubs in Allsven	AttitudeSponsorship3		
I am aware of the fact that, unrelated to a sponsor's original colors, all branding is in MFF color	AttitudeSponsorship4		
Puma sponsors many different sports.	Ubiquity1	Ubiquity of Sponsor	F7_A
It is very common to see Puma sponsoring football clubs.	Ubiquity2		
I expect Puma to sponsor bigger football clubs.	Ubiquity3		
Puma is one of the most capable firms in the sports industry.	Prominence3		
Official sponsors of soccer should not try to commercialize the industry.	GeneralAttitude4	Sponsorship as Means	F8_A
Sponsorships are an important part of the soccer industry.	GeneralAttitude5		
The main reason Puma would be involved with MFF is because Puma believes that MFF deserves Support.	Sincerity1	Sponsor's Sincerity	F9_A
The fact that a company is an official sponsor of a soccer club has no impact on my purchase decis	GeneralAttitude2		
I feel that soccer is too commercialized.	GeneralAttitude1	Commercalization	F10_A

Table 4 Item Overview with Factors for Discriminant Analysis. Own Creation.

Cluster Analysis

Running the Cluster Analysis on the before determined three factors for Psychological Attachment to the Team, four Clusters are found. Squared Euclidean Distance and Ward's Linkage are found to provide the most suitable result for the underlying dataset as these created the highest inter-heterogeneity between clusters compared to other combinations tested, including Manhattan Distance, Euclidean Distance and Single, Complete and Median Linkage (Appendix K). Given that there is no precisely defined stopping rule for hierarchical cluster analysis, information combined from the Dendrogram, Agglomeration Schedule, and Discriminant Analysis is used (Bratchell, 1989). Analyzing the Agglomeration Schedule (Appendix H, Table H1), the most substantial difference in coefficients is seen in the last four stages. This conclusion is supported by the visual analysis of the dendrogram (*Figure 4*), as well as the hit ratio

resulting from the discriminant analysis that is run with the factors used for clustering. It shows that for four Clusters, 96.7% of initially grouped cases are correctly classified, where five and three clusters each indicate that 93.4% of original grouped cases are correctly assigned (Appendix H, Tables H2-H4).

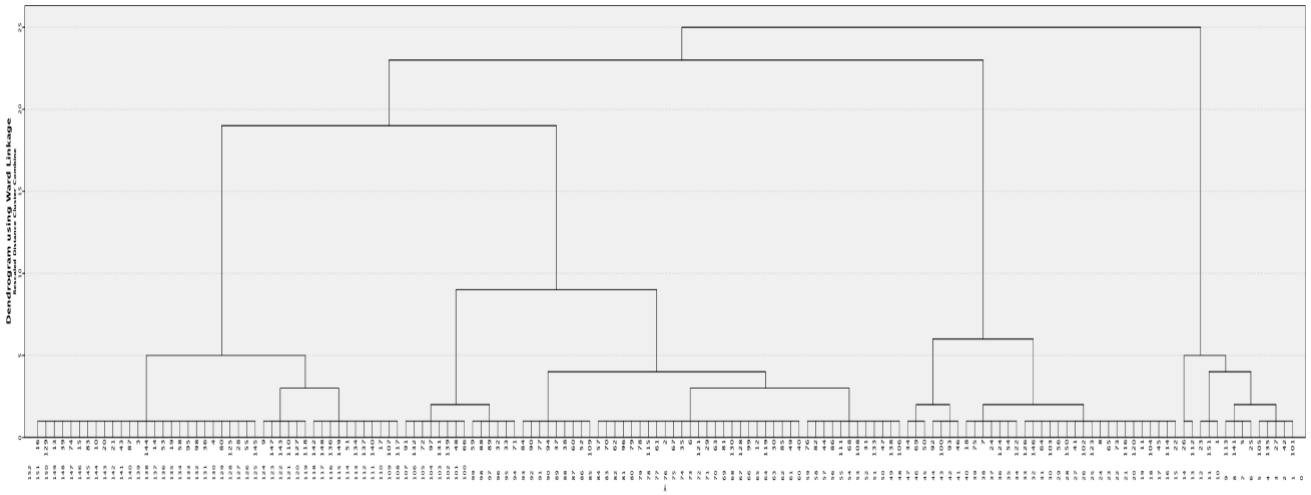

Figure 4 Dendrogram with Ward's linkage and Squared Euclidean Distance

Within the four identified clusters, 9.3% of the cases are grouped in Cluster 1, 39.7% in Cluster 2, 29.1% in Cluster 3, and 21.9% in Cluster 4 (Appendix H, Table H5). The largest age groups present show to be 25 to 34 and 35 to 44 across Clusters, where Cluster 2 also shows a larger group at 45-54 years old (Appendix H, Table H7). It is visible in the dendrogram that Cluster 1 is split distinctively from the other cases and clusters, indicating a potentially stronger discriminating power. In addition, following the visual analysis of the dendrogram where correlated clusters are closer to the bottom of the diagram with less distance, Clusters 2 and 4 are closer related when increasing in distance than to any of the other two clusters (*Figure 4*).

Running a one-way ANOVA to compare means of the standardized factors between the identified clusters shows significant differences in means for *Community Motives*, *Hedonic Motives* and *Trust Motives* for $p<.01$ and $F(3, 147) = 86.786$ ($p = 0.000$), $F(3, 147) = 55.94$ ($p = 0.000$) and $F(3, 147) = 40.036$ ($p = 0.000$), respectively. Before analyzing differences and discriminating factors more detailed in the third analysis step, it is noteworthy that for *Community Motives*, Cluster 1 reports a mean of 2.37 whereas Clusters 2,3 and 4 report means between -0.522 and 0.444. Likewise, for *Hedonic Motives*, Cluster 4 reports a distinctive mean of 1.082 while the remaining three clusters show mean values

between -0.961 and 0.156. Finally, for *Trust Motives*, Cluster 1 and 2 report similar means of 0.59 and 0.683 whereas Cluster 3 and 4 report means of -0.465 and -0.872, respectively (Table 5).

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Community_Motives	Between Groups	95,871	3	31,957	86,786	,000
	Within Groups	54,129	147	,368		
	Total	150,000	150			
Hedonic_Motives	Between Groups	79,960	3	26,653	55,940	,000
	Within Groups	70,040	147	,476		
	Total	150,000	150			
Trust_Motives	Between Groups	67,449	3	22,483	40,036	,000
	Within Groups	82,551	147	,562		
	Total	150,000	150			

Table 5 ANOVA 4-cluster solution.

Discriminant Analysis

The Discriminant Analysis is conducted with cluster membership as the dependent variable and the ten factors computed in the second factor analysis as independent variables, in order to assess their discriminating power between the clusters. The discriminant analysis results in three discriminant functions. Employing a stepwise selection of variables, Wilk's Lambda and the default criteria of the probability of an F value between 0.05 and 0.1 is selected. Analyzing the test of equality for group means, significant results at 1% significance level (alpha) are found for *Identification with Sponsor* (F2_A) with Wilks' Lambda=0.889, $F(3,137)=5.71$, $p=0.001$ and *Attitude towards Sponsorship* (F6_A) with Wilks' Lambda=0.838, $F(3,137)=8.839$, $p=0.000$. *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio* (F4_A) provides significance results at a higher alpha of 5%, Wilks' Lambda=0.933, $F(3,137)=3.295$, $p=0.023$, while *Commercialization* (F10_A) shows to be significant at the 10% level, however, is not included in this step of the analysis, Wilks' Lambda=0.949, $F(3,137)=2.449$, $p=0.066$ (Table 6). The stepwise method, resulting in the three variables included in the analysis, *Identification with Sponsor*, *Attitude towards Sponsorship* and *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio,* shows that *Identification with Sponsor* increases in discriminatory ability by the addition of *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio*, as indicated by a lower value for Wilks' Lambda.

Tests of Equality of Group Means

	Wilks' Lambda	F	df1	df2	Sig.
F1_A	,980	,954	3	137	,417
F2_A	,889	5,707	3	137	,001
F3_A	,977	1,056	3	137	,370
F4_A	,933	3,295	3	137	,023
F5_A	,987	,607	3	137	,612
F6_A	,838	8,839	3	137	,000
F7_A	,982	,819	3	137	,485
F8_A	,994	,283	3	137	,838
F9_A	,991	,407	3	137	,748
F10_A	,949	2,449	3	137	,066

Table 6 Test of Equality of Group Means.

Turning to Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices, the null hypothesis is failed to be rejected at Box's M=14.72, $F(18,10298)=0.771$, $p=0.737$, with log determinants not showing too substantial differences (Appendix I, Table I4). It can be assumed to have equal population covariance matrices and that the respective assumption is met (Appendix I, Table I4). Additionally, the examination of correlation matrices and the normal probability plot indicates that the assumption of multivariate normal distribution and linear relationships between independent variables are met (Appendix I, Figure I1-10). Further, analyzing group centroids for an overall assessment of the model fit, it can be seen that Cluster 1 and 3 share close group centroids on function 2 and very close on function 3. Similarly, Cluster 2 and 4 show close average group means on function 1 as well as on function 2 (*Table 7*). Assessing the validity of the discriminant analysis, the hit ratio indicates 49.6% of original grouped cases as correctly classified, under the premise of unequal group sizes. A slightly lower ratio is obtained for the automatic conducted cross-validation of grouped cases, with 45.4% correctly classified (Appendix I, Table I15). Often compared to the chance ratio, indicating the hit ratio if cases would be classified by chance, it yields 25%. The improvement in predictive accuracy and validity, although not tremendously large, is given.

Functions at Group Centroids

	Function		
Ward Method	1	2	3
1	1,418	-,514	-,057
2	,079	,198	,139
3	-,558	-,375	-,019
4	,001	,355	-,202

Unstandardized canonical discriminant functions evaluated at group means

Table 7 Functions at Group Centroids.

The three variables, *Identification with Sponsor, Attitude towards Sponsorship,* and *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio* are included in the analysis, where the last shows to be less significant with Wilks' Lambda=0.744 and p=0.013. The Eigenvalues for the different functions show that the first function accounts for 68.9% of the variance, the second for 26.9% and the third for 4.2%, indicating the latter to be less of discriminating power than the first two. Wilks' Lambda tests significant for function 1 and 2 at the alpha level of 1% and 5%, respectively (Appendix I, Table I8).

The third function shows a p-value of p=0.123 and therefore proves not to be significant at the 10% level. Nonetheless, with more than two clusters involved one could also consider nonsignificant functions with significance levels up to 0.3 to add in explanatory power of the model (Hair et al., 2014). Therefore, the third function is included in further analysis and interpretation of results, with the researcher's awareness of its higher p-value and less strong discriminating power in comparison to function 1 and 2 (Appendix I, Table I9). Given that only one factor per function proves significant, it could be assumed that the smaller sample size affects this result and hypothesized that with a larger sample more variables would have reached the threshold for significance to the respective function.

To interpret the results, the standardized discriminant function coefficients, structure correlation matrix, territorial map, as well as scatter plot are examined (Malhotra et al., 2017). The standardized coefficients show a larger coefficient for *Attitude towards Sponsorship* on function 1, whereas *Identification with Sponsor* indicates an even higher coefficient for function 2 and *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio* for function 3 (*Table 8*). This finding is supported in the structure matrix, which groups variables with large coefficients for a specific function together, indicated by an asterisk. *Table 9* shows bespoken Structure Matrix, where variables are included that are not used in the analysis, also. On the one hand, *Attitude towards Sponsors*, *Sponsorship Exposure*, *Attitude towards Sponsorship, Sponsorship as Means* and *Sponsor's Commercial Intent* are grouped for the first function, of which only on the *Attitude towards Sponsorship* is included in the analysis. On the other hand, *Identification with the Sponsor, Sponsor's Ubiquity, Sponsor's Portfolio Activities*, and *Commercialization* are grouped into the second function, with only *Identification with the Sponsor* being included. *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio* seems to be the only variable grouped for function three, reinforcing the aforementioned weaker significance.

Standardized Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients

	Function		
	1	2	3
F2_A	,350	,923	-,166
F4_A	,540	-,010	,847
F6_A	,837	-,358	-,426

Table 8 Standardized Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients.

Structure Matrix

	Function		
	1	2	3
F6_A	,776*	-,384	-,500
F3_A[b]	,056*	-,006	-,014
F5_A[b]	-,038*	-,029	-,004
F9_A[b]	-,033*	-,023	-,003
F8_A[b]	,017*	-,015	-,008
F2_A	,306	,934*	-,184
F7_A[b]	-,013	,043*	-,004
F1_A[b]	,034	-,037*	,009
F10_A[b]	-,018	,031*	,028
F4_A	,450	-,010	,893*

Pooled within-groups correlations between discriminating variables and standardized canonical discriminant functions

Variables ordered by absolute size of correlation within function.

*. Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function

b. This variable not used in the analysis.

Table 9 Structure Correlation Matrix

A visual representation of function 1 and function 2 is given in the territorial map, showing how the clusters are related to the functions (*Figure 5*). Even though the analysis results in three functions, there is an indication that the first two functions are able to discriminate between clusters 1,3 and 4. Cluster 2 has the impression to lie in the middle. However, as the map is a two-dimensional representation for a multidimensional structure with three functions, it cannot be correctly displayed. Analyzing the centroids, the mean values for each combination of cluster and function, it can be concluded that Cluster 2 lies to a large extent behind Cluster 4, as can be seen by the group centroid on function 3 that is distinctively lower for Cluster 2 in comparison to the other clusters, and can be seen in the scatterplot for all groups on function 1 and function 2 (*Figure 6*). Furthermore, supporting the visual analysis of the dendrogram in the Cluster Analysis, group centroids for Cluster 2 and 4 are close together for functions 1 and 2, however not for function 3. This indicates that Cluster 2 and 4 are quite similar but can be distinguished by function 3 (*Table 7*). Additionally, it is evident that the four clusters are not separated and discriminated from each other by a hard line without “outliers”. This needs to be considered when

interpreting the results. With a three-dimensional visualization, this would be visible but with this cross-section it cannot be visualized.

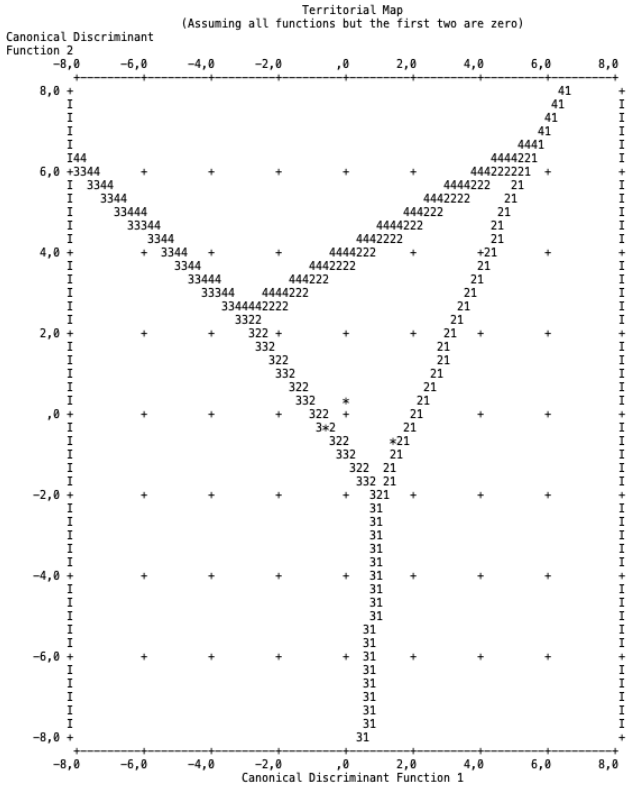

Figure 5 Territorial map for the first two discriminant functions.

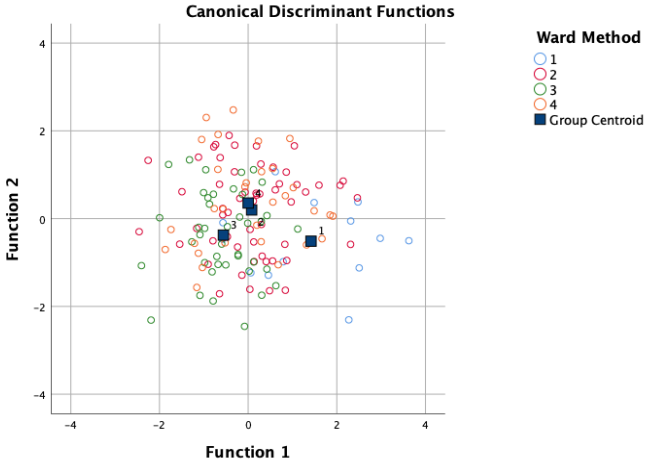

Figure 6 Scatterplot displaying the first two discriminant functions.

Function 2, associated with the Spectator's *Identification with Sponsor,* tends to separate Cluster 4, with the highest point in the scatter plot, from Cluster 3 with the lowest point (*Figure 5*, *Figure 6*). For the variable being positively correlated with function 2 (*Table 9*), it can be expected to see higher values for Cluster 4 in comparison to Cluster 3 as it is confirmed by group means of the variable. While Cluster 1 also seems to be able to be discriminated well by function 2, i.e., *Identification with the Sponsor,* function 1 being associated with *Attitude towards Sponsorship,* tends to better separate Cluster 1 from especially Cluster 2 and 3 but also Cluster 4. As stated before, function 3 seems to mark the cross-section for Cluster 2 from Cluster 4 and could, therefore, be concluded to have the *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio* marking the discriminating power between these two Clusters, however weaker than it is with function 1 and function 2. Interestingly, it seems that spectators in Cluster 3 have weaker attitudes in comparison to spectators in Cluster 1 based on the negative versus positive classification function coefficients across all functions (Appendix I, Table I15).

Looking at the means for the factors within each cluster (Appendix I, Table I2), *Attitude towards Sponsorship* is most favorable in Cluster 1, whereas *Attitude towards the Sponsor* shows to have the lowest mean. However, means for the latter are only slightly higher for Clusters 2-4 and therefore these clusters seem not to have attitudes that differ too much across all identified clusters. *Identification with Sponsor* shows to have the highest mean for Cluster 2, followed by the *Perceived Fit of the Property's Portfolio.* However, across clusters, Cluster 4 shows the strongest *Identification with Sponsor* as well as does Cluster 1 value the *Perceived Fit of the Property's Portfolio* the highest. The third Cluster shows the most negative group means for individual factors, with *Sponsor Identification* having the least favorable ratings. The highest mean for members in Cluster 3 belongs to *Sponsor's Ubiquity,* however again Cluster 1 shows the highest mean across clusters. Finally, *Sponsor's Portfolio Activities*, *Identification with Sponsor,* and *Commercialization* have the highest mean within Cluster 4 of which the latter two show significance in their discriminating power. Again, Cluster 1 however shows the highest mean for *Commercialization* across clusters. It could be hypothesized that Cluster 1 generally evaluates the individual items being summarized by the factors more favorably, however it is not statistically proven.

It has to be noted that although group means per cluster and factor differ, only the variables *Identification with Sponsor, Perceived Fit of the Property's Sponsor Portfolio*, and *Attitude towards Sponsorship* prove to be significant in their discriminating power and definite conclusions can be drawn.

Multiple Regression

A multiple linear regression was run to find out what predicts the spectator's attitude towards the sponsorship between MFF and Puma, based on the previously found factors, within each identified Cluster, and lastly across all Clusters to identify potential differences. As previously stated, all independent factors included in the regression analysis result from orthogonal rotation in previous analysis steps, through which the risk of multicollinearity is limited. An examination of the normal probability plot further indicated normal distribution (Appendix J, Figure J1-5). The dependent variable, *Attitude towards the Sponsorship,* is not represented by the earlier computed factor but by creating a dummy variable calculated by the item means that were shown to be conceptually related (Appendix J).

First, for Cluster 1 a significant regression equation was found with $F(2,10)=10.31$, $p=0.004$ and $R^2=0.673$. Spectator's predicted *Attitude towards the Sponsorship* is equal to

$$Attitude\ towards\ Sponsorship = 4.405 + 1.105(Exposure\ to\ Sponsorship) - 0.64(Sponsor's\ Commercial\ Intent)$$

where all original items were measured on a Likert-scale from 1 (Mostly agree) to 7 (Mostly disagree), before summarizing into factors respectively. Both predictor variables are significant at the 5% significance level, with $t=4.18$, $p=0.002$ for *Exposure to Sponsorship* and $t=-2.65$, $p=0.024$ for *Sponsor's Commercial Intent* (*Table 10*).

Coefficients[a,b]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	4,379	,331		13,226	,000					
F5_A	,952	,321	,667	2,968	,013	,667	,667	,667	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	4,405	,267		16,529	,000					
F5_A	1,105	,264	,774	4,178	,002	,667	,797	,755	,953	1,050
F9_A	-,640	,242	-,490	-2,646	,024	-,321	-,642	-,478	,953	1,050

a. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude
b. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 1

Table 10 Regression coefficients in Cluster 1.

Following, the significant regression equation found for Cluster 2 ($F(5,55)=7.42$, $p=0.000$; $R_2=0.426$) includes *Sponsor's Ubiquity* ($t=3.62$, $p=0.001$), *Sponsorship as Means* ($t=3.26$, $p=0.002$), *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio* ($t=2.67$, $p=0.010$), *Identification with Sponsor* ($t=2.23$, $p=0.030$) and *Attitude towards Sponsor* ($t=2.16$, $p=0.036$) as significant predictors for the spectators *Attitude Towards Sponsorship*. The equation to predict bespoken spectator's attitude equals

$$Attitude\ towards\ Sponsorship\ =\ 2.72\ +\ 0.4\ (Sponsor's\ Ubiquity) + 0.33\ (Sponsorship\ as\ Means)$$
$$+0.32\ (Perceived\ Fit\ of\ Property's\ Sponsor\ Portfolio) + 0.25\ (Identification\ with\ Sponsor)$$
$$+0.3\ (Attitude\ towards\ Sponsor),$$

with identical ways of measuring as with Cluster 1. Here, the spectators' attitude seems to be almost equally influenced by all included factors, as it can be seen by the respective coefficients (*Table 10*).

Coefficients[a,b]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2,870	,124		23,184	,000					
F7_A	,390	,124	,394	,146	,003	,394	,394	,394	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	2,846	,118		24,104	,000					
F7_A	,388	,118	,391	,284	,002	,394	,411	,391	1,000	1,000
F8_A	,284	,110	,308	,586	,012	,311	,335	,308	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	2,799	,116		24,191	,000					
F7_A	,381	,114	,384	,346	,002	,394	,421	,384	,999	1,001
F8_A	,322	,107	,348	3,002	,004	,311	,384	,344	,976	1,025
F4_A	,287	,127	,262	2,261	,028	,218	,299	,259	,975	1,025
(Constant)	2,749	,114		24,022	,000					
F7_A	,342	,112	,345	3,068	,003	,394	,395	,340	,973	1,028
F8_A	,313	,104	,339	3,015	,004	,311	,389	,334	,974	1,026
F4_A	,323	,124	,295	2,605	,012	,218	,343	,289	,957	1,045
F2_A	,250	,117	,242	2,126	,038	,276	,285	,236	,953	1,049
(Constant)	2,717	,111		24,369	,000					
F7_A	,402	,111	,406	3,615	,001	,394	,455	,387	,912	1,097
F8_A	,328	,100	,355	3,263	,002	,311	,419	,350	,970	1,031
F4_A	,320	,120	,293	2,673	,010	,218	,354	,286	,957	1,045
F2_A	,253	,113	,245	2,232	,030	,276	,301	,239	,953	1,049
F3_A	,299	,138	,240	2,158	,036	,101	,292	,231	,929	1,076

a. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude
b. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 2

Table 11 Regression coefficients in Cluster 2.

Likewise, for Cluster 3 a significant regression equation was found, predicting spectator's *Attitude Towards Sponsorship* as

$$Attitude\ towards\ Sponsorship = 2.5 + 0.355\ (Exposure\ to\ Sponsorship)$$
$$+0.28\ (Sponsor's\ Ubiquity),$$

with $F(2,38)=5.07$, $p=0.011$ and $R_2=0.211$. Again, both included predictors proved significant at the 5% significance level, with $t=2.23$ ($p=0.031$) and $t=2.09$ ($p=0.043$) respectively. Similar to Cluster 2,

the coefficients pose a similar relative impact in their predictive power towards the dependent variable (*Table 12*).

Coefficients[a,b]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		Std. B Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2,537	,133		19,132	,000					
F5_A	,381	,165	,346	2,305	,027	,346	,346	,346	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	2,499	,128		19,456	,000					
F5_A	,355	,159	,323	2,233	,031	,346	,341	,322	,994	1,006
F7_A	,283	,135	,302	2,091	,043	,327	,321	,301	,994	1,006

a. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude
b. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 3

Table 12 Regression coefficients in Cluster 3.

Lastly, Cluster 4 shows to have only one significant predictor for the spectator's Attitude Towards Sponsorship, namely *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio* (t=2.71, p=0.011). The resulting regression equation equals

$$Attitude\ towards\ Sponsorship\ = 2.801 + 0.377(Perceived\ Fit\ of\ Property's\ Sponsor\ Portfolio),$$

showing a favorable increase in attitude by 0.377 per level-increase in P*erceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio*. The model indicates significance with $F(1,29)=7.33$, p=0.011 and R^2 =0.202 (*Table 13*).

Coefficients[a,b]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2,801	,156		17,988	,000					
F4_A	,377	,139	,449	2,708	,011	,449	,449	,449	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude
b. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 4

Table 13 Regression coefficients in Cluster 4.

Examining the extent to which each cluster's regression model fits the data, values for R^2 show to be highest for Cluster 1 and 2 and are in decreasing order to Cluster 4 through 3. This could be an indication of the strength of the respective predictor variables. It is noteworthy to say that a parallel could be drawn to the above-mentioned discriminant analysis, where function 3 with P*erceived Fit of Property's*

Sponsorship Portfolio showed the weakest discriminating power. However, this aspect will be further discussed, and conclusions are drawn in the following section.

To evaluate which predictors show the highest impact on the spectator's *Attitude towards the Sponsorship* between Puma and MFF, a fifth multiple regression is run across all clusters (*Table 14*). The resulting regression equation is found to be significant with $F(5,135)=8.02$ and $p=0.000$ and equals

$$Attitude\ towards\ Sponsorship = 2.86 + 0.35\ (Perceived\ Fit\ of\ Property's\ Sponsor\ Portfolio) + 0.25\ (Sponsor's\ Ubiquity) + 0.2\ (Identification\ with\ Sponsor) + 0.19\ (Exposure\ to\ Sponsorship) + 0.17\ (Commercialization).$$

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients			Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2,860	,091		31,527	,000					
F4_A	,350	,091	,310	3,844	,000	,310	,310	,310	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	2,860	,088		32,328	,000					
F4_A	,350	,089	,310	3,941	,000	,310	,318	,310	1,000	1,000
F7_A	,253	,089	,225	2,855	,005	,225	,236	,225	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	2,860	,087		32,818	,000					
F4_A	,350	,087	,310	4,001	,000	,310	,323	,310	1,000	1,000
F7_A	,253	,087	,225	2,898	,004	,225	,240	,225	1,000	1,000
F2_A	,200	,087	,177	2,284	,024	,177	,192	,177	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	2,860	,086		33,257	,000					
F4_A	,350	,086	,310	4,055	,000	,310	,328	,310	1,000	1,000
F7_A	,253	,086	,225	2,937	,004	,225	,244	,225	1,000	1,000
F2_A	,200	,086	,177	2,315	,022	,177	,195	,177	1,000	1,000
F5_A	,187	,086	,166	2,166	,032	,166	,183	,166	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	2,860	,085		33,644	,000					
F4_A	,350	,085	,310	4,102	,000	,310	,333	,310	1,000	1,000
F7_A	,253	,085	,225	2,971	,004	,225	,248	,225	1,000	1,000
F2_A	,200	,085	,177	2,342	,021	,177	,198	,177	1,000	1,000
F5_A	,187	,085	,166	2,191	,030	,166	,185	,166	1,000	1,000
F10_A	,174	,085	,155	2,045	,043	,155	,173	,155	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude

Table 14 Regression coefficients across Clusters.

The predictor variables show significance at the 1% level for *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio* ($t=4.1$, $p=0.000$) and *Sponsor's Ubiquity* ($t=2.97$, $p=0.004$) as well as at the 5% level for *Identification with Sponsor* ($t=2.34$, $p=0.021$) and *Exposure to Sponsorship* ($t=2.2$, $p=0.030$) and *Commercialization* ($t=2.05$, $p=0.043$). The value for model fit amounts to $R2 = 0.229$, a lower value in comparison to computing individual regression equations for Cluster 1 and Cluster 2 (Appendix J, Tables

J2,6,10,14,18). Following the analysis of beta weights to compare the relative importance of the individual variables, *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio* shows the strongest relative importance across Clusters as well as for Cluster 4, whereas *Exposure to Sponsorship* in Cluster 1 and Cluster 3 and *Sponsor's Ubiquity* in Cluster 2. It could be argued that these three factors show highest relative importance overall, as the variables with the highest beta weights in the individual Clusters are all included in the regression model across clusters.

Discussion

Reflecting upon the research question, stating "How can spectators be differentiated by their attitudes towards sponsor and sponsorship when segmented based on their psychological attachment to the property?" a convenience sample consisting of MFF spectators was analyzed. Factor analysis reduced the complexity of the data structure to three factors, along which segments were defined through cluster analysis and to additional ten factors by which the segments were further differentiated in a discriminant analysis. These ten factors not only differentiate the segments but were also tested for its predictive power towards the spectators' *Attitude towards Sponsorship* in each group. The research question is addressed in answer to the extent that significant factors relating to the psychological attachment to the team are found by which spectators mentioned above are clustered. Significant factors are found that predict the spectators' attitude and that have discriminating power between the segments.

Before the initially proposed conceptual model is re-evaluated and adapted with the gained insight from this study, the individual four segments are characterized, and results are interpreted.

Proposed Spectator Segmentation

The point of departure for the spectator segmentation is taken from the PCM and the underlying psychological attachment to the team. However, the PCM only treats commitment as a unitary construct (Funk & James, 2001; Kim et al., 2013). While this can indicate where a spectator is positioned along the continuum, it does not provide sufficient ground to further differentiate spectator groups with the same level of psychological attachment. Therefore, the PCM is extended by including the different sport consumption motives, as introduced in the literature review. This allows for an assessment of the origin of the commitment of an individual and gives ground for further distinction. It is important that the

spectator analysis will not include all four stages of the PCM, but only the last two, namely attachment and allegiance, all individuals included in this study have passed the first two stages of awareness and attraction. Only individuals who fulfilled the prerequisite of having attended or seen at least one MFF game were included in the study, which implies awareness, as well as attraction to MFF. The data analysis shows that the different sport consumption motives included in the study can be summarized by three distinct factors, in contrast to *Hedonic Motives* and *Trust Motives*, *Community Motives* is the only factor to include all three items used to measure overall commitment. The composition of this factor is particularly interesting, as all the motives indicating a secure connection to the club are included. Further, the composition resonates with previous research, especially Kim, James, & Kim's (2013) work on different levels of commitment. These motives indicate an individual's desire to affiliate and empathize with an SCO, here MFF. It is therefore not surprising that the social influence motive "I feel being a part of the MFF community" and the hedonic motive "MFF games are a part of my daily routine" also belong to this factor. These two, underline the notion of belonging, as well as associating with a team to enhance one's esteem and self-definition. In combination with Social Identity Theory (Carlson & Donavan, 2017), it seems reasonable to assume that community motives support the desire to belong to the "in-group" (Tajfel & Turner, 1986), here being a fan of MFF, and relate strongly to continuance commitment (Kim et al., 2013). Based on this idea that the motives create a community that puts MFF at its center of attention and shows high levels of self-identification with the club, the labeling *Community Motives* is developed.

The second factor, *Hedonic Motives*, can, to some extent, be explained as pleasure-based factors concerned with hedonic need fulfillment (Kim et al., 2013). As expected, consumption motives such as entertainment, drama, and escape from the daily routine are relevant here. Further, this factor supports the previously established perspective on football as an experience and consumers' desire for it (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). The motives loading into this factor address this aspect of experience particularly and support the assumption that individuals with strong expressions on hedonic motives are on the consuming end, rather than the creating end of co-creation. The resulting commitment can be characterized as affective and is linked to an emotional attachment to MFF.

In addition to purely hedonic aspects, the extracted factor includes two social influence motives, namely spending time with friends, as well as family, and a psychological connection motive. Having

social influence motives loading into the same factor as hedonic motives can be explained by the desire of spectators to share the football experience with their social reference group. While the *Community Motives* include the aspect of MFF as a daily routine, the underlying motive here is to actively escape from daily routine by, e.g., watching an MFF game. Lastly, the overall experience is enhanced when MFF plays entertaining football. It is, therefore, no surprise that the psychological influence motive measuring team effort is also grouped under hedonic motives. The main driver of entertainment and experience is what differentiates *Hedonic Motives* most from *Community Motives*.

Lastly, it is interesting to notice that for *Trust Motives,* the two items loading into this factor hint on an outside perspective on MFF, distinguishing this factor from the other two, which refer to the consumers' focus on themselves. Here, the underlying motive driver seems to be the club itself. The evaluation of trust is based on the evaluation of the club's integrity and reliability, referring to Morgan & Hunt (1994) and Moorman, Deshpande, & Zaltman (1993). Spectators show a generalized expectancy that MFF can be relied on, but also the confidence in MFF's competence, honesty, and consistency. These qualities that the spectators trust MFF to have are key determinants in order to develop the relationship further and may even act as a foundation for further attachment, and ultimately loyalty.

Following the results from the cluster analysis and the information gained from the theoretical context, the four identified clusters are characterized in the subsequent section, and managerial implications are derived.

Community Immersed Fans

The first segment to be characterized is the *Community Immersed Fans.* This group accounts for 9,3% of the sample size and is associated mainly with community motives. The typical *Community Immersed Fan* shows a strong level of self-identification with MFF, which positively affects their psychological sense of community (Tajfel and Turner, 1985). For these fans, MFF is not seen as an escape from their daily routine, but rather as a part of their daily routine. Fans in this segment put their trust in the club and feel a personal sense of belonging to the MFF community. Especially the notion of trust placed on MFF helps to strengthen their mutual relationship (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). By identifying with the club, the *Community Immersed Fan* feels a personal sense of achievement through the club's achievement and success. The connection to the team is supported by psychological connection motives (James & Ross,

2004), such as empathy or team affiliation. These fans do not only affiliate with MFF, but also actively with like-minded people. This creates a close-knit group that, due to the additional stable levels of overall commitment, but also continuance commitment, can quickly become the *Community Immersed Fan*'s reference group (Deitz et al., 2012; Funk & James, 2006; Pham & Johar, 2001).

Since these fans perceive MFF as part of their daily routine, the interaction with other *Community Immersed Fans* exceeds the boundaries of experiencing a game. At the same time, it is primarily the *Community Immersed Fans* who contribute most to the overall stadium experience that is crucial for other spectators, such as the *Experience Seekers*. As a community, this fan is in constant exchange with others, via social media platforms, or other communication channels. This has an impact on the type of information the *Community Immersed Fan* is exposed to. Being in discourse with people with similar opinions sharply increases the frequency of activation for the same mental images. A reinforcement of this kind brings the *Community Immersed Fans* closer together, which can cause the group to develop an even stronger loyalty towards MFF. Throughout this process, it is very likely that the *Community Immersed Fans* develop nuances within their group, with some rating stronger on allegiance to MFF than others. However, due to the smaller sample size, these are not reflected in the data. A crystallization of nuances within the cluster can thus only be hypothesized.

This segment can be distinguished best from the others by their *Attitude towards Sponsorship*. In line with the expert interviews, it is not surprising that exactly this factor separates the *Community Immersed Fan*s from the other segments. The highly committed fans generally oppose sponsorships and resulting activities. They would, for example, rather see 'their' jersey clean, without any branding and the stadium without naming rights (Appendix C).

The *Community Immersed Fan* indicates an initially more favorable *Attitude towards Sponsorship* with Puma than the other segments, which is further influenced by *Exposure to Sponsorship* and *Sponsor's Commercial Intent*. Since *Community Immersed Fans* are highly involved with MFF, exposure to the sponsorship with Puma is necessary, but not sufficient to elicit a response to the sponsorship (Biscaia et al., 2014; Levin et al., 2001). Nonetheless, exposure is one of two factors having a significant influence on the *Attitude towards Sponsorship*, which could be explained by the fact that exposure is measured without, for example, differentiating spectators based on their previous level of

exposure. Pre-exposure, according to Speed & Thompson (2000), can be compared to the level of prior knowledge about the sponsor and the sponsorship. The impact of knowledge on *Exposure to Sponsorship* can be traced back to the original items summarized by this factor. Combined with the typical characteristics of a *Community Immersed Fan*, both prior knowledge as well as overall high knowledge about MFF characterize this segment. Hence, the *Community Immersed Fan* will process more information about the sponsorship (Chaiken, 1980). Simultaneously, *Community Immersed Fans* are more likely to actively seek out information about Puma (Festinger, 1962). As a result of their high involvement with MFF, they are also more likely to attribute favorable motives to Puma, which has a positive impact on the perceived congruence between MFF and Puma and the overall attitude.

Exposure seems to be of importance for this cluster because of MFF's structure as a member-owned club. Likely, *Community Immersed Fans* are not only fans, instead due to their high commitment and involvement in the club, it is likely that some of them are also members. As such, they are involved in the daily business of the club and have access to much more information than the other three clusters, influencing their level of knowledge. As a member, the *Community Immersed Fan* is directly impacted by the club's management decision and, as such, also has a higher self-interest in seeking out information and knowledge.

Next to exposure, the *Community Immersed Fan*'s *Attitude towards Sponsorship* is influenced by the *Sponsor's Commercial Intent*, however, with less predictive power. Generally, research has shown that a sincere sponsor is more likely to elicit positive consumer responses and thereby a positive attitude towards the sponsorship. Sincerity, as the opposite of commercial intent, can be accomplished by, for example, focusing on philanthropic motives, rather than purely commercial intentions. In theory, the more this segment feels like Puma has a commercial intent in sponsoring MFF, the less favorable the attitude towards the sponsorship will be. In turn, the higher the *Community Immersed Fans*' perceived sincerity of Puma is, the better their attitude towards the sponsorship should be. It is noticeable that, across all clusters, *Sponsor's Commercial Intent* is the only factor that has a negative predictive impact on the *Attitude towards Sponsorship* and is only significant within this segment. The fact that the *Sponsor's Commercial Intent* only influences the *Community Immersed Fans* may be explained by their high involvement and self-identification with MFF. This group has the well-being of MFF at heart, as this will ultimately influence the group's well-being, too. Should a sponsor, therefore, elicit the feeling

of only having the monetary outcome, i.e., commercial benefit, of the sponsorship in mind, this may imply that other non-economic aspects of the relationship are ignored, which may negatively impact the club, and thereby the *Community Immersed Fan*. As the other segments have no "personal stake" in the future of MFF, it seems logical that the underlying motive for the sponsorship, meaning whether it is out of commercial intent, or due to philanthropic motives, has no impact on their attitude towards Puma.

Summing up, the *Community Immersed Fan* is highly committed to MFF, both overall, as well as through the dimension of continuance commitment. The high level of psychological attachment resonates with allegiance and loyalty. This fan not only identifies himself with MFF but even more so through MFF. The club has become the *Community Immersed Fan*'s daily routine and the social reference group. As such, this fan is likely to have a long-standing relationship with MFF, which further distinguishes him from other spectators, such as the *Experience Seeker*.

Even though the *Community Immersed Fan's* initial general attitude towards sponsorship is likely to be low due to their opposition to commercialization, it increases for a specific sponsorship with increasing knowledge about it. This explains why especially the relationship with Puma is not perceived negatively. Based on the long-standing relationship between MFF and Puma, both parties have a history together. This history may elicit feelings of familiarity, but also provides the *Community Immersed Fan* with much knowledge, which in turn positively impacts exposure-response and thereby the attitude towards Puma as a sponsor. Additionally, both parties have mentioned the active communication and integration of fans in most sponsorship activities. This engagement gives the *Community Immersed Fans* a feeling of control and the ability to integrate themselves further in the club. Another reason why especially the sponsorship with Puma is perceived favorably is the mentioned geographic proximity of both parties. This proximity results in an inherent level of national fit, and thereby congruent image attributes (Misra & Beatty, 1990) for MFF and Puma, which are said to influence the perception of Puma favorably. Additionally, research has shown that the perception of a sponsor influences the consumer's purchase intentions (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008). As elaborated above, *Community Immersed Fan*s are highly involved with MFF, which positively influences the perceived fit between MFF and Puma and thereby the attitude towards Puma per se.

External Observers

Following the characterization of the first spectator group, the second identified segment is referred to as *External Observers*. With 39.7% of the sample population and the majority aged from 25 to 54, it is the largest identified segment in the convenience sample. The typical *External Observer* enjoys attending MFF games for entertainment reasons and to spend time with family and friends. Following James and Ross' (2004) classification of sport consumption motives, *External Observers* draw from a combination of sport-related and personal benefit motives. Motives relating to the sense of feeling psychologically connected to the team and the club do not seem to play an important role. Instead, *External Observers* value MFF's integrity and reliability as a club. They are committed to the team by placing trust in believing that the experience sought through MFF will be satisfying and delivering what the spectator expects. This is coherent with Morgan & Hunt (1994), who emphasize reliability and integrity in stakeholder relationships.

Following Stakeholder Theory (Levin et al., 2001; Mahon & Waddock, 1992), different levels of involvement in the relationship are influential to the spectator's, and also consumer's behavior in terms of sponsorship response. This also holds for the *External Observers* in comparison to the other three segments, where involvement is mostly higher, and their response and attitude to the sponsorship is resulting from a different set of predictors.

It could be assumed that *External Observers* perceive MFF and sport in general as a product and experience from an outside point of view, almost a helicopter-viewpoint, referring to the spectator to be more rational and emotionally uninvolved in the experience. However, aspects relating to self-identification with the sponsor as well as the extent to which the different sponsors fit within MFF's sponsor portfolio are of importance to this segment. The latter particularly, to differentiate the *External Observers* from the other segments, especially spectators belonging to the *Experience Seekers*. Having MFF's sponsor structure elaborated with the *Nätverket*, spectators, and sponsors experience a unique structure. By providing a platform for dynamics between sponsors and a community across industries, while simultaneously ensuring sponsors fit into the existing portfolio, MFF operationalized Modern Portfolio Theory (Markowitz, 2015). In terms of fit, it is less functional fit that applies (Deitz et al., 2012) but instead created fit (Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006). Establishing a portfolio with like-minded partners

and stakeholders that see and focus on the community and experience aspect of sports and specifically football (Appendix D), supports Chanavat et al. (2016) theory of the importance of relationships among sponsors within the same portfolio. The risk of an elevation of misfit as introduced by Cobbs et al. (2016) is not largely present, due to the sponsor acquisition process in place and MFF's knowledge of the importance of listening to their fans. High perceived fit between sponsorship partners is argued to have a great positive influence on the attitude towards sponsorship and, therefore, effectiveness (Rodgers, 2003; Speed & Thompson, 2000) and seems to be as crucial to *External Observers*.

As mentioned, *External Observers* are primarily distinct to *Experience Seekers* and *Community Immersed Fans* by their *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio*. When put into context with *Sponsor's Ubiquity* as the most influential predictor for their *Attitude towards the Sponsorship*, a distinct profile is created. While MFF must lead a coherent, dynamic portfolio that results in favorable synergies among all stakeholders, it is crucial to this segment that the sponsor(s) prove(s) themselves in the industry and exhibit a certain degree of prominence and especially ubiquity. While *Sponsor's Ubiquity* is the most influential predictor for the External Observer's *Attitude towards Sponsorship*, *Sponsorship as Means*, *Attitude towards the Sponsor*, and *Identification with Sponsor* play a significant role, too. It is acknowledged that sponsorships are needed in the football industry and provide benefits to various stakeholders, however, so is who the sponsor(s) are and the extent to which the *External Observer* deems these fitting to the current MFF sponsor portfolio and himself. This links back to Meenaghan (2001), who relates the level of knowledge about a sponsorship to the level of perceived congruence. The more the Sponsor, i.e., Puma, is present through MFF's sponsorship as well as others, and the more the *External Observer* knows about the Sponsor, the higher the Sponsor is perceived to be congruent with the portfolio.

The importance of credibility has been raised in the expert interview with Puma (Appendix D) and relates to the currently discussed segment, where the concept refers to the significant predictive power of the *Attitude towards the Sponsor*. Farelly et al. (2003) and Bühler et al. (2007) are supporting this finding by emphasizing commitment to a specific relationship as crucial for a fruitful relation instead of seeing the construct as a determinant for success in itself. While most research refers to the relation between sponsor and property in sponsorship research, this principle holds likewise for the relation to

and with spectators, referring to previously discussed Stakeholder Theory (Friedman et al., 2004; Mahon & Waddock, 1992) and Relationship Marketing (Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

While it is important to the *External Observer* that Puma is prominent and shows integrity, specific activities regarding their activities with the sponsorship portfolio do not seem to make a significant impact. Here, it makes sense that the factor *Exposure to Sponsorship*, measuring the extent to which the amount of knowledge is relevant for perceptions and attitudes formed towards sponsor, property, and sponsorship, does not play a significant predicting role. This result seems surprising, as it was assumed that knowledge about the sponsors and the sponsorship would be influential for the sponsorship response, and thereby the attitude (Speed & Thompson, 2000). It can be assumed, however, that Levin et al. (2001) theory holds, in which they distinguish between high and low involvement situations. Generally, when categorizing football as a high involvement situation, it seems that the *External Observer* himself could be seen in the low involvement category. Findings relating to the lesser emphasis on community motives and more on the more external viewpoint on Puma, also outside football, reassures this interpretation.

Even though the segment is labeled *External Observer*, *Identification with the Sponsor* plays a predicting role for their *Attitude towards Sponsorship*. Social Identity Theory (Carlson & Donavan, 2017) is a relatable concept here, where overlaps between the *External Observer's* mental schema and Puma's brand identity "schema" lead to a positive attitude towards Puma, without necessarily being highly involved or committed such as the *Community Immersed Fan*.

Proclaiming the *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio* to be significant in function 3 is essential, in order to distinguish this segment to other groups, and especially *Experience Seekers*. However, it has to be noted that the function proved to be the least significant in the analysis, and the strength of its discriminating power is, therefore, concluded carefully.

Concluding, the *External Observer* depicts a spectator who is focusing on the sponsor's prominence and ubiquity in the market, as well as the fit to MFF's existing portfolio. He is less involved emotionally and to the community surrounding MFF and is, therefore, more on the outside of the "fandom bubble". His focus lies more on the sponsor and sponsor's fit to the club than on identifying himself with

fellow peers at MFF. He enjoys MFF for hedonic reasons, however, to an average extent, where more thrill and drama seeking spectators are to be found with the *Experience Seekers*.

Receptive Casuals

The third group, labeled *Receptive Casual*s, accounts for 29,1% of the sample population, with the majority of people being between 25 and 44 years old. When looking at the spectator motives, the three factors do not seem to strongly influence spectators in this group in comparison to the others. For *Community Motives* and *Trust*, the *Receptive Casual* is most distinct to the *Community Immersed Fan*, whereas, for *Hedonic Motives*, the *Receptive Casual* is most distinct to the *Experience Seeker*. It seems that the *Receptive Casual* does not relate as strongly to the identified motives, as the other segments do. An interpretation could be that this spectator group is either driven further by motives not captured in the three factors or simply does not have one motive as a primary driver for the segment's behavior. This, however, needs to be further analyzed in future studies to derive a significant conclusion.

When compared to the other clusters, the *Receptive Casual* can be differentiated best from the *Community Immersed Fans* by the *Attitude towards Sponsorship*. One can assume that *Receptive Casuals*, in general, have a lower *Attitude towards Sponsorship* than *Community Immersed Fan*s (*Figure 5*, *Figure 6*). When looking at what differentiates *Receptive Casuals* from the *Experience Seeker*, the *Identification with Sponsor* appears to be the significant difference. The difference between *Receptive Casuals* and *Experience Seekers* could be said to be further influenced by *Sponsor's Ubiquity*, even though *Sponsor's Ubiquity* is not found to be significant enough to derive statistical significance. Here, an evaluation of what drives the differences for ubiquity between the two segments would be intriguing. Following the different viewpoints of ubiquity by Speed & Thompson (2000) and Shimp (2013), it would be interesting to see whether the perception of the *Sponsor's Ubiquity* is related to the spectators' general attitude on sponsorship and commercialization of football.

In order to provide a better grasp of the characteristics of this spectator group, *Exposure to Sponsorship* and *Sponsor's Ubiquity* need to be examined, as these predict the *Receptive Casual*'s *Attitude towards Sponsorship*. While *Community Immersed Fans* are hypothesized to show high levels of involvement with MFF, exposure is assumed not to be a sufficient condition in order to trigger a sponsorship response (Levin et al., 2001). For the *Receptive Casuals*, however, there is no indication of

a similar case. Instead, the fact that the segment has no clear underlying motive from the ones tested seems to indicate overall low involvement of the group with MFF. As a result, mere exposure effects to the sponsorship should be enough to trigger a response in a *Receptive Casual* and, ultimately, a better attitude towards the sponsorship.

Based on the previous assessment of the *Receptive Casual*, it is likely that this group has little to no prior knowledge that could positively enhance exposure effects. Consequently, recency and frequency of exposure are crucial for the *Receptive Casual* to form a mental image. Further, repeated exposure will continue to activate and thereby reinforce the stored information (Kelley, 1973; Madrigal & Dalakas, 2015). More specifically, in order for an *Receptive Casual* to have a perception of the relationship between MFF and Puma, they need to be exposed to Puma associated with MFF regularly (Yang et al., 2008). This, in turn, will increase salience for Puma and positively impact the *Receptive Casual*'s attitude towards the sponsorship (Biscaia et al., 2014; Walliser, 2003). From this, concrete managerial implications can be derived, as presented in the next section.

It is noteworthy that, even though not significant, *Sponsor's Ubiquity* could be included in the distinction between *Receptive Casual*s and *Experience Seekers* and is significant in determining the *Receptive Casual*'s *Attitude towards Sponsorship*. Generally, ubiquity is defined as representing the different perceptions of consumers of frequency and selectivity of a company's sponsorship involvement (Ko & Kim, 2014). Even though Speed & Thompson (2000) argue that ubiquity has a negative effect on sport sponsorship response and, therefore, sponsorship attitude, the results for the *Receptive Casuals* indicate otherwise. The underlying reasoning for Speed & Thompson's (2000) assumption was that a sponsorship portfolio that was too large led to the impression of less commitment to the individual assets within the portfolio. Further, a high number of sponsorships were reported to be perceived as less credible. However, this view on ubiquity lacks on multiple ends, as aspects such as the sponsor's actual portfolio activity or perceived fit of the sponsor's portfolio are not represented. The latter two aspects are, however, included in this study. Since there has been no research on the relationship between ubiquity and Puma's portfolio activity, as well as sponsor property congruence, no statistically proven statement can be made. Nonetheless, it can be hypothesized that if the *Receptive Casuals* have knowledge about Puma's portfolio activities and perceive the individual assets to be congruent, as well as MFF fitting into this portfolio, the negative effects brought up by Speed & Thompson (2000) will be reversed.

This knowledge, in turn, supports the *Receptive Casuals* response to exposure. Combining the responsiveness of exposure and the comparably low level of involvement indicate that the *Receptive Casual's* ability to recall and recognize the sponsor can easily be enhanced by simple exposure cues.

The importance the *Receptive Casuals* place on exposure is the key differentiating aspect to the *External Observers*. While both the *External Observers*, and the *Receptive Casuals* seem to indicate a low level of involvement and low psychological attachment to MFF, the *External Observer* evaluates the fit of a property's sponsor portfolio from an outside perspective and does not seem to be strongly affected by exposure

In conclusion, *Receptive Casuals*' *Attitude towards Sponsorship* is influenced by *Exposure to Sponsorship* and *Sponsor's Ubiquity*. Even though the *Community Immersed Fan*'s attitude is also influenced by *Exposure to Sponsorship*, the two segments vary in the type of exposure effective in the respective segment, as well as the individual segment's response to the exposure. Because the *Receptive Casual* is prone to mere exposure effects, this segment is easily influenceable. Generally, the *Receptive Casual* seems to place a sharper focus on Puma as a sponsor, rather than on MFF as a club. Other than the *External Observer*, who takes on an outside perspective, the focal point for the *Receptive Casual* is still himself, but the target object is different compared to the *Community Immersed Fan*, or *Experience Seeker*.

Experience Seekers

Lastly, the fourth segment of spectators that score highest for *Hedonic Motives* in the initial segmentation is the *Experience Seekers*. With 21.9% of the sample population, this is the third-largest segment, and the majority identified to be in the age range of 25 to 44. The *Experience Seeker's* motives to attend MFF games are firmly rooted within *Hedonic Motives*, where the thrill and excitement of the competition in combination with escaping their daily routine and spending time with family and friends at MFF are prevailing. While this segment can also be described according to James & Ross's (2004) categorization to sport-related motives, the underlying classification for *Experience Seekers* involves social influence and psychological connection motives that alter James & Ross' (2004) categorization slightly.

Further, their importance placed on inherent *Identification with Sponsor* discriminates, specifically, *Receptive Casuals* and *Community Immersed Fans* against this group. While *External Observers* show similar characteristics, they are different from the *Experience Seekers* based on the importance they place on *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio*. However, this discrimination is related to the rather weak discriminating power of the bespoken variable and is also supported by the segment's visual analysis where the two groups are found to be closer related than the others (*Figure 4*). Placing this spectator segment in context with the other three identified groups, *Experience Seekers* seem to focus on the entertaining aspect of football purely. In comparison, for *Community Immersed Fans*, the community aspect seems more critical, and for *External Observers*, the sponsor's prominence and ubiquity are more critical, especially when forming attitude and perceptions towards the portfolio fit and the attitude towards the sponsorship. While *Identification with Sponsor* is the primary variable included in the discriminating function relevant between *Receptive Casuals* and *Experience Seekers*, *Sponsor's Ubiquity* could be influencing the discriminating power, too, although not significant. Here, *Receptive Casuals* seem to place more importance on Puma's market ubiquity and presence in comparison to the *Experience Seekers*.

Generally, it is important to distinguish between what discriminates this group from the others and what is most influential in predicting the group's *Attitude towards the Sponsorship* of Puma and MFF. However, for *Experience Seekers*, the *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio* is the driving force for both, next to *Identification with Sponsor*, specifically for the discrimination to *Receptive Casual*. While both *Experience Seekers* and *Community Immersed Fans* enjoy the hedonic aspect to a large extent, the co-created experience (Poulsson & Kale, 2004) during MFF games seems to be more related to the latter group rather than the currently discussed spectators who consume said experience. It can be assumed that the *Experience Seeker* does not have an attitude or many perceptions towards what MFF and related sponsorships indulge in, but simply wants to enjoy the experience in the stadium or while watching matches with friends. Moreover, when it comes to being presented with the sponsorship between MFF and Puma and what constitutes the segment's attitude, aspects of self-congruity and perceived fit play an important role.

The predictive power of *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship* for the group's *Attitude towards the Sponsorship* could be explained with theories presented by Coelho et al. (2019) as well as Deitz et

al. (2012), where perceived fit and a logical connection among sponsorship partners is linked to a successful partnership, which is highly correlated to positive held attitudes towards sponsorships. Pentecost & Spence (2004), in addition to Deitz et al. (2012), further put fit among all involved stakeholders into context, which refers to *Identification with Sponsor* and concepts of self-congruence (Aguirre-Rodriguez et al., 2012; Carlson & Donavan, 2017; Sirgy, 1982). Perceiving a higher fit between Puma and MFF leads the *Experience Seekers* to attribute positive evoked attributes to the sponsorship (Dean, 2002), which further supports the found predictive power of such for the underlying group. This is related to enhanced sponsor recall and Schema Theory (Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989), i.e., Social Identity Theory (Carlson & Donavan, 2017), where overlapping schemas between the *Experience Seeker* and the brand image lead to positive attitudes, similar to the *External Observer* in that matter. Following Deitz et al. (2012), *Experience Seekers* identify themselves with Puma and therefore project their positive held attributes towards the relationship between Puma and MFF, resulting in stronger fit perceptions.

However, other cues further supporting the fit of the latter mentioned theory, such as *Attitude towards the Sponsor, Sponsor's Commercial Intent,* or *Exposure to the Sponsorship*, are not found to be significant. In fact, it seems that for *Experience Seekers*, motives to attend MFF games are separate from their attitude and perceptions held towards the sponsorship. When presented with the partnership between MFF and Puma, spectators hold favorable attitudes towards the extent to which Puma fits into the MFF portfolio as well as to which the *Experience Seeker* identifies himself with Puma. However, given the functional fit between both partners, which Deitz et al. (2012) have found to require less cognitive resources to evaluate the fit between two partners, it could be expected that fit is evaluated favorably. Additionally, a certain degree of commitment towards MFF and football could be related to a general liking of sports manufacturers and lifestyle brands, such as Puma. Here, the *Experience Seekers* show a particular susceptibility to the Associative Network Theory (Drengner et al., 2011), where nodes relating to MFF and Puma could be strengthened by increased exposure to the brand and sponsorship and thereby sponsorship response.

Following the previously mentioned sport consumption motives, hedonic motives (Funk et al., 2002; Kim et al., 2013) are directly related to affective commitment. Consequently, *Experience Seekers* are said to be emotionally attached to a certain degree to matches held by MFF by being exposed to elements of drama, thrill, and excitement. While showing to place less importance on MFF's integrity

and reliability as a club, it can be said that through a hedonic relation to MFF, some degree of commitment is present, although to a lesser extent than *Community Immersed Fans*, for example.

Therefore, while the hedonic motives for *Experience Seekers* are strong and are the foundation for categorizing the group, it can be concluded that more motives and predictors for *Attitude towards Sponsorship* need to be investigated. This is based on the ground that the underlying predictor variables show to be of weaker significant nature, and the hedonic motives and affective commitment towards MFF seem to be separate to the group's attitude towards Puma and the sponsorship. Additionally, the slightly weaker discrimination to the *External Observers*, which is primarily based on the *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio*, supports this interpretation.

Combining the PCM with the evaluation of each spectator segment, a segment's level of commitment to MFF can be put in context with the other segments. Thereby, an overview of where each segment sits on the continuum can be derived.

The fact that the *Community Immersed Fan* is mainly driven by community motives, which include both the overall commitment, as well as the motives leading to continuance commitment, gives reason to assume that the *Community Immersed Fan* has, compared to the other three segments, the highest level of commitment to MFF. As such, this group can be placed on the higher end of the PCM, with sufficient reason to assume allegiance among members of this group. The segment is followed by the *Experience Seeker*, who has a psychological attachment to MFF that is based on affective commitment. While the *Experience Seeker* is assumed to have the second-highest level of psychological attachment to MFF overall, it is still significantly lower than the *Community Immersed Fan's.* The *Experience Seeker* is attached to MFF due to the knowledge that the club provides security for hedonic need fulfillment. Lastly, the lowest level of psychological attachment is attributed to the *Receptive Casual* and the *External Observer*. As neither of the two segments seems to indicate a higher or lower psychological attachment to MFF than the other, both segments are assumed to be placed at the lower end of the attachment stage, on the verge of attraction to attachment. Ultimately, the assumption that two distinct segments are characterized by similar levels of psychological attachment and, hence, a similar position on the PCM supports the construct of commitment as multifaceted once more.

General Discussion

Examining the resulting segmentation, which is first based on psychological attachment to the team and then further tested to be distinguishable along ten additional factors, it is interesting to see the discrimination power among segments as well as what drives each segment in their attitude towards sponsorship. In the analysis of what predicts the *Attitude towards the Sponsorship* regardless of group membership, *Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio*, *Sponsor's Ubiquity*, *Exposure to Sponsorship, Identification with Sponsor* and *Commercialization* are most influential. Interesting to see is that the first three predictors each are evaluated to be most influential in at least one segment for predicting the spectators' *Attitude towards the Sponsorship*. Additionally, regression models predicting the analyzed attitude for *Community Immersed Fans* and *External Observers* prove to fit the data better than the regression model across segments. Further, the regression models built for *Receptive Casuals* and *Experience Seekers* prove to have at least the same fit as the overall model. It is, therefore, safe to say that it is eligible to segment spectators not only based on psychological attachment to the team, as it is proposed by Funk & James (2001), but that there are further discriminating factors that fine-tune the characterization of individual spectator and fan groups.

However, it needs to be pointed out that the overall significance of variables and model fit, as well as discriminating powers between segments, indicate a medium robust model. While discriminating functions indicate one significant variable in their distinguishing power, the researchers believe that sample size plays an essential role in these results. Having analyzed a specific population, spectators of MFF, where the sample size was rather small, more discriminating variables could become significant when analyzing a broader scope of spectators. Nevertheless, the significant results are included in the analysis, interpretation, and implications derived and discussed in the subsequent section.

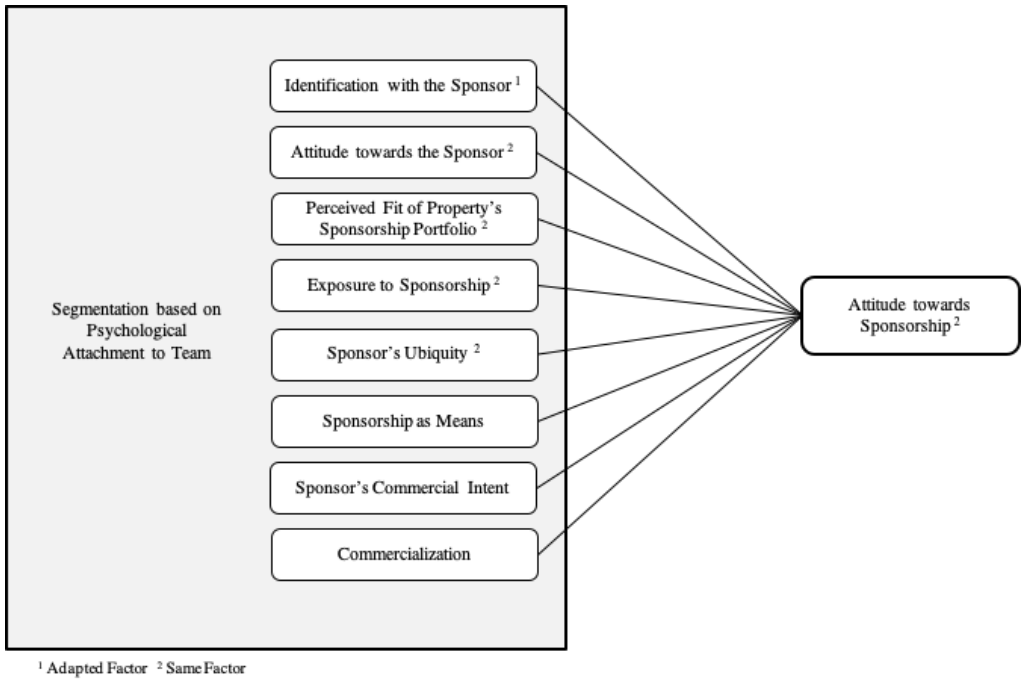

Figure 7 Revised Conceptual Model. Own Creation.

Reflecting upon the researchers' initial conceptual model and the importance placed on the extent to which the Sponsor's portfolio activities would affect the different segments' *Attitude towards Sponsorship*, some factors are seen to be proven significant, whereas others are significant in an altered way or not at all. The revised model is seen in *Figure 7*, where factors are marked with "adapted factor" or "same factor". The former refers to factors that exist similarly in the initial, proposed model, whereas the latter refers to factors that were extracted in the same way as the researchers proposed them.

Items initially proposed to be summarized in Sponsor's prominence, influencing the perception of the Sponsor according to Speed & Thompson (2000), are found to be summarized together with items relating to congruence and the initially proposed items for attitude towards the Sponsor based on the underlying data set. Here, these are summarized by the factor *Attitude towards Sponsorship.* Interestingly, Ko & Kim (2014) proposed a model where congruence between sponsor and property would mediate the relationship between perception and attitude of the sponsor. It seems like these are also related within the present research in slight adaptations and could, therefore, be said to find support. While Speed & Thompson (2000) and later Ko & Kim (2014) propose that prominence, ubiquity, and sincerity are each important predecessor for forming sponsor perceptions, sincerity as a construct does not play a significant role in the present study. While prominence items are summarized in *Attitude*

towards Sponsorship and *Sponsor's Ubiquity* proves to be a significant factor in line with previous research, items on sincerity are not significant as a construct per se, as is in previous research. In the underlying study, sincerity items can be found on the one hand in *Sponsor's Commercial Intent* and, on the other hand, in *Identification with Sponsor*. While both pertain to factors describing how the sponsor is perceived on different aspects, somewhat supporting Ko & Kim (2014), sincerity seems to be not significant enough to be considered as influencing and predicting factor by itself.

Furthermore, factors have been extracted, which were initially not proposed, such as *Sponsorship as Means, Commercialization* as well as *Sponsor's Commercial Intent*. While the former two find less strong relations to the identified groups of spectators, they are, however, significant enough in the sense that they are extracted as factors and find significance in predicting the *Attitude towards Sponsorship* for *External Observers* as well as if the attitude would be predicted across segments. *Sponsor's Commercial Intent* summarizes the extent to which the Sponsor is perceived to follow self-interest motives as compared to altruistic ones in the sponsorship, supporting Attribution Theory (Dean, 2002). Together with *Sponsorship as Means* and *Commercialization*, these factors describe how spectators perceive sponsorships in general and to which extent the economic rationale influences their opinion. As initially stated, this goes in line with Magnus Svensson's statement on MFF spectators generally having a negative attitude towards sponsorships (Appendix D). While *Commercialization* is not significant in discriminating the identified segments, it is significant to predict the *Attitude towards Sponsorship*. Therefore, it seems crucial to distinguish spectators' general attitude towards sponsorship and attitudes referring to specific relationships, as initially proposed by the researchers. Further, the study's results indicate even higher importance on this distinction than initially anticipated and emphasize the multifaceted construct of commitment and trust, which stresses sponsorship specific commitment as compared to seeing it as a determinant for sponsorship success in general (Bühler et al., 2007; Farrelly et al., 2006).

Another factor is the *Identification with Sponsor* that primarily summarizes items instrumented to measure aspects relating to congruence and, more specifically self-congruence, as well as *Sponsor's Commercial Intent* and the *General Attitude towards Sponsorship*. It supports previous research (Aguirre-Rodriguez et al., 2012; Carlson & Donavan, 2017; Sirgy, 1982) identifying (self-)congruence as an essential determinant and even mediator for positive sponsorship response, however, it is adapted

through aspects that relate to the perception of the Sponsor in the underlying research. It additionally poses as a vital discriminant between spectator groups and therefore proves its relevance in the conceptual model, as well as for the existing research body.

When it comes to the *Sponsor's Portfolio Activities*, it is interesting to see that it does not seem to be relevant whether the spectator knows a lot or little about the sponsor's activities relating to sponsorships when forming attitudes towards him. Instead, by having all items testing the attitude towards Puma with and without added knowledge summarized in the same factor, it could be assumed that differentiating between the two is not essential. Further, it is not a significant determinant for either discriminating between groups or predicting the *Attitude towards Sponsorship*, for which it is removed from the revised conceptual model. This proves to contradict research by Stuart (1987) and Cornwell et al. (2006), where increased levels of knowledge are researched to impact sponsorship response favorably. It is in the researchers' belief that this discrepancy can be justified by the instrumentation of the questionnaire and sample size, where the items testing this construct were not sufficient to cover the concept. However, this and related topics will be elaborated together with general limitations to this research.

Reflecting upon Louro & Cunha (2001) identified relational paradigm, in combination with Stakeholder Theory (Friedman et al., 2004), the importance of trust and commitment in all stakeholder relationships, becomes apparent. Even though not all extracted factors show significance in the analysis for discriminating and predicting power among and within the segments, they are considered to be relevant based on analyzing all relationships with a wide array of aspects.

Preceding the more detailed elaboration in the subsequent section, it can be concluded already that while all stakeholder relationships need to be considered, the analysis revealed different focal points among spectators. For some spectator groups, the formation of their attitude towards the relationships between MFF and Puma seems to depart in the perception of the sponsor, while for others, it departs with how the property is viewed. While this posits as one of the underlying conclusions drawn from the study, a more detailed analysis of the attitude formation process is needed.

Managerial Implications

Following the previous discussion on the identified four spectator segments, several managerial implications can be drawn. On the one hand, MFF can use this classification to fine-tune its sponsor management strategy continuously. This is particularly important, as the Swedish football landscape will continue to change in the process of professionalization. This comes with further commercialization, which will specifically apply to MFF as a forerunner in this process. It is, therefore, likely that segments such as the *Experience Seeker* will continue to gain in importance. Being able to identify and address distinct spectator segments now correctly will help along the way later. Further, gaining knowledge about spectators and fans improves successful communication and ways to address the different characteristics. On the other hand, the elaborated four segments provide commercial insight for Puma on consumer behavior and purchase intentions that should be addressed differently for each identified segment. Moreover, implications for improved portfolio management can be derived.

Showing that segments classified by motives relating to the psychological attachment to the team can be characterized and discriminated in further detail sheds light on the importance of differing consumer behavior within sports as well as compared to other industries. For example, while most research emphasizes the psychological attachment of spectators to the team and club, it was found that especially *External Observers* and *Experience Seekers* evaluate the sponsorship relation or just the Sponsor from their self-perspective first, before considering their attachment and commitment to the team. Furthermore, although not highly significant but still relevant, the way how sponsorship is viewed, i.e., through variables as *Sponsorship as Means*, *Commercialization*, or the significant variable *Sponsor's Ubiquity* shows that drivers for forming attitudes exceed emotional attachment.

As *Community Immersed Fans* do not hold a favorable general attitude towards sponsorship, supporting Magnus Svensson's statement (Appendix D), working with them requires high transparency in the sponsorship operations and open communication. Being susceptible to *Exposure to Sponsorship*, i.e., how much the fan knows about the sponsorship, and the *Sponsor's Commercial Intent* strengthens the need to openly communicate and show the appreciation and value of this group through the Sponsor's actions. Already implemented initiatives, such as Puma's create-your-own-jersey, cater to this feeling of inclusion and importance and trigger emotional attachment. As this spectator segment also shows a strong

appreciation of their long-standing relationship with MFF, initiatives leveraging the nostalgic, as well as the traditional aspect, may elicit purchase intentions. However, caution has to be exercised to not only focus on this group and neglecting the other three.

Accompanying the *Commercial Immersed Fan's* importance of *Sponsor's Commercial Intent, External Observers* are concerned with the *Sponsor's Ubiquity*, prominence, and prestige, which guides their *Attitude towards the Sponsorship*. Therefore, the Sponsor needs to communicate and demonstrate its credibility actively, and especially in terms of ubiquity, show its relevance also with other sport industries in order to show its market position. A possibility in the Nordics could be holding a summit or interactive conference with leading sponsorships representatives, on an individual or team/club basis where spectators can dive into the world of Puma's reach and exposure. For the club or property, the *External Observers* are part of the critical mass evaluating the sponsorship relations based on perceived fit. As MFF already has a balanced sponsorship acquisition process in place and learned to consider relevant aspects to portfolio fit, it can be stated that this segment is already catered to in the right way.

In order to successfully commercialize insights gained on *Receptitve Casuals*, it is crucial to engage in activities and sponsorship activations with recency and frequency. Through constant exposure, the typical spectator belonging to this group is triggered, i.e., logos on the jersey, providing visual cues whenever possible, as well as engaging in interactive communication with the group. Similar to *External Observers*, the *Sponsor's Ubiquity* is shown to be an important predictor for the *Attitude towards Sponsorship*. Therefore, similar communication initiatives should be taken on to reach consumers in this segment. Spectators in this group behave the most similar to the conventional consumer in other industries, in comparison to the other three groups. Purchase intentions are driven by visually triggering cues that relate to the consumers' mental schema and can be exemplified through repeated and "simple" exposure.

Finally, deriving implications for *Experience Seekers* in order to gain commercial and economic benefits sheds light on different activation initiatives. The typical *Experience Seeker* attends football games purely for fun, entertainment, and the thrill of competition while enjoying the time with family and friends. Meanwhile, spectators that are part of this group relate these hedonic activities to their *Attitude towards Sponsorship*, if they have any.

While MFF needs to ensure a well-fit portfolio for the *Experience Seeker* to evaluate and hold positive attitudes, sponsorship activation initiatives should focus on catering to the experience and play aspect. Adding to the experience by holding small games and competitions, or giveaways, will activate favorable attribution to the Sponsor and initiate to strengthen the spectator's mental associative network (Drengner et al., 2011). Linking back to the initially introduced Psychological Continuum Model, there is a lucrative possibility for both to support this spectator's movement along the continuum to a point where the economic benefit is derived.

Limitations and Future Research

The underlying research study provides useful insights into the study of consumer behavior in sports. However, although a multi-analytical approach is applied under the pragmatist worldview and thorough analysis of the theoretical context, several limitations are inherent in the research that need to be accounted for.

First, methodological limitations are present through the sample size used in the analysis. While an approximate value of 200 data entries is considered acceptable (Malhotra et al., 2017), the dataset included 151 valid responses, showing a high drop-out rate and invalid answers from the initial 276 responses. This limits the expressiveness of the results in a way that they can only be generalized in a cautious manner. These limitations could influence how the results are seen, e.g., for *Community Immersed Fans*, where, in absolute numbers, 14 respondents are assigned to the segment, while simultaneously having a distinct position among the different segments. Evaluating what could have caused the smaller sample size, the sampling technique, and settings within the instrumented questionnaire are potential bottlenecks. By explicitly addressing MFF spectators and fans that have at least seen one or more games as well as sampling physically at the stadium and through exclusive online, social media channels, it is a difficult-to-reach population for this kind of survey research. Further, the questionnaire was instrumented not to let respondents continue with unanswered questions, which might have led to increased drop-out rates through respondents that did not hold an opinion for specific questions and were unable to continue without answering. Another option would have been to allow for missing values and replace these by mean values in the analysis process.

Furthermore, in order to increase potential reach during the sampling phase, a Europa League game between MFF and Wolfsburg was chosen to address spectators and fans. However, this could have had an impact on the initial filter questions asking for the number of games watched with MFF. This could have been misinterpreted by relating it to games within the Europa League and therefore decreasing the number of valid responses.

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic affecting the writing process and the researchers' access to resources, the data analysis is limited to the extent to which certain types of analysis could be conducted. The obtained institution's license for the statistical software (IBM Corp., 2019) limited the availability of factor analysis to the exploratory measures rather than including tools for confirmatory factor analysis. Due to the unavailability of the institution's physical resources, where bespoken analysis is possible, it was not possible to conduct such analysis in order to follow the government-imposed restrictions related to COVID-19. It is to the researchers' awareness that bespoken type of factor analysis could have provided altered statistical results, and interpretations would be slightly adapted. However, the researchers are confident in the analytical results and insights gained from the data set and see the aforementioned limitation as minor.

From the theoretical perspective, Puma's sponsorship portfolio was introduced to test for the attitude towards the sponsor with and without additional provided knowledge. However, this knowledge was limited to the Nordic portfolio as it is related to the underlying case company. It has to be assumed that respondents are exposed to knowledge about Puma's sponsorship outside the Nordic region, which in turn could have had an effect on respective responses.

Lastly, while the segmentation of spectators and fans has found significant discriminating variables, it has to be acknowledged that the resulting discriminant functions are all influenced by one significant variable and partly show a weaker significance. As it is interpreted and concluded before, some differences among segments are based on slight nuances on specific variables, and the respective discriminating power needs to be kept in mind.

Future research can build upon the discovered insights in several ways. Generally, a mixed-method approach to further understand discovered spectators' attitudes could be employed. Different spectator groups in focus groups or in-depth interviews could provide deeper insights into intrinsic

motivations, and different scenarios could be explored where the different group's behavior could be analyzed. Furthermore, it would provide insights into the underlying research topic from the third, large stakeholder group. Next, applying the found variable structures for attitudes towards sponsorship could be tested for its applicability to sponsorship settings other than football or sports in general.

Building upon the underlying research in more detail, the sponsorship relation and its attitudes towards it could be explored on different levels, i.e., individual athlete endorsements versus club and league sponsorship. Moreover, when analyzing discriminant factors between segments of spectators, the here identified variables *Sponsorship as Means* and *Commercialization* demands more consideration and analysis as indications for its relevance were found. Additionally, exploring more variables that were not included in the present research study is needed to explore further what drives spectators' *Attitude towards Sponsorship*, especially in regard to spectator segments as the *Experience Seekers* or *Recepttive Casuals*. The aforementioned differing points of departure, when forming attitudes towards sponsorships, should also be further explored. In the same manner, further research for the level of involvement could provide more substantial discriminating power between the spectator segments. Lastly, the level of visual identification with the property or sponsored could be explored in more detail. For example, the *Receptive Casuals* could provide ground for analyzing factors influencing their self-portrayal in relation to a specific brand or club.

For *Community Immersed Fans*, it is hypothesized that nuances in terms of allegiance to MFF exist within the group. Future research could further test this fan segment on bespoken nuances to determine whether an even more detailed segmentation is necessary and commercially useful.

Furthermore, in the case of MFF, it would be interesting to explore to what extent the continuous professionalization of the Swedish football industry has an influence on the distribution of spectators across segments.

Much of the evaluated theoretical research has its roots in the analysis of sports event sponsorship and, to a lesser extent, on long term partnerships. Therefore, more research into the latter and differences between both settings would further nourish the understanding of consumer's and fan's behavior in the business-related context of sponsorships.

Conclusion

Having investigated how different segments, based on psychological attachment to the team, can be further discriminated by variables relating to overall constructs of perception and attitude towards the Sponsor and sponsorship as well as knowledge, several conclusions can be drawn.

First, it is important to consider aspects of identifying oneself with the sponsor as well as how the perception of the sponsor across spectator characterization. With four spectator and fan segments that primarily distinguish themselves along their self-congruence with the Sponsor, how the Sponsor is perceived to fit the team's or club's sponsor portfolio and the extent to which the Sponsor is perceived to possess market ubiquity and prominence, the need for more detailed classification becomes clear.

Second, in contrast to initial propositions made by the researchers, the knowledge about the main sponsor's sponsorship portfolio does not seem to play a role in forming the spectator's attitudes towards the specific sponsorship under investigation. More importantly, across identified segments, is the fit within the property's portfolio found to be relevant. Generally, it is also seen that there is a difference between spectator groups in terms of their locus of self-identification. While some see themselves in relation to the team, sponsor, and sponsorship, i.e., *Community Immersed Fans*, others view the sponsorship from an outside perspective where the spectator himself does not perceive himself included in the equation. Instead, the Sponsor's prominence and credibility are being assessed in order to form perceptions and attitudes. Although it seems eligible to claim that there are three ways and directions from which the spectator can view the sponsorship, starting with oneself, the club/team, or the Sponsor, this aspect deserves more research in its significance and related influencing variables.

Third, it is concluded that for some spectator groups, the included variables in the analysis are not sufficient to describe their motivations and driving forces for their *Attitude towards the Sponsorship.* For example, *Experience Seekers* are initially segmented based on their inherent hedonic motives for attending and viewing MFF's matches, but insufficient insight is gained as to what predicts their attitude towards the sponsorship. The included variables in the analysis were found based on a thorough analysis of the existing theoretical landscape and complemented by expert interviews. While some proved to be influential in characterizing and identifying spectator and fan groups further, it is interesting to see that there are still aspects that are not yet discovered that influence the spectator's *Attitude towards*

Sponsorship. However, this proves to be congruent with the previously analyzed complexity of sports management and especially related consumer behavior and will need further research to analyze bespoken aspects more.

Theoretical Contribution

As outlined at the beginning of the study, this thesis aims to fill one of the blind spots apparent within the field of sport marketing and management. This research is one of the first to propose a holistic approach to a complex environment. This is done by drawing from the relational paradigm and combining a distinct spectator segmentation with models concerning the spectators' attitude towards sponsorship, as well as portfolio management. Thereby, this study contributes to the existing literature in several ways.

First, a distinct spectator segmentation is introduced, based on the concept of spectators moving along a continuum relating to their psychological attachment to the team. As a result, the approach lifts significant limitations found in previous research. On the one hand, tiered segmentation models solely dependent on sport consumption motives do not account for sequentiality. On the other hand, models that do account for sequentiality, such as the PCM, have so far failed to provide a way to distinguish between spectators with the same level of psychological attachment. By combining both approaches, this study provides a way to solve this.

Second, a holistic approach for the evaluation of the attitude towards a specific sponsorship is provided for the identified segments individually. Thereby, this study continues to characterize and distinguish between different spectator segments in more detail. The derived insights can then be used to customize sponsorship activation in order to target segments directly.

Third, the evaluation of the *Perceived Fit of the Property's Sponsor Portfolio* as well as the *Perceived Fit of the Sponsor's Sponsorship Portfolio* has shown that within the setting of this study, the perceived fit of the property's portfolio is more important. This may be explained by the fact that the emotional attachment to the club is generally stronger than the attachment to the Sponsor. While this may cause sponsors to assume that their sponsoring activities do not have an influence, negative spillover effects for sponsoring, for example, rival teams still hold.

Lastly, most research in the area of sports sponsorship has been conducted in a wholly commercialized context, either on the event level or for professional football clubs. Due to the empirical context of this paper, this study provides insight into how spectators can be segmented, and sponsorships can be optimized in a not yet fully commercialized context. As such, this study has the potential to function as a benchmark for football clubs in the development from professionalization towards commercialization.

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List of Appendices

Appendix A – Preliminary Interviews

Semi-Structured Interview Guide for preliminary Interview

Puma Nordic AB – 21.01.2020

Overall aim: use interview to narrow down thematic scope, foundation for questionnaire

Foundation for Interview: Proposal and Interview Guide

1. How does Puma Nordic fit into the Puma Global context?
2. How does Puma Nordic approach sponsorships / what sponsorship activities are there?
3. What are previous experiences in regard to sponsoring activities?
4. How is the relationship with MFF?

Interview Guide Preliminary Interview MFF – 21.01.2020

Overall aim: use interview to narrow down thematic scope, foundation for questionnaire

Foundation for Interview: Proposal and Interview Guide

1. What is MFF's sponsor concept and does MFF have a sponsor strategy?
2. How do the spectators perceive sponsoring in general?
3. How is the relationship with Puma?

Appendix B – Main Interviews

Semi-structured interview guide for main interview

Question's marked with (*) were added throughout the interview process.

Semi-Structured Interview with Rutger Hagstad, Head of Marketing, Puma AB

1) Please state your name and profession in relation to Puma.
2) Please put Puma Nordics into context within the global company structure.

General Perception on Sponsoring

3) Please describe the main components of the Puma Nordics sponsorship portfolio.
    a) How do you perceive the portfolio? (e.g. coherent, scattered, ..)
4) What are the main reasons that lead to new sponsorship contracts?
        i) How does the selection process work?
5) Which sponsorships are the most beneficial for Puma and why?
6) How do you evaluate/measure ROI of your sponsorships?
7) Do you see interdependencies between different sponsorships?
    a) In terms of different sports clubs
    b) If so, which ones? (Both positive and negative)
8) To what extent do you take the consumers' possible reactions to new sponsees in your portfolio into account?

Malmö FF specific

9) Please describe the current situation between Puma and MFF.
10) How would you describe the attitude of MFF fans towards Puma?
    a) Do you see a difference in support/attitude towards Puma among different fan groups?
    b) If so, how do these differences manifest?
11) If you were to identify factors that influence the supporters'/fans' attitude towards Puma as a sponsor, which ones could these be?
    a) How does Puma address these?

12) Have you seen any differences in the attitude of fans towards Puma as a sponsor among different clubs (e.g. MFF, ManCity, …)

Semi-Structured Interview with Magnus Svensson, Director Sales B2B, Malmö FF

1) Please state your name and profession in relation to MFF.
2) Please briefly classify MFF's position in the Allsvenskan and within the international competitive soccer landscape.

General Perception on Sponsoring

3) Please describe the current situation between MFF and its sponsors, i.e. MFF's spectator's attitude towards sponsors main components of the Puma Nordics sponsorship portfolio.
    a. *Why did you decide to limit sponsors? Adapt to danish and english clubs?
    b. *Is this included in communication to fans? Assist sponsors in positive fan attitude? How do you manage that sponsors are important?
    c. How much would you say does MFF's success influence its relation to its existing sponsors.
    d. Please specify the relation to Puma in particular.
4) Please describe MFF's selection process of new sponsors.
    a. To what extent does the fans' perception of sponsors influence the selection process of potential new sponsors?
5) If you reflect upon past and current sponsorships, what has worked and what has not?
    a. What partners have you collaborated with before where the partnership did not work out?
    b. What do you perceive as the highest risk?
6) How would you describe and, if possible, classify MFF's fans?
7) How would you describe the current situation among MFF supporters and their current attitude toward sponsors/their perception towards sponsors?
    a. How does this attitude differ among the in 6 identified fan groups?
8) If you were to identify factors that influence the supporters/fans attitude towards the sponsor, i.e. Puma, which ones could these be?
    a. In our previous meeting we have talked about the sales of MFF Jerseys among fans, also considering the aspect of resembling visual identification.

What factors do you see related to that? I.e. we talked about culture and tradition - do you see more factors?

9) Have you seen any difference in the attitude of fans towards sponsors among previous sponsors (i.e. Nike and Puma, ...)?
    a. If so, how did these differences manifest?
    b. If you would change now from Puma to Nike, do you think there would be more fans coming to games?

Appendix C – Interview Summaries Preliminary Interviews

Written Interview Summary Rutger Hagstad, Puma AB

Generally, Puma Nordic AB (Puma) follows the strategy set by Puma SE. The company follows a "glocal" approach, leaving Puma Nordic AB with autonomy in many different areas. Sponsorships can either lie with HQ, or with the Nordics. Additionally, even though a contract may lie with HQ, it can still be activated locally.

When it comes to sponsoring, Puma identifies five relevant pillars. The first is activation, especially the sponsee. If Puma sponsors a football club, the club is used to activate products to support new launches. Second is B2B, which refers to the network of different companies from different industries that Swedish soccer clubs have. This partner networks supports the club, but also acts as a networking platform. In particular MFF has a very dense network, which provides its partners with for example access to additional sales. Some partners even sign a sponsoring contract with MFF just to be part of the network. B2B is followed by sales, which includes merchandise and fan wear, but also the kit that Puma sells to the clubs' youth teams. The fourth pillar consists of single players. Even though Puma can have a contract with a club, it can have additional contracts with individual players on top. This allows for better activation, more visibility but also brings Puma closer to the club. Last but not least, credibility is important. With sponsorships the company has the chance to create an image of Puma and its products and communicate that it is, for example, good enough for the best in Sweden (referring to MFF).

In terms of MFF in particular, the contract is special, as the club is not connected to a retailer, as it is usually the case for Swedish football clubs. The direct relationship between club and company allows for faster business, higher margins and easier activation. Due to MFF's importance to Puma, the club has its own sponsoring plan that includes aspects such as key development areas and objectives, but also what players are wearing, and Puma is selling.

Written Interview Summary MFF, Magnus Svensson

MFF changed its sponsorship approach in 2009, when the new stadium was built. The club saw this as a chance for a new concept that was closer to the UEFA approach of "less is more". As a result, MFF was the first club to get a naming right partner for the newly built stadium, limit the number of companies exposed on the jersey and further limit the number of official partners. In addition to the 16 main partners, MFF has smaller sponsors with no exposure, but are still part of MFF's network.

In general, MFF has a diverse audience, but also a strong base of "hard core" fans. These fans vocalize their opinions strongly and take power in the club. During the sponsoring of ICA this led to a new rule, stating that all sponsorship logos exposed either on the shirt, or around the stadium needed to be in blue and white (MFF's colors).

When it comes to the relationship with Puma, the long-standing history has established trust, as well as knowledge. MFF and Puma phrase their goals together and, for example, collaborate on a strategy about how to sell more jerseys.

Appendix D – Interview Summaries Main Interviews

Link to both audio-files for the main interview

https://drive.google.com/open?id=1XaLynMZrjQ1tHE5Z0khf1RaAlOvrUsio

Written summary Rutger Hagstad, Puma AB

General on Puma

1. *Please state your name and profession in relation to Puma.*
   - Rutger Hagstad - Head of Marketing, Puma Nordic

2. *Please put Puma Nordics into context within the global company structure.*
   - Puma Nordic is a subsidiary under Puma SE with headquarters in Helsingborg/ Sweden

General Perception on Sponsoring

3. *Please describe the main components of the Puma Nordics sponsorship portfolio.*
   - Pretty focused, football as the biggest sport, even stronger in Sweden than in Denmark and Norway
   - In Sweden there are 10 elite teams for men and women
   - Next to football, handball is very strong in Denmark and Finland
   - Individual assets
   - Generally: one has to differentiate sponsorships with sales deals

4. *What are the main reasons that lead to new sponsorship contracts?*
   - Growing market share
   - Gaining credibility and authenticity
   - Many different reasons for signing a contract
     - Geographical
     - Purely strategic
     - Purely sales

Selection process

- Identify business units, analyze portfolio and find potential white spots that can be optimized
- Identify market, track existing contracts and players in the industry in general – collect information
- Not seldom that club comes to Puma directly

5. *Which sponsorships are the most beneficial for Puma and why?*
   - Consider the best marketing club
   - Sales related beneficial contracts
   - Contracts that create credibilty
6. *How do you evaluate/measure ROI of your sponsorships?*
   - Measure from 2 views
     1. calculation beforehand based on # members, prospective sales, costs, or
     2. evaluation after as combination of actual sales and marketing exposure

        e.g. MFF: sends a overview every year how much the contract is worth (how many times the logo has been viewed etc.)
   - generally: long-term partnerships are the most beneficial ones
7. *Do you see interdependencies between different sponsorships?*
   - When puma signs global deals (ManCity) it gives more opportunity for creating products with club colors
   - In a country with too many elite teams → good for visibility, but bad for focus point
8. *To what extent do you take the consumers' possible reactions to new sponsees in your portfolio into account?*
   - Yes and no
   - Example: Stockholm with three major clubs
     - Puma wouldn't take up a contract with two clubs in the same city
     - It is conflicting when you are partnering with competitors, as it send an un-loyalty message to the respective spectators
     - Puma tries to listen when it comes to details in contract

<u>Malmö FF specific</u>

9. *Please describe the current situation between Puma and MFF.*
   - MFF is one of most important contracts in the Nordics - big club, long term partnership, one of the best clubs
   - Sponsoring MFF allows for positive connections with Puma

10. *How would you describe the attitude of MFF fans towards Puma?*

a. *Do you see a difference in support/attitude towards Puma among different fan groups?*

b. *If so, how do these differences manifest?*
   - Difference between hard core supporters and others
   - This group thinks they own the club / maybe even do, due to the member structure
   - They don't like any commercial at all
   - Because they have such a loud voice, Puma has to listen to them
   - More generic fan only wants MFF to do well and doesn't really care about the sponsorship

Written Summary Magnus Svensson, MFF

Summary might vary from planned interview guide due to its semi-structured nature.

1. *What is your name and your profession at MFF?*
    - Magnus Svensson
    - Director of Sales B2B - all partners and all sponsorships
2. *Please briefly classify MFF's position in the Allsvenskan and within the international competitive soccer landscape.*
    - MFF is biggest club in Sweden, won league 21 times - more than any other team
3. *Please describe the current situation between MFF and its sponsors / MFF's attitude towards sponsors.*
    - Sponsor structure - 3 sponsor logos on shirt, 1 in front, 1 on back, 1 on arm
    - Other teams: don't have limited amount of companies, often 8-12 partners on shirt
    - Swedish league has no rules on how many sponsors can be on shirt (compare england: 2)
    - MFF follows UEFA / less is more
    - 16 sponsors on the highest level - only sponsors with exposure in and around stadium, homepage and social media
4. **Why did you decide to limit sponsors? Adapt to danish and english clubs?*
    - In 2009, when the new stadium was built, we adopted a new concept more similar to UEFA
    - That meant a limited number of sponsors with exposure around stadium
    - If the sponsors are limited, not all can be on the jersey → limit extent
        - Stadium: Eleda
        - Kit Manufacturer: Puma
5. **What is MFF's general attitude towards sponsorships?*
    - Very positive, the toughest is to get the fans to like the sponsor concept / activities with partners
    - MFF fans want the jersey clean and no stadium naming rights
    - However, the last 10-12 years everyone started to understand the importance of sponsors
    - Money can be used to grow - buy players – help the success
    - Also: jeryes and kits are with blue and white logos across all teams only
6. **Is this included in communication to fans? Assist sponsors in positive fan attitude? How do you manage that sponsors are important?*
    - Communication and dialogue are important
    - Rules to involve fans in advertisement
    - MFF tries to have sponsors activate and communicate with fans
7. *How much would you say does MFF's success influence its relation to its existing sponsors?*
    - Success in different areas
        - Winning the Swedish League, participating in EL, or CL is important for partners
        - Other areas: society
        - MFF works with society
        - MFF is very strong when it comes to social involvement, even better than other teams across Sweden
        - Internationally: bigger clubs can learn from swedish clubs/MFF to work within community

- Sponsors want MFF to do societal activation

8. *Please describe MFF's selection process of new sponsors.*
    - MFF is ot that big of a club, which limits leverage when choosing sponsors
    - If the price for, e.g. the jersey, is lower - higher demand
    - but MFF sees itself to be higher than other Swedish clubs, which drives up the price for sponsorships
    - MFF has to deliver high quality sponsorships so that other companies talk about MFF and have interest to join MFF as partners
    - MFF has agents around world to activate new sponsors
9. *To what extent does the fans' perception of sponsors influence the selection process of potential new sponsors?*
    - Strong fan base in Malmö
    - Strong number in social media followers
    - Interesting for B2C company
    - 5-6 years ago big companies were afraid to buy rights in Swedish football due to hooligan culture and exposure connected to fan scandal
    - But the problem has been eradicated
10. *If you reflect upon past and current sponsorships, what has worked and what has not?*
    - For sponsors it is important to know that they can "use" MFF
    - But the buying rights are only on one side – there is a need for extra money to activate sponsorship
    - Companies that have structure and marketing plan are successful and see ROI
11. *How would you describe and if possible classify MFF's fans?*
    - They are all different
    - Mostly male, some female
    - Range from hard core fans, over family dads, to young adults
12. *If you were to identify factors that influence the supporters/fans attitude towards the sponsor, i.e. Puma, which ones could these be?*
    - Which factors influence fans attitude toward Puma?
        - Puma is kit supplier to many teams in EU and world
        - E.g. Man City - if you like Man City then that has positive impact on relationship with Puma
13. Have you seen any difference in the attitude of fans towards sponsors among previous sponsors (i.e. Nike and Puma, ...)?
    - Deal with Nike was in 1999/2000 and much has happened since
    - Fans would've liked Nike to be the kit supplier due to Nike's global presence
    - But the Nike contract could have meant different jerseys every year, which in turn would have been against liking of fans and then in turn generate a negative impact on both MFF and Nike
    - Puma, however, has active communication with fans, who can have their voices be heard
    - If kit supplier listens to fans, there is a holistic approach that is more important than money

Appendix E – English Questionnaire

Link to self-administered online questionnaire

https://copenhagenbusiness.eu.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_1Cb0gKGGlJaYAwR

Measurement Scale for Questions 4-9 and 11: 7-point Likert scale, with:

(1) Strongly agree; (2) Agree; (3) Somewhat agree; (4) Neither agree nor disagree; (5) Somewhat disagree; (6) Disagree; (7) Strongly disagree

Measurement Scale for Questions 1-3, 10, 12-19 as indicated

Questionnaire was also available in Swedish

Intro Text:

Dear Participant,

We are two Master Students at Copenhagen Business School conducting research on Malmö FF and its sponsorships for our Master Thesis Project. Please think carefully at every question and answer honestly. This will take you no more than 10 minutes. Your answers will be treated anonymously and confidentially.

Thank you very much for your time.

E0 I would like to answer the survey in: // Jag skulle vilja besvara följande undersökning på:

( ) English ( ) Svenska

E1 How many games of Malmö FF (MFF) have you seen in the stadium or through streaming services/ TV/ etc. during the year 2019?

None; 1-5; 6-10; 11-15; 16-20; 21-25; 26-30; >30

E2 How many games of Malmö FF have you seen in the stadium during the year 2019?

None; 1-5; 6-10; 11-15; 16-20; 21-25; 26-30; >30

E3 Did you have a season ticket for the 2019 season?

( ) Yes ( ) No

E4 Please indicate to which extent you agree with the following statements:

I am devoted to MFF

I am dedicated to MFF

I am committed to MFF

When MFF loses a game, I feel sad.

I attend MFF games because I feel being a part of the MFF community.

Wanting to spend time with my friends is one reason to go to MFF games.

The opportunity to spend time with my family is why I like attending MFF games.

One reason I attend MFF games is because the team plays hard all the time and the players do their best

I come to MFF games in order to feel connected to MFF.

I feel a personal sense of achievement when the team does well.

It is important to me that MFF wins.

The main reason I attend MFF games is because of the experience.

I enjoy watching MFF games because of the thrill and excitement of the competition.

For me, MFF games are a good chance to escape from my daily routine.

For me, MFF games are a part of my daily routine.

I can count on MFF as a team and as a club.

MFF as a club has integrity.

MFF is reliable.

E5 Please indicate to which extent you agree with the following statements:

I feel that soccer is too commercialized

The fact that a company is an official sponsor of a soccer club has no impact on my purchase decision.

I am more likely to buy products from companies that are official sponsors.

Official sponsors of soccer should not try to commercialize the industry.

Sponsorships are an important part of the soccer industry.

Before answering further questions, please read the following information carefully:
MFF operates within a Netværket of Sponsors, including 16 sponsors, with namely Puma, Volkswagen, Tictac Interactive, Tilmobil, Eleda (as naming-right sponsor for the stadium), Unibet and Limitado as main partners. Other official partners include AAK , APQ, Bemt, Cabonline, Elitfönster, exakta, Länsförsäkringar Skåne, Simplify, Spendrups and Sydsvenskan

E6 Please indicate to which extent you agree with the following statements:

There is a logical connection among the main partners.

The image of the main partners are similar.

The main partners fit well together.

The main partners stand for similar things.

It makes sense to me that the main partners sponsor MFF.

E7 Please indicate to which extent you agree with the following statements:

I feel included in MFF decision making processes

Compared to other football clubs, MFF has a good sponsorship concept.

I am aware of the fact that MFF has a unique sponsorship concept compared to other clubs in Allsvenskan.

I am aware of the fact that, unrelated to a sponsor’s original colors, all branding is in MFF colors (i.e. blue and white).

E-TEST 7 Please select the answer that says - Disagree - below:

Following will be more specific questions regarding MFF's sponsor PUMA.

E8 Please indicate to which extent you agree with the following statements:

Wearing Puma products in casual situations is consistent with how I see myself.

Wearing Puma products in casual situations reflects who I am.

People similar to me wear Puma products in casual situations.

I can relate to Puma and Puma's values in a way I can't relate to other companies.

There is a logical connection between MFF and Puma.

The image of MFF and the image of Puma are similiar.

Puma and MFF fit well together.

Puma and MFF stand for similar things.

It makes sense to me that Puma sponsors MFF.

I have had a lot of experience with the sponsorship between Puma and MFF.

I am highly knowledgeable about the sponsorship between Puma and MFF.

I would describe myself as being familiar with the sponsorship between Puma and MFF.

E9 Please indicate to which extent you agree with the following statements:

Puma sponsors many different sports.

It is very common to see Puma sponsoring football clubs.

I expect Puma to sponsor bigger football clubs.

The main reason Puma would be involved with MFF is because Puma believes that MFF deserves Support.

Puma would be likely to have best interests of the sport at heart

Puma would probably support MFF even if it had a much lower profile.

Puma is well known.

Puma is highly regarded in the industry.

Puma is one of the most capable firms in the sports industry.

E10 Overall, my attitude toward Puma is:

Extremely good (1) to Extremely bad (7)

Like a great deal (1) to Dislike a great deal (7)

Extremely positive (1) to Extremely negative (7)

TE10 Before answering further questions, please read the following information carefully: Puma AB is headquartered in the Nordics in Helsingborg/ Sweden and cooperates with different sport teams and athletes within football, i.e. teams in the Danish superliga, Norwegian eliteliga, Finnish Veikkausliiga and Swedish Allsvenskan. Additionally, Puma supports the national Norwegian Track & Field team, Swedish and Danish Golfers as well as co-operations with lifestyle brands and artists, such as Helly Hansen, Balmain and Selena Gomez. Puma sponsors Malmö FF, the until today most successful football club in Sweden, and is the club's kit manufacturer. The ongoing partnership exists since 1986, with a short interruption from 1998 to 2001.

E11 Please indicate to which extent you agree with the following statements:

I perceive the sponsoring activities of Puma to be coherent and with a logical connection among the properties.

The sponsorship of MFF makes sense within Pumas portfolio.

The image of Puma's sponsored entities are similar.

It makes sense to me that Puma sponsors these properties.

E12 Overall, my attitude toward Puma is:

Extremely good (1) to Extremely bad (7)

Like a great deal (1) to Dislike a great deal (7)

Extremely positive (1) to Extremely negative (7)

E13 Please indicate your age

E14 Please indicate what best describes your gender:

( ) Male ( ) Female ( ) Other: ( ) Prefer not to say

E15 Please indicate your nationality:

( ) Swedish ( ) Danish ( ) Norwegian ( ) Finnish ( ) Other country in the EU ( ) Outside of the EU

E16 What is the highest degree of education you have attained?

( ) Primary School ( ) High School Diploma ( ) Vocational Training ( ) Bachelor's Degree ( ) Master's Degree ( ) Doctorate Degree

E17 What is your current main occupation?

( ) Self-Employed ( ) Currently Unemployed ( ) Employed Full-Time ( ) Employed Part-Time ( ) Student

E18 Do you have any additional information related to the survey you would like to share with us?

E19 If you want to enter the random draw on 2 free tickets for a Malmö FF game, please enter your e-mail address here:

Appendix F – Descriptive Analysis Statistical Output

Descriptive Analysis on the sample population

Table F1: Gender frequency table.

Gender_E14

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	31	20,5	20,5	20,5
	Male	114	75,5	75,5	96,0
	Other	3	2,0	2,0	98,0
	Prefer not to say	3	2,0	2,0	100,0
	Total	151	100,0	100,0	

Table F2: Nationality frequency table.

Nationality_E15

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Other country outside the EU	1	,7	,7	,7
	Danish	5	3,3	3,3	4,0
	Other country in the EU	9	6,0	6,0	9,9
	Swedish	136	90,1	90,1	100,0
	Total	151	100,0	100,0	

Table F3: Education frequency table.

Education_E16

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bachelor's Degree	38	25,2	25,2	25,2
	Doctorate Degree	1	,7	,7	25,8
	High School diploma	38	25,2	25,2	51,0
	Master's Degree	47	31,1	31,1	82,1
	Primary School	3	2,0	2,0	84,1
	Vocational training	24	15,9	15,9	100,0
	Total	151	100,0	100,0	

Table F4: Occupation frequency table.

Occupation_E17

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Currently unemployed	1	,7	,7	,7
	Employed Full-Time	111	73,5	73,5	74,2
	Employed Part-Time	6	4,0	4,0	78,1
	Self-employed	11	7,3	7,3	85,4
	Student	22	14,6	14,6	100,0
	Total	151	100,0	100,0	

Table F5: Age frequency table.

Age_E13

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0-17	2	1,3	1,3	1,3
	18-24	21	13,9	13,9	15,2
	25-34	48	31,8	31,8	47,0
	35-44	40	26,5	26,5	73,5
	45-54	26	17,2	17,2	90,7
	55-64	12	7,9	7,9	98,7
	65-74	1	,7	,7	99,3
	85-94	1	,7	,7	100,0
	Total	151	100,0	100,0	

Appendix G – Factor Analysis Statistical Output

Principle Component Analysis with orthogonal rotation (Varimax) on items relating to psychological attachment to the team attributes.

Table G1: Descriptive Statistics for items on psychological attachment to the team attributes.

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis N
Commitment1	1,56	1,214	151
Commitment2	1,50	1,131	151
Commitment3	2,15	1,334	151
Psychological Connection motives1	2,03	1,363	151
Social influence motives1	2,17	1,418	151
Social influence motives2	2,84	1,579	151
Social influence motives3	4,24	2,090	151
Psychological Connection motives2	3,04	1,509	151
Psychological Connection motives3	2,29	1,225	151
Psychological Connection motives4	2,49	1,460	151
Psychological Connection motives5	1,70	,992	151
Hedonic motives1	2,54	1,408	151
Hedonic motives2	2,38	1,221	151
Hedonic motives3	3,13	1,917	151
Hedonic motives4	3,12	1,803	151
Trust1	1,95	1,310	151
Trust2	1,85	,882	151
Trust3	2,09	,959	151

Table G2: Correlation matrix for items on psychological attachment to the team.

		Commitment 1	Commitment 2	Commitment 3	Psychological Connection motives1	Social influence motives1	Social influence motives2	Social influence motives3	Psychological Connection motives2	Psychological Connection motives3	Psychological Connection motives4	Psychological Connection motives5	Hedonic motives1	Hedonic motives2	Hedonic motives3	Hedonic motives4	Trust1	Trust2	Trust3
Correlation	Commitment1	1,000	,914	,624	,730	,726	,283	,065	,337	,512	,543	,721	-,008	-,021	-,024	,575	,693	,363	,416
	Commitment2	,914	1,000	,583	,690	,765	,250	,098	,277	,538	,516	,717	,016	,014	-,028	,536	,612	,368	,403
	Commitment3	,624	,583	1,000	,536	,544	,328	,155	,315	,484	,494	,613	,082	,047	-,018	,483	,516	,313	,303
	Psychological Connection motives1	,730	,690	,536	1,000	,583	,201	,067	,284	,441	,588	,697	,036	-,020	,009	,527	,587	,264	,278
	Social influence motives1	,726	,765	,544	,583	1,000	,390	,182	,392	,696	,513	,629	,106	,116	,026	,508	,615	,345	,445
	Social influence motives2	,283	,250	,328	,201	,390	1,000	,335	,425	,479	,358	,178	,348	,146	,212	,290	,321	,155	,216
	Social influence motives3	,065	,098	,155	,067	,182	,335	1,000	,403	,220	,195	,002	,409	,246	,153	,137	,146	,294	,292
	Psychological Connection motives2	,337	,277	,315	,284	,392	,425	,403	1,000	,509	,433	,275	,256	,317	,030	,358	,476	,375	,477
	Psychological Connection motives3	,512	,538	,484	,441	,696	,479	,220	,509	1,000	,579	,494	,263	,165	,108	,482	,554	,255	,325
	Psychological Connection motives4	,543	,516	,494	,588	,513	,358	,195	,433	,579	1,000	,539	,106	,058	,167	,568	,616	,299	,384
	Psychological Connection motives5	,721	,717	,613	,697	,629	,178	,002	,275	,494	,539	1,000	,078	,013	-,067	,478	,603	,300	,343
	Hedonic motives1	-,008	,016	,082	,036	,106	,348	,409	,256	,263	,106	,078	1,000	,331	,195	-,089	,001	,128	,094
	Hedonic motives2	-,021	,014	,047	-,020	,116	,146	,246	,317	,165	,058	,013	,331	1,000	,163	,028	,079	,201	,233
	Hedonic motives3	-,024	-,028	-,018	,009	,026	,212	,153	,030	,108	,167	-,067	,195	,163	1,000	,150	,027	-,075	-,028
	Hedonic motives4	,575	,536	,483	,527	,508	,290	,137	,358	,482	,568	,478	-,089	,028	,150	1,000	,604	,304	,372
	Trust1	,693	,612	,516	,587	,615	,321	,146	,476	,554	,616	,603	,001	,079	,027	,604	1,000	,564	,587
	Trust2	,363	,368	,313	,264	,345	,155	,294	,375	,255	,299	,300	,128	,201	-,075	,304	,564	1,000	,701
	Trust3	,416	,403	,303	,278	,445	,216	,292	,477	,325	,384	,343	,094	,233	-,028	,372	,587	,701	1,000

a. Determinant = 1,17E-005

Table G3: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,885
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1625,785
	df	153
	Sig.	,000

Table G4: Communalities for items on psychological attachment to the team attributes.

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
Commitment1	1,000	,827
Commitment2	1,000	,778
Commitment3	1,000	,540
Psychological Connection motives1	1,000	,674
Social influence motives1	1,000	,694
Social influence motives2	1,000	,543
Social influence motives3	1,000	,511
Psychological Connection motives2	1,000	,570
Psychological Connection motives3	1,000	,643
Psychological Connection motives4	1,000	,584
Psychological Connection motives5	1,000	,691
Hedonic motives1	1,000	,525
Hedonic motives2	1,000	,383
Hedonic motives3	1,000	,386
Hedonic motives4	1,000	,518
Trust1	1,000	,732
Trust2	1,000	,758
Trust3	1,000	,766

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table G5: Total variance explained for extracted factors.

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7,414	41,192	41,192	7,414	41,192	41,192	6,437	35,759	35,759
2	2,285	12,693	53,885	2,285	12,693	53,885	2,456	13,645	49,404
3	1,423	7,903	61,788	1,423	7,903	61,788	2,229	12,384	61,788
4	,991	5,503	67,291						
5	,855	4,750	72,041						
6	,752	4,179	76,220						
7	,626	3,477	79,697						
8	,581	3,228	82,925						
9	,535	2,973	85,898						
10	,447	2,484	88,382						
11	,397	2,208	90,590						
12	,375	2,082	92,672						
13	,309	1,714	94,386						
14	,278	1,545	95,931						
15	,256	1,424	97,355						
16	,229	1,272	98,627						
17	,183	1,019	99,646						
18	,064	,354	100,000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table G6: Rotated component matrix.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component		
	Community Motives	*Hedonic Motives*	*Trust Motives*
Commitment1	,892		
Commitment2	,866		
Psychological Connection motives5	,821		
Psychological Connection motives1	,820		
Social influence motives1	,792		
Trust1	,730		,442
Commitment3	,719		
Psychological Connection motives4	,709		
Hedonic motives4	,700		
Psychological Connection motives3	,668	,436	
Hedonic motives1		,722	
Social influence motives2		,648	
Social influence motives3		,624	
Hedonic motives3		,528	
Hedonic motives2		,507	
Psychological Connection motives2		,494	,465
Trust2			,825
Trust3			,800

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Table G7: Component Transformation matrix.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	*Community Motives*	*Hedonic Motives*	*Trust Motives*
Community Motives	,904	,248	,347
Hedonic Motives	-,362	,878	,314
Trust Motives	,226	,410	-,884

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Principle Component Analysis with orthogonal rotation (Varimax) on remaining items relating to attitude towards sponsorship attributes.

Table G8: Descriptive Statistics for items on attitude towards sponsorship attributes.

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Analysis N
	2,31	1,214	141
Ubiquity1			
Ubiquity2	2,41	1,225	141
Ubiquity3	2,60	1,378	141
Sincerity1	3,69	1,848	141
Sincerity2	3,87	1,725	141
Sincerity3	3,87	1,824	141
Prominence1	1,66	,885	141
Prominence2	2,66	1,351	141
Prominence3	3,04	1,362	141
GeneralAttitude1	2,29	1,268	141
GeneralAttitude2	2,72	1,670	141
GeneralAttitude3	4,43	1,778	141
GeneralAttitude4	2,52	1,510	141
GeneralAttitude5	2,29	1,262	141
PerceivedFitProperty1	3,81	1,478	141
PerceivedFitProperty2	4,13	1,440	141
PerceivedFitProperty3	3,88	1,328	141
PerceivedFitProperty4	3,89	1,387	141
PerceivedFitProperty5	3,67	1,457	141
AttitudeSponsorship1	3,60	1,698	141
AttitudeSponsorship2	2,67	1,285	141
AttitudeSponsorship3	2,99	1,665	141
AttitudeSponsorship4	2,18	1,486	141
SelfCongruence1	4,53	1,858	141
SelfCongruence2	4,89	1,772	141
SelfCongruence3	4,94	1,689	141
SelfCongruence4	4,68	1,627	141
Congruence1	3,40	1,634	141
Congruence2	3,74	1,524	141
Congruence3	3,22	1,545	141
Congruence4	3,49	1,296	141
Congruence5	3,17	1,656	141
Exposure1	4,23	1,700	141
Exposure2	4,28	1,704	141
Exposure3	3,70	1,801	141
PreKnowledge1	3,23	1,578	141
PreKnowledge2	3,28	1,644	141
PreKnowledge3	3,24	1,612	141
AttitudeSponsor1	2,99	1,174	141
AttitudeSponsor2	2,43	1,191	141
AttitudeSponsor3	3,21	1,180	141
AttitudeSponsor4	3,06	1,272	141
PostKnowledge1	3,13	1,640	141
PostKnowledge2	3,26	1,675	141
PostKnowledge3	3,26	1,632	141

Table G9: Correlation matrix for items on attitude towards sponsorship attributes.

Correlation Matrix

Correlation Matrix with 45 items not available for appropriate display here. The complete correlation matrix can be accessed here:

https://drive.google.com/open?id=13Ov5Mm-Tx8YL2VrKa-05TQpKDnG6-kJA

a. Determinant = 7,90E-018

Table G10: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity.

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,872
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4889,669
	df	990
	Sig.	,000

Table G11: Communalities for items on attitude towards sponsorship attributes.

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
Ubiquity1	1,000	,549
Ubiquity2	1,000	,788
Ubiquity3	1,000	,703
Sincerity1	1,000	,733
Sincerity2	1,000	,680
Sincerity3	1,000	,565
Prominence1	1,000	,621
Prominence2	1,000	,664
Prominence3	1,000	,656
GeneralAttitude1	1,000	,747
GeneralAttitude2	1,000	,652
GeneralAttitude3	1,000	,580
GeneralAttitude4	1,000	,635
GeneralAttitude5	1,000	,727
PerceivedFitProperty1	1,000	,709
PerceivedFitProperty2	1,000	,759
PerceivedFitProperty3	1,000	,785
PerceivedFitProperty4	1,000	,739
PerceivedFitProperty5	1,000	,595
AttitudeSponsorship1	1,000	,525
AttitudeSponsorship2	1,000	,680
AttitudeSponsorship3	1,000	,639
AttitudeSponsorship4	1,000	,432
SelfCongruence1	1,000	,802
SelfCongruence2	1,000	,877
SelfCongruence3	1,000	,786
SelfCongruence4	1,000	,696
Congruence1	1,000	,700
Congruence2	1,000	,719
Congruence3	1,000	,753
Congruence4	1,000	,683
Congruence5	1,000	,727
Exposure1	1,000	,758
Exposure2	1,000	,813
Exposure3	1,000	,747
PreKnowledge1	1,000	,860
PreKnowledge2	1,000	,875
PreKnowledge3	1,000	,904
AttitudeSponsor1	1,000	,694
AttitudeSponsor2	1,000	,603
AttitudeSponsor3	1,000	,653
AttitudeSponsor4	1,000	,644
PostKnowledge1	1,000	,919
PostKnowledge2	1,000	,885
PostKnowledge3	1,000	,925

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table G12: Total variance explained for extracted factors.

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	14,409	32,020	32,020	14,409	32,020	32,020	6,398	14,217	14,217
2	4,522	10,050	42,070	4,522	10,050	42,070	4,945	10,988	25,205
3	2,818	6,262	48,333	2,818	6,262	48,333	4,531	10,068	35,274
4	2,207	4,905	53,238	2,207	4,905	53,238	3,870	8,601	43,874
5	1,842	4,094	57,332	1,842	4,094	57,332	2,905	6,455	50,330
6	1,610	3,578	60,910	1,610	3,578	60,910	2,651	5,891	56,220
7	1,340	2,978	63,888	1,340	2,978	63,888	2,597	5,770	61,991
8	1,251	2,780	66,667	1,251	2,780	66,667	1,559	3,464	65,455
9	1,180	2,622	69,289	1,180	2,622	69,289	1,386	3,080	68,535
10	1,004	2,232	71,521	1,004	2,232	71,521	1,344	2,986	71,521
11	,981	2,180	73,701						
12	,881	1,957	75,659						
13	,873	1,939	77,598						
14	,792	1,759	79,357						
15	,763	1,696	81,053						
16	,685	1,523	82,576						
17	,646	1,436	84,012						
18	,587	1,305	85,317						
19	,541	1,201	86,518						
20	,492	1,094	87,612						
21	,476	1,059	88,671						
22	,451	1,002	89,673						
23	,433	,962	90,635						
24	,407	,904	91,538						
25	,383	,851	92,390						
26	,330	,733	93,123						
27	,315	,700	93,823						
28	,296	,657	94,480						
29	,281	,625	95,105						
30	,264	,586	95,691						
31	,238	,528	96,219						
32	,220	,488	96,707						
33	,212	,471	97,178						
34	,186	,413	97,591						
35	,173	,384	97,975						
36	,152	,338	98,313						
37	,141	,313	98,626						
38	,124	,276	98,901						
39	,113	,251	99,153						
40	,111	,246	99,399						
41	,093	,207	99,606						
42	,065	,145	99,752						
43	,049	,109	99,861						
44	,041	,090	99,951						
45	,022	,049	100,000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table G13: Rotated component matrix.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component									
	Sponsors Portfolio Activity's	Identification with Sponsor	Attitude towards Sponsor	Perceived Fit Property Portfolio	Exposure Sponsorship	Attitude Sponsorship	Sponsor's Ubiquity	Sponsorship as Means	Sponsor's Commercial Intent	Commercialization
PostKnowledge1	,937									
PostKnowledge3	,933									
PostKnowledge2	,921									
PreKnowledge3	,921									
PreKnowledge2	,907									
PreKnowledge1	,882									
Congruence3	,512	,448								
Congruence5	,472		,448							
SelfCongruence2		,859								
SelfCongruence3		,814								
SelfCongruence1		,809								
SelfCongruence4		,640								
GeneralAttitude3		,536								
Congruence2		,501	,419							
Sincerity2		,469				,425				
Sincerity3										
AttitudeSponsor4			,677							
AttitudeSponsor2			,676							
AttitudeSponsor3			,667							
AttitudeSponsor1			,636							
Prominence2			,536							
Congruence4			,536							
Prominence1			,492				,453			
Congruence1			,480							
PerceivedFitProperty3				,853						
PerceivedFitProperty2				,835						
PerceivedFitProperty4				,806						
PerceivedFitProperty1				,779						
PerceivedFitProperty5				,633						
Exposure2					,835					
Exposure3					,763					
Exposure1		,425			,703					
AttitudeSponsorship3						,701				
AttitudeSponsorship2						,665				
AttitudeSponsorship4						,513				
AttitudeSponsorship1						,493				
Ubiquity2							,801			
Ubiquity3							,717			
Ubiquity1							,641			
Prominence3			,444				,463			
GeneralAttitude5								,777		
GeneralAttitude4								-,665		
GeneralAttitude2									,730	
Sincerity1						,438			,447	
GeneralAttitude1										,802

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]
a. Rotation converged in 20 iterations.

Table G14: Component Transformation matrix.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	Sponsors Portfolio Activity's	Identification with Sponsor	Attitude towards Sponsor	Perceived Fit Property Portfolio	Exposure Sponsorship	Attitude Sponsorship	Sponsor's Ubiquity	Sponsorship as Means	Sponsor's Commercial Intent	Commercialization
1	,477	,489	,474	,302	,304	,248	,236	,091	,027	-,020
2	-,790	,194	-,045	,349	,215	,373	,163	,012	,040	,017
3	,196	-,180	-,210	,802	-,322	,038	-,319	,125	,139	-,005
4	,020	-,628	,271	,062	-,188	,181	,613	,248	-,086	,122
5	,293	-,221	-,490	-,093	,404	,489	,032	-,246	,207	,331
6	-,074	-,029	,381	,120	-,166	-,024	-,162	-,600	-,242	,601
7	-,028	,131	,081	-,080	-,384	-,005	,257	-,339	,795	-,088
8	,072	,091	-,377	,295	,134	-,492	,549	-,366	-,227	-,099
9	-,101	-,383	,305	,148	,604	-,431	-,171	-,005	,385	-,001
10	-,038	,274	-,171	-,032	-,043	-,312	,126	,494	,193	,705

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Appendix H – Cluster Analysis Statistical Output

Hierarchical Cluster Analysis based on psychological attachment to the team attributes.

TableH1: Agglomeration Schedule

Agglomeration Schedule

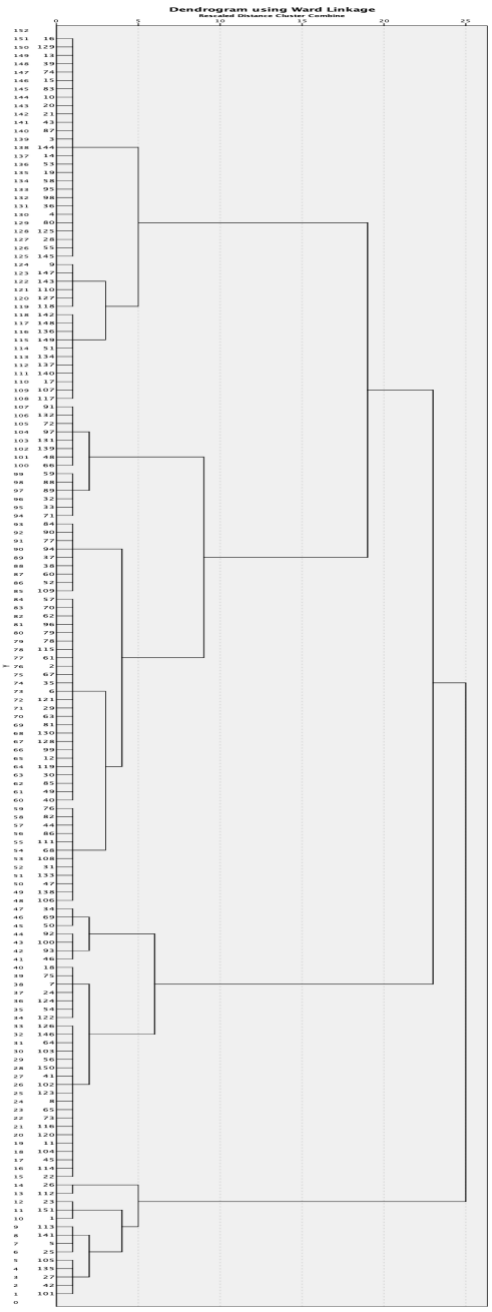
Stage	Cluster Combined		Coefficients	Stage Cluster First Appears		Next Stage
	Cluster 1	Cluster 2		Cluster 1	Cluster 2	
1	16	129	,002	0	0	91
2	30	85	,006	0	0	18
3	29	63	,011	0	0	11
4	15	83	,018	0	0	25
5	20	21	,027	0	0	75
6	56	150	,039	0	0	97
7	126	146	,051	0	0	31
8	14	53	,064	0	0	36
9	97	131	,077	0	0	46
10	58	95	,091	0	0	28
11	29	81	,106	3	0	22
12	3	144	,121	0	0	76
13	65	73	,139	0	0	47
14	62	96	,158	0	0	26
15	45	114	,179	0	0	80
16	102	123	,200	0	0	41
17	17	107	,222	0	0	53
18	30	49	,245	2	0	69
19	39	74	,268	0	0	58
20	57	70	,292	0	0	49
21	11	104	,320	0	0	112
22	29	130	,349	11	0	40
23	78	115	,379	0	0	61
24	4	80	,409	0	0	35
25	10	15	,441	0	4	58
26	62	79	,473	14	0	49
27	2	67	,507	0	0	34
28	58	98	,545	10	0	45
29	68	108	,587	0	0	85
30	76	82	,629	0	0	71
31	64	126	,673	0	7	73
32	12	119	,717	0	0	87
33	7	24	,769	0	0	55
34	2	35	,822	27	0	70
35	4	125	,878	24	0	90
36	14	19	,936	8	0	76
37	38	60	,994	0	0	108
38	77	94	1,053	0	0	60
39	43	87	1,113	0	0	75
40	29	128	1,174	22	0	67
41	8	102	1,235	0	16	102
42	142	148	1,296	0	0	99

43	31	133	1,367	0	0	85
44	47	138	1,441	0	0	94
45	36	58	1,514	0	28	116
46	97	139	1,588	9	0	92
47	65	116	1,664	13	0	82
48	6	121	1,742	0	0	70
49	57	62	1,823	20	26	120
50	91	132	1,905	0	0	63
51	28	55	1,992	0	0	74
52	137	140	2,085	0	0	88
53	17	117	2,183	17	0	88
54	23	151	2,284	0	0	113
55	7	124	2,388	33	0	110
56	84	90	2,495	0	0	96
57	48	66	2,610	0	0	92
58	10	39	2,726	25	19	109
59	105	135	2,844	0	0	103
60	37	77	2,971	0	38	96
61	61	78	3,099	0	23	106
62	51	134	3,228	0	0	114
63	72	91	3,357	0	50	111
64	27	42	3,488	0	0	103
65	18	75	3,623	0	0	119
66	54	122	3,765	0	0	110
67	29	99	3,907	40	0	122
68	59	88	4,051	0	0	98
69	30	40	4,203	18	0	87
70	2	6	4,363	34	48	106
71	44	76	4,522	0	30	105
72	9	147	4,683	0	0	93
73	64	103	4,846	31	0	124
74	28	145	5,010	51	0	90
75	20	43	5,176	5	39	107
76	3	14	5,346	12	36	107
77	86	111	5,517	0	0	105
78	26	112	5,695	0	0	144
79	52	109	5,879	0	0	108
80	22	45	6,083	0	15	112
81	136	149	6,290	0	0	99
82	65	120	6,520	47	0	102
83	113	141	6,753	0	0	118
84	110	127	6,993	0	0	121
85	31	68	7,241	43	29	115
86	32	33	7,492	0	0	100
87	12	30	7,744	32	69	122
88	17	137	8,024	53	52	114
89	34	69	8,305	0	0	101
90	4	28	8,589	35	74	116
91	13	16	8,882	0	1	109
92	48	97	9,189	57	46	111
93	9	143	9,497	72	0	125
94	47	106	9,850	44	0	115
95	92	100	10,20	0	0	117
96	37	84	10,58	60	56	123

97	41	56	10,91	0	6	124
98	59	89	11,38	68	0	126
99	136	142	11,81	81	42	135
100	32	71	12,21	86	0	126
101	34	50	12,66	89	0	137
102	8	65	13,12	41	82	127
103	27	105	13,66	64	59	129
104	5	25	14,11	0	0	118
105	44	86	14,68	71	77	132
106	2	61	15,28	70	61	120
107	3	20	15,86	76	75	128
108	38	52	16,53	37	79	123
109	10	13	17,10	58	91	128
110	7	54	17,88	55	66	119
111	48	72	18,50	92	63	136
112	11	22	19,21	21	80	127
113	1	23	20,06	0	54	142
114	17	51	20,90	88	62	135
115	31	47	21,75	85	94	132
116	4	36	22,68	90	45	133
117	92	93	23,64	95	0	130
118	5	113	24,68	104	83	138
119	7	18	25,65	110	65	139
120	2	57	26,76	106	49	131
121	110	118	27,79	84	0	125
122	12	29	28,90	87	67	131
123	37	38	30,16	96	108	143
124	41	64	31,43	97	73	134
125	9	110	32,76	93	121	140
126	32	59	34,30	100	98	136
127	8	11	36,14	102	112	134
128	3	10	37,92	107	109	133
129	27	101	39,85	103	0	138
130	46	92	41,97	0	117	137
131	2	12	44,02	120	122	141
132	31	44	46,78	115	105	141
133	3	4	49,68	128	116	145
134	8	41	52,79	127	124	139
135	17	136	56,05	114	99	140
136	32	48	60,71	126	111	147
137	34	46	66,24	101	130	146
138	5	27	71,78	118	129	142
139	7	8	78,11	119	134	146
140	9	17	85,98	125	135	145
141	2	31	95,83	131	132	143
142	1	5	107,04	113	138	144
143	2	37	120,09	141	123	147
144	1	26	134,892	142	78	150
145	3	9	153,229	133	140	148
146	7	34	175,308	139	137	149
147	2	32	206,720	143	136	148

148	2	3 275,458	147	145	149
149	2	7 357,237	148	146	150
150	1	2 450,000	144	149	0

FigureH1: Dendrogram with Ward's Linkage and Squared Euclidean Distance.



Classification results with hit ratio for different cluster solutions

TableH2: Classification results for 4 clusters.

Classification Results[a,c]

			Predicted Group Membership				
		Ward Method	1	2	3	4	Total
Original	Count	1	14	0	0	0	14
		2	0	58	2	0	60
		3	2	0	42	0	44
		4	0	0	1	32	33
	%	1	100,0	,0	,0	,0	100,0
		2	,0	96,7	3,3	,0	100,0
		3	4,5	,0	95,5	,0	100,0
		4	,0	,0	3,0	97,0	100,0
Cross-validated[b]	Count	1	14	0	0	0	14
		2	0	55	4	1	60
		3	2	0	42	0	44
		4	0	1	1	31	33
	%	1	100,0	,0	,0	,0	100,0
		2	,0	91,7	6,7	1,7	100,0
		3	4,5	,0	95,5	,0	100,0
		4	,0	3,0	3,0	93,9	100,0

a. 96,7% of original grouped cases correctly classified.
b. Cross validation is done only for those cases in the analysis. In cross validation, each case is classified by the functions derived from all cases other than that case.
c. 94,0% of cross-validated grouped cases correctly classified.

TableH3: Classification results for 5 clusters.

Classification Results[a,c]

			Predicted Group Membership					
		Ward Method	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Original	Count	1	14	0	0	0	0	14
		2	0	43	2	0	1	46
		3	2	0	42	0	0	44
		4	0	2	1	30	0	33
		5	0	2	0	0	12	14
	%	1	100,0	,0	,0	,0	,0	100,0
		2	,0	93,5	4,3	,0	2,2	100,0
		3	4,5	,0	95,5	,0	,0	100,0
		4	,0	6,1	3,0	90,9	,0	100,0
		5	,0	14,3	,0	,0	85,7	100,0
Cross-validated[b]	Count	1	14	0	0	0	0	14
		2	0	43	2	0	1	46
		3	2	1	41	0	0	44
		4	0	2	1	30	0	33
		5	0	3	0	0	11	14
	%	1	100,0	,0	,0	,0	,0	100,0
		2	,0	93,5	4,3	,0	2,2	100,0
		3	4,5	2,3	93,2	,0	,0	100,0
		4	,0	6,1	3,0	90,9	,0	100,0
		5	,0	21,4	,0	,0	78,6	100,0

a. 93,4% of original grouped cases correctly classified.
b. Cross validation is done only for those cases in the analysis. In cross validation, each case is classified by the functions derived from all cases other than that case.
c. 92,1% of cross-validated grouped cases correctly classified.

TableH4: Classification results for 6 clusters.

Classification Results[a,c]

		Ward Method	Predicted Group Membership						
			1	2	3	4	5	6	Total
Original	Count	1	14	0	0	0	0	0	14
		2	0	43	2	0	1	0	46
		3	2	0	42	0	0	0	44
		4	0	1	1	24	0	0	26
		5	0	2	0	0	12	0	14
		6	0	0	0	0	0	7	7
	%	1	100,0	,0	,0	,0	,0	,0	100,0
		2	,0	93,5	4,3	,0	2,2	,0	100,0
		3	4,5	,0	95,5	,0	,0	,0	100,0
		4	,0	3,8	3,8	92,3	,0	,0	100,0
		5	,0	14,3	,0	,0	85,7	,0	100,0
		6	,0	,0	,0	,0	,0	100,0	100,0
Cross-validated [b]	Count	1	14	0	0	0	0	0	14
		2	0	43	2	0	1	0	46
		3	2	0	41	1	0	0	44
		4	0	2	1	23	0	0	26
		5	0	2	0	0	12	0	14
		6	0	0	0	2	0	5	7
	%	1	100,0	,0	,0	,0	,0	,0	100,0
		2	,0	93,5	4,3	,0	2,2	,0	100,0
		3	4,5	,0	93,2	2,3	,0	,0	100,0
		4	,0	7,7	3,8	88,5	,0	,0	100,0
		5	,0	14,3	,0	,0	85,7	,0	100,0
		6	,0	,0	,0	28,6	,0	71,4	100,0

a. 94,0% of original grouped cases correctly classified.
b. Cross validation is done only for those cases in the analysis. In cross validation, each case is classified by the functions derived from all cases other than that case.
c. 91,4% of cross-validated grouped cases correctly classified.

ANOVA for 4 cluster solution

Table H5: Descriptives for 4 cluster solution

Descriptives

						95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Community_Motives	1	14	2,37463668	1,09292788	,29209726	1,7435991	3,0056746	1,29299	4,64632
	2	60	-,5227078	,38654935	,04990331	-,6225641	-,4228516	-1,23954	,49872
	3	44	,0443931	,67612214	,10192925	-,1611668	,2499530	-,76091	2,03925
	4	33	-,1162346	,56258806	,09793401	-,3157197	,0832504	-1,10718	1,16856
	Total	151	,0000000	1,00000000	,08137885	-,1607969	,1607969	-1,23954	4,64632
Hedonic_Motives	1	14	,1555969	1,08713761	,29054975	-,4720977	,7832914	-1,38948	1,81628
	2	60	,0732526	,58284887	,07524547	-,0773132	,2238185	-,95629	1,63664
	3	44	-,961119	,41884952	,06314394	-1,084578	-,8337740	-1,75430	-,06413
	4	33	1,082294	,92006619	,16016297	,7560491	1,4085317	-,50943	3,15415
	Total	151	,0000000	1,00000000	,08137885	-,1607969	,1607969	-1,75430	3,15415
Trust_Motives	1	14	,5903604	,68594300	,1833258	,1943087	,9864121	-,42266	1,72849
	2	60	,6826996	,90744328	,1175042	,4482822	,9171171	-,68921	3,19160
	3	44	-,464618	,61396298	,0925584	-,6512736	-,2779500	-1,51270	1,23232
	4	33	-,872456	,60316192	,1049970	-1,086175	-,6583737	-1,97400	,56024
	Total	151	,0000000	1,00000000	,08137885	-,1607969	,1607969	-1,97400	3,19160

Table H6: ANOVA for 4 cluster solution

ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Community_Motives	Between Groups	95,871	3	31,957	86,786	,000
	Within Groups	54,129	147	,368		
	Total	150,000	150			
Hedonic_Motives	Between Groups	79,960	3	26,653	55,940	,000
	Within Groups	70,040	147	,476		
	Total	150,000	150			
Trust_Motives	Between Groups	67,449	3	22,483	40,036	,000
	Within Groups	82,551	147	,562		
	Total	150,000	150			

Frequencies per cluster

Table H7: Pivot Tables on age distribution per cluster

Cluster 1

CLU4_1	1
Age	
Age Range	**#per Cluster**
35-44	28,57%
18-24	14,29%
25-34	35,71%
55-64	14,29%
65-74	7,14%
Total	**100,00%**

Cluster 2

CLU4_1	2
Age Range	**#per Cluster**
35-44	20,00%
18-24	15,00%
25-34	31,67%
55-64	10,00%
45-54	23,33%
Total	**100,00%**

Cluster 3

CLU4_1	3
Age Range	**#per Cluster**
35-44	31,82%
18-24	18,18%
25-34	31,82%
55-64	2,27%
85-94	2,27%
45-54	11,36%
0-17	2,27%
Total	**100,00%**

Cluster 4

CLU4_1	4
Age Range	**#per Cluster**
35-44	30,30%
18-24	6,06%
25-34	30,30%
55-64	9,09%
45-54	21,21%
0-17	3,03%
Total	**100,00%**

Appendix I – Discriminant Analysis Statistical Output

Table I1: Code-Overview for extracted factors

Item	Variable	Factor	Factor ID
Puma and MFF fit well together.	Congruence3	Sponsor's Portfolio Activities	F1_A
It makes sense to me that Puma sponsors MFF.	Congruence5		
Overall, my attitude toward Puma is: - Extremely good (1) to Extremely bad (7)	PreKnowledge1		
Overall, my attitude toward Puma is: - Like a great deal (1) to Dislike a great deal (7)	PreKnowledge2		
Overall, my attitude toward Puma is: - Extremely positive (1) to Extremely negative (7)	PreKnowledge3		
Overall, my attitude toward Puma is: - Extremely good (1) to Extremely bad (7)	PostKnowledge1		
Overall, my attitude toward Puma is: - Like a great deal (1) to Dislike a great deal (7)	PostKnowledge2		
Overall, my attitude toward Puma is: - Extremely positive (1) to Extremely negative (7)	PostKnowledge3		
Wearing Puma products in casual situations is consistent with how i see myself	SelfCongruence1	Identification with the Sponsor	F2_A
Wearing Puma products in casual situations reflects who i am	SelfCongruence2		
People similliar to me wear Puma products in casual situations	SelfCongruence3		
I can relate to Puma and Puma's values in a way I can't relate to other companies.	SelfCongruence4		
The image of MFF and the image of Puma are similliar.	Congruence2		
Puma would be likely to have best interests of the sport at heart.	Sincerity2		
I am more likely to buy products from companies that are official sponsors.	GeneralAttitude3		
There is a logical connection between MFF and Puma	Congruence1	Attitude towards the Sponsor	F3_A
Puma and MFF stand for simillar things.	Congruence4		
Puma is well known.	Prominence1		
Puma is highly regarded in the industry.	Prominence2		
I perceive the sponsoring activities of Puma to be coherent and with a logical connection among the	AttitudeSponsor1		
The sponsorship of MFF makes sense within Pumas portfolio.	AttitudeSponsor2		
The image of Puma's sponsored entities are similar	AttitudeSponsor3		
It makes sense to me that Puma sponsors these properties.	AttitudeSponsor4		
There is a logical connection among the main partners.	PerceivedFitProperty1	Perceived Fit of Property's Sponsorship Portfolio	F4_A
The image of the main partners are similar.	PerceivedFitProperty2		
The main partners fit well together.	PerceivedFitProperty3		
The main partners stand for similar things.	PerceivedFitProperty4		
It makes sense to me that the main partners sponsor MFF.	PerceivedFitProperty5		
I have had a lot of experience with the sponsorship between Puma and MFF.	Exposure1	Exposure to Sponsorship	F5_A
I am highly knowledgeable about the sponsorship between Puma and MFF.	Exposure2		
I would describe myself as being familiar with the sponsorship between Puma and MFF.	Exposure3		
I feel included in MFF decision making processes.	AttitudeSponsorship1	Attitude towards Sponsorship	F6_A
Compared to other football clubs, MFF has a good sponsorship concept.	AttitudeSponsorship2		
I am aware of the fact that MFF has a unique sponsorship concept compared to other clubs in Allsven	AttitudeSponsorship3		
I am aware of the fact that, unrelated to a sponsor's original colors, all branding is in MFF color	AttitudeSponsorship4		
Puma sponsors many different sports.	Ubiquity1	Ubiquity of Sponsor	F7_A
It is very common to see Puma sponsoring football clubs.	Ubiquity2		
I expect Puma to sponsor bigger football clubs.	Ubiquity3		
Puma is one of the most capable firms in the sports industry.	Prominence3		
Official sponsors of soccer should not try to commercialize the industry.	GeneralAttitude4	Sponsorship as Means	F8_A
Sponsorships are an important part of the soccer industry.	GeneralAttitude5		
The main reason Puma would be involved with MFF is because Puma believes that MFF deserves Support.	Sincerity1	Sponsor's Sincerity	F9_A
The fact that a company is an official sponsor of a soccer club has no impact on my purchase decis	GeneralAttitude2		
I feel that soccer is too commercialized.	GeneralAttitude1	Commercalization	F10_A

Examination of multivariate normal distribution of used variables

Figure I1: Normal P-P Plot of F1_A

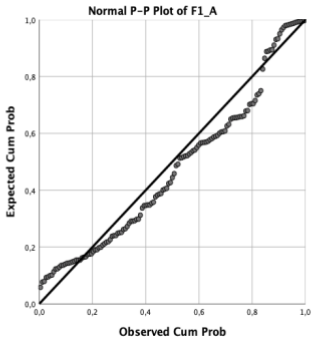


Figure I2: Normal P-P Plot of F2_A

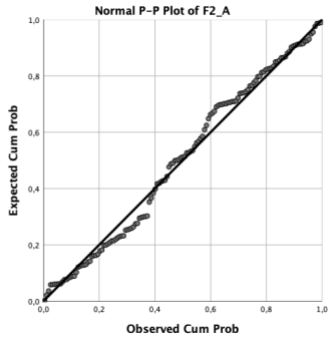


Figure I3: Normal P-P Plot of F3_A

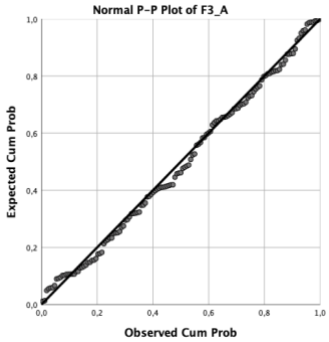


Figure I4: Normal P-P Plot of F4_A

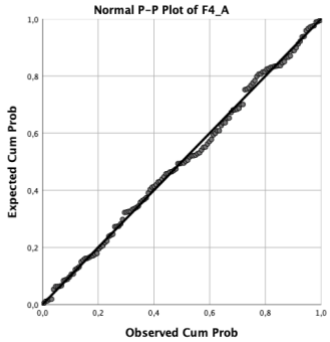


Figure I5: Normal P-P Plot of F5_A

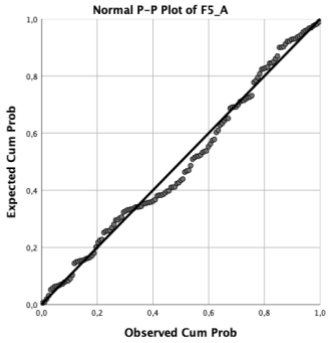


Figure I6: Normal P-P Plot of F6_A

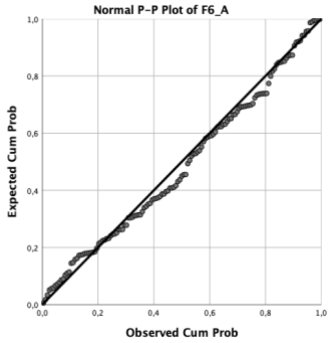


Figure I7: Normal P-P Plot of F7_A

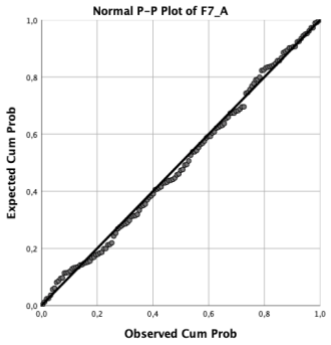


Figure I8: Normal P-P Plot of F8_A

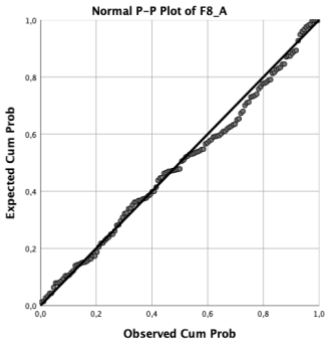


Figure I9: Normal P-P Plot of F9_A

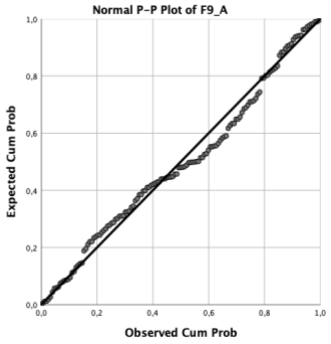
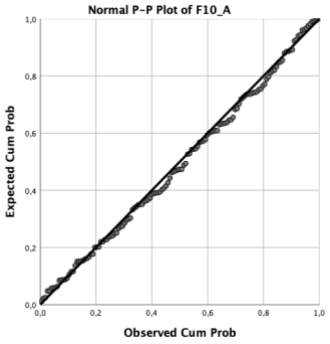


Figure I10: Normal P-P Plot of F10_A



Stepwise, multiple, Discriminant Analysis on the 4 Cluster solution with items relating to attitude towards sponsorship attributes.

Table I2: Group Statistics

Group Statistics

				Valid N (listwise)	
	Ward Method	Mean	Std. Deviation	Unweighted	Weighted
1	F1_A	-,3122338	,64037138	13	13,000
	F2_A	-,0345777	,93080370	13	13,000
	F3_A	-,3510005	,91197483	13	13,000
	F4_A	,5782824	,94867518	13	13,000
	F5_A	,0464812	1,07319133	13	13,000
	F6_A	1,2276487	1,28889767	13	13,000
	F7_A	,2496681	1,07101231	13	13,000
	F8_A	-,1775726	,97128695	13	13,000
	F9_A	,0518909	1,17355091	13	13,000
	F10_A	,3139326	1,19705479	13	13,000
2	F1_A	-,0142565	,88099325	56	56,000
	F2_A	,1745630	,96495055	56	56,000
	F3_A	,1099353	,80120574	56	56,000
	F4_A	,1543320	,91227606	56	56,000
	F5_A	,0899263	,94544683	56	56,000
	F6_A	-,0780836	,92471619	56	56,000
	F7_A	-,0435835	1,00564965	56	56,000
	F8_A	,0819284	1,08041813	56	56,000
	F9_A	,0725696	1,07772532	56	56,000
	F10_A	-,2658031	,89278740	56	56,000
3	F1_A	-,0474580	1,19038239	41	41,000
	F2_A	-,4936042	,90356244	41	41,000
	F3_A	,0723294	1,16730136	41	41,000
	F4_A	-,2587742	,95256726	41	41,000
	F5_A	-,1762621	,79265132	41	41,000
	F6_A	-,2584554	,80659684	41	41,000
	F7_A	,1160346	,93063804	41	41,000
	F8_A	-,0256009	,85838432	41	41,000
	F9_A	-,1449343	,98781666	41	41,000
	F10_A	,0972422	,88165584	41	41,000
4	F1_A	,2194575	1,04636482	31	31,000
	F2_A	,3519921	1,00302598	31	31,000
	F3_A	-,1470604	1,11125149	31	31,000
	F4_A	-,1790491	1,12117025	31	31,000
	F5_A	,0511813	1,29162037	31	31,000
	F6_A	-,0319380	,90011244	31	31,000
	F7_A	-,1794332	1,05675070	31	31,000
	F8_A	-,0396745	1,06681958	31	31,000
	F9_A	,0388330	,80253982	31	31,000
	F10_A	,2199007	1,16545856	31	31,000

Total	F1_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141	141,000
	F2_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141	141,000
	F3_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141	141,000
	F4_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141	141,000
	F5_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141	141,000
	F6_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141	141,000
	F7_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141	141,000
	F8_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141	141,000
	F9_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141	141,000
	F10_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141	141,000

Table I3: Test of Equality of Group Means

Tests of Equality of Group Means

	Wilks' Lambda	F	df1	df2	Sig.
F1_A	,980	,954	3	137	,417
F2_A	,889	5,707	3	137	,001
F3_A	,977	1,056	3	137	,370
F4_A	,933	3,295	3	137	,023
F5_A	,987	,607	3	137	,612
F6_A	,838	8,839	3	137	,000
F7_A	,982	,819	3	137	,485
F8_A	,994	,283	3	137	,838
F9_A	,991	,407	3	137	,748
F10_A	,949	2,449	3	137	,066

Table I4: Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices

Log Determinants

Ward Method	Rank	Log Determinant
1	3	,129
2	3	-,433
3	3	-,873
4	3	-,002
Pooled within-groups	3	-,310

The ranks and natural logarithms of determinants printed are those of the group covariance matrices.

Test Results

Box's M			14,719
	F	Approx.	,771
		df1	18
		df2	10298,743
		Sig.	,737

Tests null hypothesis of equal population covariance matrices.

Table I5: Stepwise Statistics

Variables Entered/Removed[a,b,c,d]

		Wilks' Lambda											
						Exact F				Approximate F			
Step	Entered	Statistic	df1	df2	df3	Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
	F6_A	,838	1	3	137,000	8,839	3	137,000	,000				
	F2_A	,744	2	3	137,000	7,220	6	272,000	,000				
	F4_A	,687	3	3	137,000					6,090		328,705	000

At each step, the variable that minimizes the overall Wilks' Lambda is entered.

a. Maximum number of steps is 20.

b. Maximum significance of F to enter is .05.

c. Minimum significance of F to remove is .10.

d. F level, tolerance, or VIN insufficient for further computation.

Table I6: Variables in the Analysis

Variables Not in the Analysis

Step		Tolerance	Min. Tolerance	Sig. of F to Enter	Wilks' Lambda
0	F1_A	1,000	1,000	,417	,980
	F2_A	1,000	1,000	,001	,889
	F3_A	1,000	1,000	,370	,977
	F4_A	1,000	1,000	,023	,933
	F5_A	1,000	1,000	,612	,987
	F6_A	1,000	1,000	,000	,838
	F7_A	1,000	1,000	,485	,982
	F8_A	1,000	1,000	,838	,994
	F9_A	1,000	1,000	,748	,991
	F10_A	1,000	1,000	,066	,949
1	F1_A	,999	,999	,391	,820
	F2_A	,999	,999	,001	,744
	F3_A	,997	,997	,320	,817
	F4_A	,991	,991	,014	,775
	F5_A	1,000	1,000	,606	,827
	F7_A	,999	,999	,474	,823
	F8_A	,999	,999	,823	,832
	F9_A	1,000	1,000	,742	,830
	F10_A	,998	,998	,062	,794
2	F1_A	,998	,998	,382	,727
	F3_A	,997	,996	,319	,725
	F4_A	,990	,990	,013	,687
	F5_A	,998	,998	,566	,733
	F7_A	,998	,998	,445	,730
	F8_A	,999	,999	,823	,739
	F9_A	,999	,998	,713	,737
	F10_A	,998	,998	,062	,705
3	F1_A	,997	,989	,371	,671
	F3_A	,997	,987	,317	,669
	F5_A	,998	,989	,554	,676
	F7_A	,998	,990	,446	,674
	F8_A	,999	,990	,824	,682
	F9_A	,998	,990	,702	,680
	F10_A	,998	,989	,063	,651

Table I7: Wilk's Lambda

Wilks' Lambda

Step	Number of Variables	Lambda	df1	df2	df3	Exact F Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	Approximate F Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
	1	,838	1	3	137	8,839	3	137,000	,000				
	2	,744	2	3	137	7,220	6	272,000	,000				
	3	,687	3	3	137					6,090	9	328,705	,000

Summary of Canonical Discriminant Functions

Table I8: Eigenvalues

Eigenvalues

Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	,286[a]	68,9	68,9	,472
2	,112[a]	26,9	95,8	,317
3	,018[a]	4,2	100,0	,132

a. First 3 canonical discriminant functions were used in the analysis.

Table I9: Wilk's Lambda Discriminant Functions

Wilks' Lambda

Test of Function(s)	Wilks' Lambda	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1 through 3	,687	51,235	9	,000
2 through 3	,884	16,852	4	,002
3	,983	2,384	1	,123

Table *I10:* Standardized Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients

Standardized Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients

	Function		
	1	2	3
F2_A	,350	,923	-,166
F4_A	,540	-,010	,847
F6_A	,837	-,358	-,426

Table I11: Structure Matrix

Structure Matrix

	Function		
	1	2	3
F6_A	,776*	-,384	-,500
F3_Ab	,056*	-,006	-,014
F5_Ab	-,038*	-,029	-,004
F9_Ab	-,033*	-,023	-,003
F8_Ab	,017*	-,015	-,008
F2_A	,306	,934*	-,184
F7_Ab	-,013	,043*	-,004
F1_Ab	,034	-,037*	,009
F10_Ab	-,018	,031*	,028
F4_A	,450	-,010	,893*

Pooled within-groups correlations between discriminating variables and standardized canonical discriminant functions

Variables ordered by absolute size of correlation within function.

*. Largest absolute correlation between each variable and any discriminant function

b. This variable not used in the analysis.

Table I12: Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients

Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients

	Function		
	1	2	3
F2_A	,367	,969	-,175
F4_A	,553	-,010	,868
F6_A	,904	-,387	-,460
(Constant)	,000	,000	,000

Unstandardized coefficients

Table I13: Functions at Group Centroids

Functions at Group Centroids

	Function		
Ward Method	1	2	3
1	1,418	-,514	-,057
2	,079	,198	,139
3	-,558	-,375	-,019
4	,001	,355	-,202

Unstandardized canonical discriminant functions evaluated at group means

Classification Statistics

Table I14: Classification Function Coefficients

Classification Function Coefficients

	Ward Method			
	1	2	3	4
F2_A	,032	,196	-,565	,380
F4_A	,740	,163	-,322	-,178
F6_A	1,507	-,069	-,351	-,043
(Constant)	-3,522	-,956	-1,462	-1,598

Fisher's linear discriminant functions

Table I15: Classification Results

Classification Results[a,c]

			Predicted Group Membership				
		Ward Method	1	2	3	4	Total
Original	Count	1	6	6	1	0	13
		2	3	40	12	1	56
		3	0	19	22	0	41
		4	1	21	7	2	31
	%	1	46,2	46,2	7,7	,0	100,0
		2	5,4	71,4	21,4	1,8	100,0
		3	,0	46,3	53,7	,0	100,0
		4	3,2	67,7	22,6	6,5	100,0
Cross-validated[b]	Count	1	6	5	2	0	13
		2	3	37	14	2	56
		3	0	22	19	0	41
		4	1	21	7	2	31
	%	1	46,2	38,5	15,4	,0	100,0
		2	5,4	66,1	25,0	3,6	100,0
		3	,0	53,7	46,3	,0	100,0
		4	3,2	67,7	22,6	6,5	100,0

a. 49,6% of original grouped cases correctly classified.

b. Cross validation is done only for those cases in the analysis. In cross validation, each case is classified by the functions derived from all cases other than that case.

c. 45,4% of cross-validated grouped cases correctly classified.

Figure I1: Scatterplot for the first two discriminant functions

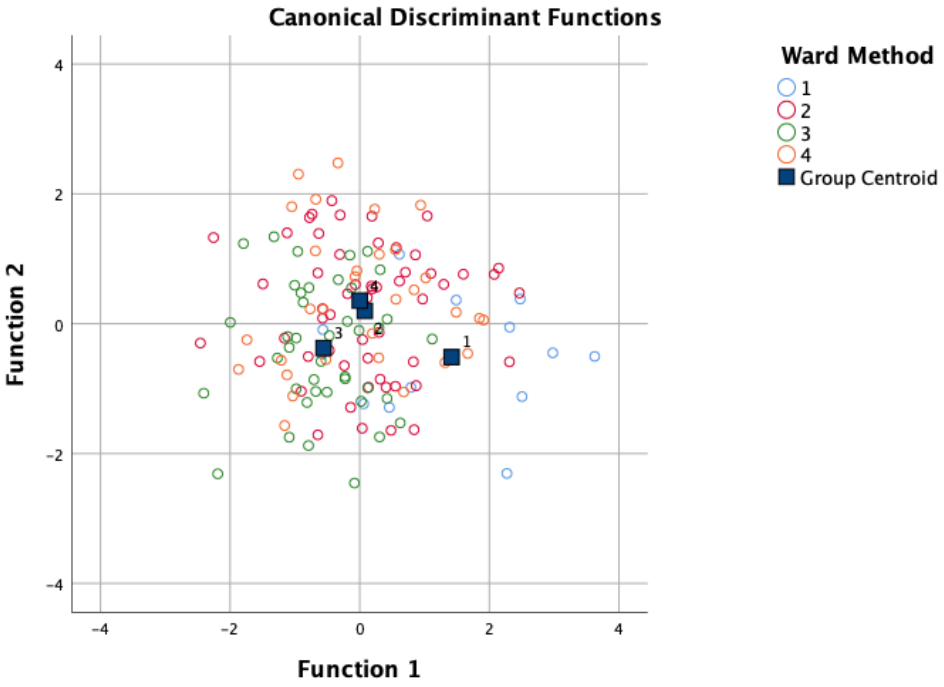
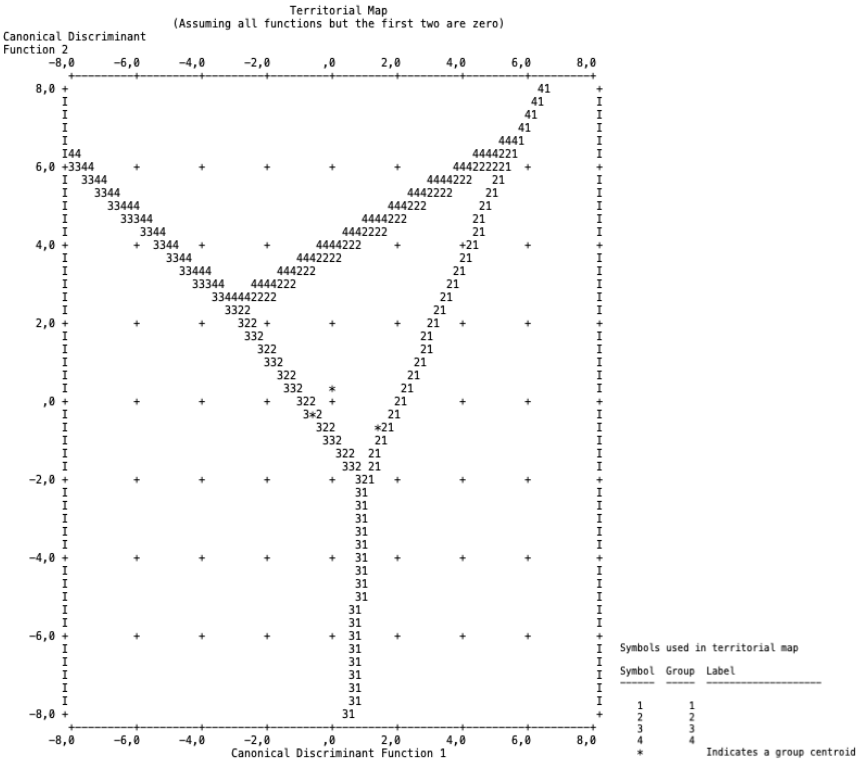


Figure I2: Territorial Map for the first two discriminant functions in the analysis.



Appendix J – Multiple Regression Statistical Output

Computation of dependent variable, Attitude towards Sponsorship

SPSS Syntax:

```
COMPUTE DVAttitudeSponsorship=MEAN(E7_1,E7_2,E7_3,E7_4).

EXECUTE.

FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=DVAttitudeSponsorship

 /PIECHART PERCENT

 /ORDER=ANALYSIS.
```

Multiple Regression Analysis on Attitude towards Sponsorship Cluster 1

Table J1: Descriptive Statistics, Cluster 1

Descriptive Statistics[a]

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
DVAttitude	4,4231	1,53224	13
F1_A	-,3122338	,64037138	13
F2_A	-,0345777	,93080370	13
F3_A	-,3510005	,91197483	13
F4_A	,5782824	,94867518	13
F5_A	,0464812	1,07319133	13
F7_A	,2496681	1,07101231	13
F8_A	-,1775726	,97128695	13
F9_A	,0518909	1,17355091	13
F10_A	,3139326	1,19705479	13

a. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 1

Table J2: Model Summary, Cluster 1

Model Summary[c,d]

Model	R			Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
	Cluster4 = 1 (Selected)	Cluster4 ~= 1 (Unselected)	R Square			R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	,667[a]		,445	,394	1,19251	,445	8,811	1	11	,013
2	,821[b]	,141	,673	,608	,95925	,229	7,000	1	10	,024

a. Predictors: (Constant), F5_A
b. Predictors: (Constant), F5_A, F9_A
c. Unless noted otherwise, statistics are based only on cases for which Cluster4 = 1.
d. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude

Table J3: ANOVA, Cluster 1

ANOVA[a,b]

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	12,530	1	12,530	8,811	,013[c]
Residual	15,643	11	1,422		
Total	28,173	12			
Regression	18,972	2	9,486	10,309	,004[d]
Residual	9,202	10	,920		
Total	28,173	12			

a. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude
b. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 1
c. Predictors: (Constant), F5_A
d. Predictors: (Constant), F5_A, F9_A

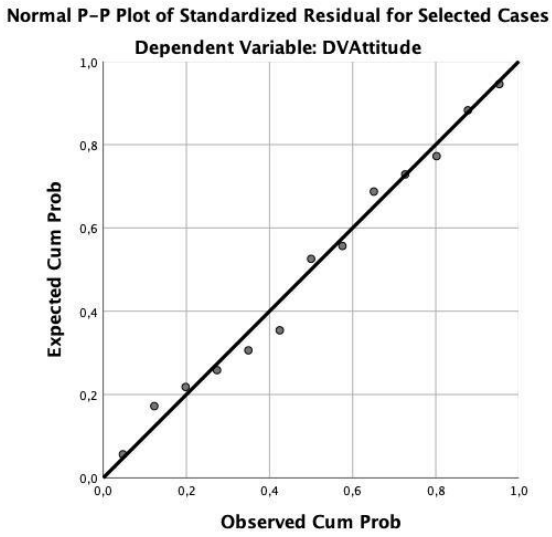
Table J4: Regression coefficients, Cluster 1

Coefficients[a,b]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	4,379	,331		13,226	,000					
F5_A	,952	,321	,667	2,968	,013	,667	,667	,667	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	4,405	,267		16,529	,000					
F5_A	1,105	,264	,774	4,178	,002	,667	,797	,755	,953	1,050
F9_A	-,640	,242	-,490	-2,646	,024	-,321	-,642	-,478	,953	1,050

a. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude
b. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 1

FigureJ1: Normal Probability Plot for selected cases in Cluster 1



Multiple Regression Analysis on Attitude towards Sponsorship Cluster 2

Table J5: Descriptive Statistics, Cluster 2

Descriptive Statistics[a]

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
DVAttitude	2,8527	,99747	56
F1_A	-,0142565	,88099325	56
F2_A	,1745630	,96495055	56
F3_A	,1099353	,80120574	56
F4_A	,1543320	,91227606	56
F5_A	,0899263	,94544683	56
F7_A	-,0435835	1,00564965	56
F8_A	,0819284	1,08041813	56
F9_A	,0725696	1,07772532	56
F10_A	-,2658031	,89278740	56

a. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 2

Table J6: Model Summary, Cluster 2

Model Summary[f,g]

Model	R			Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
	Cluster4 = 2 (Selected)	Cluster4 ~= 2 (Unselected)	R Square			R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
	,394[a]		,155	,139	,92540	,155	9,900	1	54	,003
	,500[b]		,250	,221	,88021	,095	6,688	1	53	,012
	,563[c]		,317	,277	,84793	,067	5,111	1	52	,028
	,610[d]		,372	,323	,82063	,056	4,518	1	51	,038
	,653[e]	,268	,426	,368	,79270	,053	4,657	1	50	,036

a. Predictors: (Constant), F7_A
b. Predictors: (Constant), F7_A, F8_A
c. Predictors: (Constant), F7_A, F8_A, F4_A
d. Predictors: (Constant), F7_A, F8_A, F4_A, F2_A
e. Predictors: (Constant), F7_A, F8_A, F4_A, F2_A, F3_A
f. Unless noted otherwise, statistics are based only on cases for which Cluster4 = 2.
g. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude

Table J7: ANOVA, Cluster 2

ANOVA[a,b]

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	8,478	1	8,478	9,900	,003[c]
Residual	46,244	54	,856		
Total	54,722	55			
Regression	13,660	2	6,830	8,815	,000[d]
Residual	41,062	53	,775		
Total	54,722	55			
Regression	17,334	3	5,778	8,036	,000[e]
Residual	37,388	52	,719		
Total	54,722	55			
Regression	20,377	4	5,094	7,565	,000[f]
Residual	34,345	51	,673		
Total	54,722	55			
Regression	23,303	5	4,661	7,417	,000[g]
Residual	31,419	50	,628		
Total	54,722	55			

a. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude
b. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 2
c. Predictors: (Constant), F7_A
d. Predictors: (Constant), F7_A, F8_A
e. Predictors: (Constant), F7_A, F8_A, F4_A
f. Predictors: (Constant), F7_A, F8_A, F4_A, F2_A
g. Predictors: (Constant), F7_A, F8_A, F4_A, F2_A, F3_A

Table J8: Regression coefficients, Cluster 2

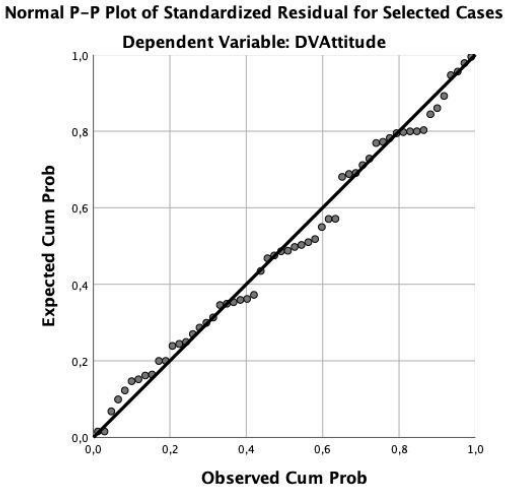
Coefficients[a,b]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2,870	,124		23,184	,000					
F7_A	,390	,124	,394	,146	,003	,394	,394	,394	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	2,846	,118		24,104	,000					
F7_A	,388	,118	,391	,284	,002	,394	,411	,391	1,000	1,000
F8_A	,284	,110	,308	,586	,012	,311	,335	,308	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	2,799	,116		24,191	,000					
F7_A	,381	,114	,384	,346	,002	,394	,421	,384	,999	1,001
F8_A	,322	,107	,348	3,002	,004	,311	,384	,344	,976	1,025
F4_A	,287	,127	,262	2,261	,028	,218	,299	,259	,975	1,025
(Constant)	2,749	,114		24,022	,000					
F7_A	,342	,112	,345	3,068	,003	,394	,395	,340	,973	1,028
F8_A	,313	,104	,339	3,015	,004	,311	,389	,334	,974	1,026
F4_A	,323	,124	,295	2,605	,012	,218	,343	,289	,957	1,045
F2_A	,250	,117	,242	2,126	,038	,276	,285	,236	,953	1,049
(Constant)	2,717	,111		24,369	,000					
F7_A	,402	,111	,406	3,615	,001	,394	,455	,387	,912	1,097
F8_A	,328	,100	,355	3,263	,002	,311	,419	,350	,970	1,031
F4_A	,320	,120	,293	2,673	,010	,218	,354	,286	,957	1,045
F2_A	,253	,113	,245	2,232	,030	,276	,301	,239	,953	1,049
F3_A	,299	,138	,240	2,158	,036	,101	,292	,231	,929	1,076

a. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude

b. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 2

Figure J2: Normal Probability Plot for selected cases in Cluster 2



Multiple Regression Analysis on Attitude towards Sponsorship Cluster 3

Table J9: Descriptive Statistics, Cluster 3

Descriptive Statistics[a]

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
DVAttitude	2,4695	,87177	41
F1_A	-,0474580	1,19038239	41
F2_A	-,4936042	,90356244	41
F3_A	,0723294	1,16730136	41
F4_A	-,2587742	,95256726	41
F5_A	-,1762621	,79265132	41
F7_A	,1160346	,93063804	41
F8_A	-,0256009	,85838432	41
F9_A	-,1449343	,98781666	41
F10_A	,0972422	,88165584	41

a. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 3

Table J10: Model Summary, Cluster 3

Model Summary[c,d]

	R					Change Statistics				
Model	Cluster4 = 3 (Selected)	Cluster4 ~= 3 (Unselected)	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
	,346[a]		,120	,097	,82825	,120	5,314	1	39	,027
	,459[b]	,220	,211	,169	,79461	,091	4,372	1	38	,043

a. Predictors: (Constant), F5_A
b. Predictors: (Constant), F5_A, F7_A
c. Unless noted otherwise, statistics are based only on cases for which Cluster4 = 3.
d. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude

Table J11: ANOVA, Cluster 3

ANOVA[a,b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3,645	1	3,645	5,314	,027[c]
	Residual	26,754	39	,686		
	Total	30,399	40			
2	Regression	6,406	2	3,203	5,073	,011[d]
	Residual	23,994	38	,631		
	Total	30,399	40			

a. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude
b. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 3
c. Predictors: (Constant), F5_A
d. Predictors: (Constant), F5_A, F7_A

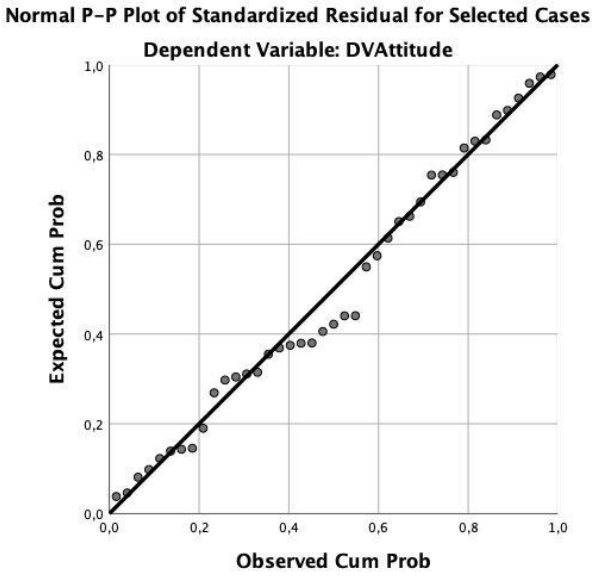
Table J12: Regression coefficients, Cluster 3

Coefficients[a,b]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		Std. E Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2,537	,133		19,132	,000					
F5_A	,381	,165	,346	2,305	,027	,346	,346	,346	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	2,499	,128		19,456	,000					
F5_A	,355	,159	,323	2,233	,031	,346	,341	,322	,994	1,006
F7_A	,283	,135	,302	2,091	,043	,327	,321	,301	,994	1,006

a. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude
b. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 3

Figure J3: Normal Probability Plot for selected cases in Cluster 3



Multiple Regression Analysis on Attitude towards Sponsorship Cluster 4

Table J13: Descriptive Statistics, Cluster 4

Descriptive Statistics[a]

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
DVAttitude	2,7339	,94193	31
F1_A	,2194575	1,04636482	31
F2_A	,3519921	1,00302598	31
F3_A	-,1470604	1,11125149	31
F4_A	-,1790491	1,12117025	31
F5_A	,0511813	1,29162037	31
F7_A	-,1794332	1,05675070	31
F8_A	-,0396745	1,06681958	31
F9_A	,0388330	,80253982	31
F10_A	,2199007	1,16545856	31

a. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 4

Table J14: Model Summary, Cluster 4

Model Summary[b,c]

	R					Change Statistics				
Model	Cluster4 = 4 (Selected)	Cluster4 ~= 4 (Unselected)	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	,449[a]	,274	,202	,174	,85592	,202	7,332	1	29	,011

a. Predictors: (Constant), F4_A
b. Unless noted otherwise, statistics are based only on cases for which Cluster4 = 4.
c. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude

Table J15: ANOVA, Cluster 4

ANOVA[a,b]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5,372	1	5,372	7,332	,011[c]
	Residual	21,245	29	,733		
	Total	26,617	30			

a. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude
b. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 4
c. Predictors: (Constant), F4_A

Table J16: Regression coefficients, Cluster 4

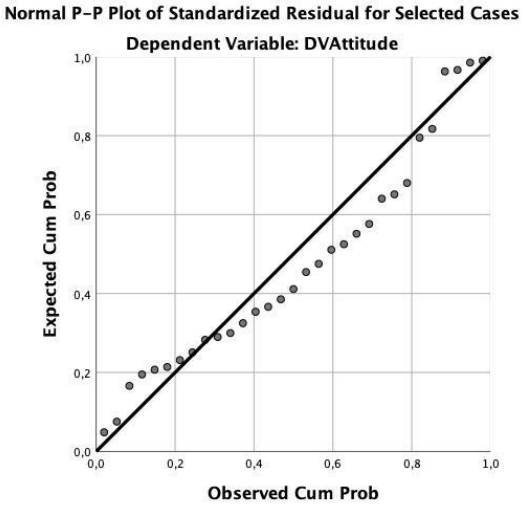
Coefficients[a,b]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2,801	,156		17,988	,000					
F4_A	,377	,139	,449	2,708	,011	,449	,449	,449	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude

b. Selecting only cases for which Cluster4 = 4

Figure J4: Normal Probability Plot for selected cases in Cluster 4



Multiple Regression Analysis on Attitude towards Sponsorship across clusters

Table J17: Descriptive Statistics, across clusters

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
DVAttitude	2,8599	1,12891	141
F1_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141
F2_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141
F3_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141
F4_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141
F5_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141
F7_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141
F8_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141
F9_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141
F10_A	,0000000	1,00000000	141

Table J18: Model Summary, across clusters

Model Summary[f]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
	,310[a]	,096	,090	1,07716	,096	14,774	1	39	,000
	,383[b]	,146	,134	1,05048	,050	8,151	1	38	,005
	,422[c]	,178	,160	1,03479	,031	5,217	1	37	,024
	,453[d]	,205	,182	1,02112	,027	4,691	1	36	,032
	,479[e]	,229	,201	1,00938	,024	4,183	1	35	,043

a. Predictors: (Constant), F4_A
b. Predictors: (Constant), F4_A, F7_A
c. Predictors: (Constant), F4_A, F7_A, F2_A
d. Predictors: (Constant), F4_A, F7_A, F2_A, F5_A
e. Predictors: (Constant), F4_A, F7_A, F2_A, F5_A, F10_A
f. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude

Table J19: ANOVA, across clusters

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	17,142	1	17,142	14,774	,000[b]
	Residual	161,279	139	1,160		
	Total	178,421	140			
2	Regression	26,137	2	13,069	11,843	,000[c]
	Residual	152,284	138	1,104		
	Total	178,421	140			
3	Regression	31,723	3	10,574	9,875	,000[d]
	Residual	146,698	137	1,071		
	Total	178,421	140			
4	Regression	36,615	4	9,154	8,779	,000[e]
	Residual	141,806	136	1,043		
	Total	178,421	140			
5	Regression	40,877	5	8,175	8,024	,000[f]
	Residual	137,544	135	1,019		
	Total	178,421	140			

a. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude
b. Predictors: (Constant), F4_A
c. Predictors: (Constant), F4_A, F7_A
d. Predictors: (Constant), F4_A, F7_A, F2_A
e. Predictors: (Constant), F4_A, F7_A, F2_A, F5_A
f. Predictors: (Constant), F4_A, F7_A, F2_A, F5_A, F10_A

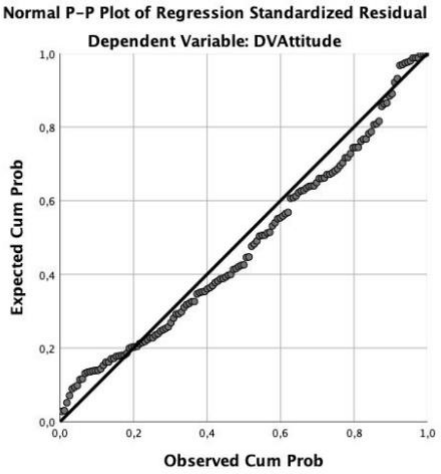
Table J20: Regression coefficients, across clusters

Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2,860	,091		31,527	,000					
F4_A	,350	,091	,310	3,844	,000	,310	,310	,310	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	2,860	,088		32,328	,000					
F4_A	,350	,089	,310	3,941	,000	,310	,318	,310	1,000	1,000
F7_A	,253	,089	,225	2,855	,005	,225	,236	,225	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	2,860	,087		32,818	,000					
F4_A	,350	,087	,310	4,001	,000	,310	,323	,310	1,000	1,000
F7_A	,253	,087	,225	2,898	,004	,225	,240	,225	1,000	1,000
F2_A	,200	,087	,177	2,284	,024	,177	,192	,177	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	2,860	,086		33,257	,000					
F4_A	,350	,086	,310	4,055	,000	,310	,328	,310	1,000	1,000
F7_A	,253	,086	,225	2,937	,004	,225	,244	,225	1,000	1,000
F2_A	,200	,086	,177	2,315	,022	,177	,195	,177	1,000	1,000
F5_A	,187	,086	,166	2,166	,032	,166	,183	,166	1,000	1,000
(Constant)	2,860	,085		33,644	,000					
F4_A	,350	,085	,310	4,102	,000	,310	,333	,310	1,000	1,000
F7_A	,253	,085	,225	2,971	,004	,225	,248	,225	1,000	1,000
F2_A	,200	,085	,177	2,342	,021	,177	,198	,177	1,000	1,000
F5_A	,187	,085	,166	2,191	,030	,166	,185	,166	1,000	1,000
F10_A	,174	,085	,155	2,045	,043	,155	,173	,155	1,000	1,000

a. Dependent Variable: DVAttitude

Figure J5: Normal Probability Plot for cases across clusters



Appendix K – Dendrogram Overview of Linkage and Distance Combinations of Clusters

Euclidean Distance

Figure K1: Single Linkage

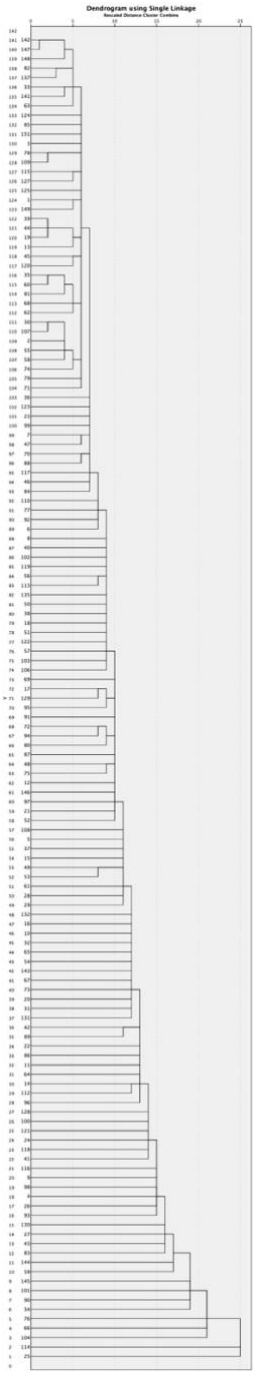


Figure K2: Complete Linkage

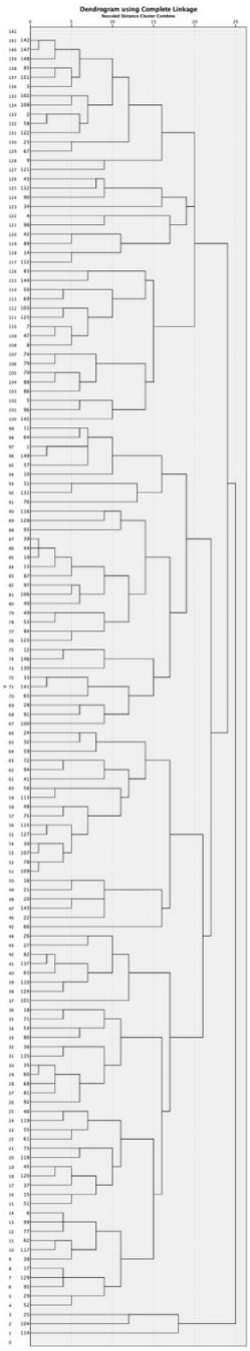
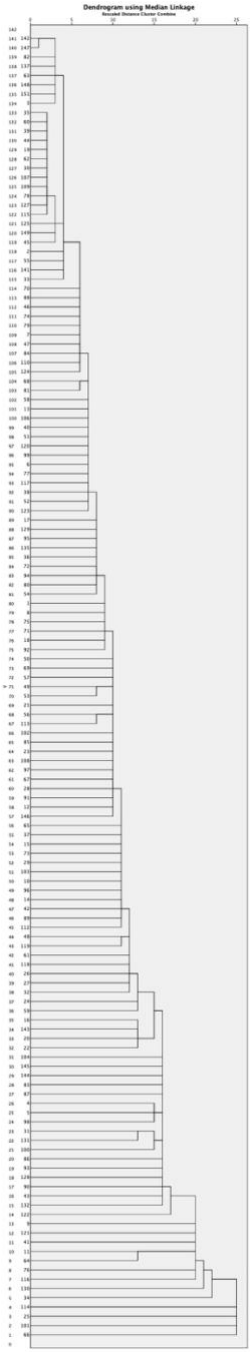


Figure K3: Median Linkage



Squared Euclidean Distance

Figure K4: Single Linkage

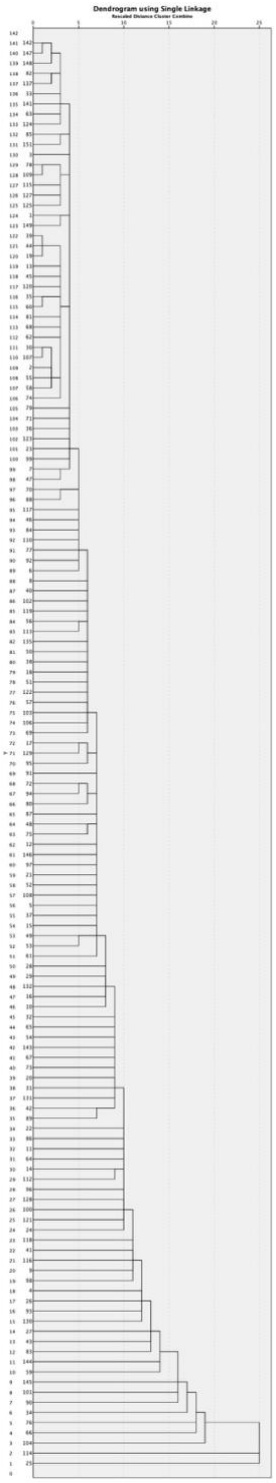


Figure K5: Complete Linkage

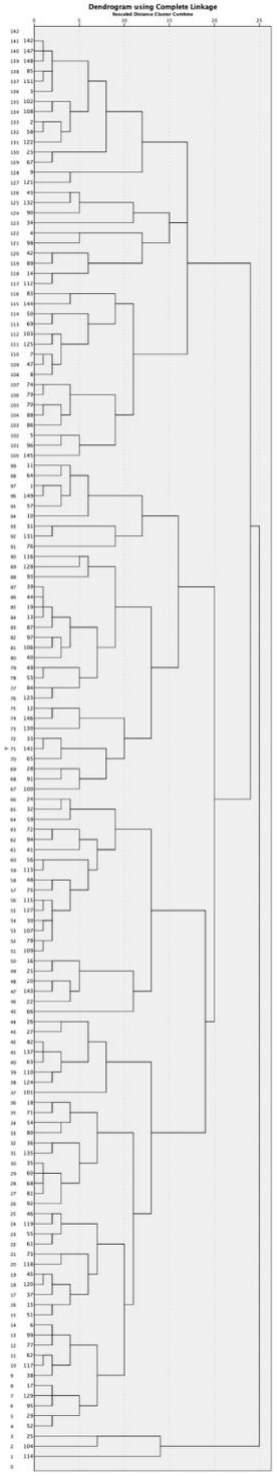
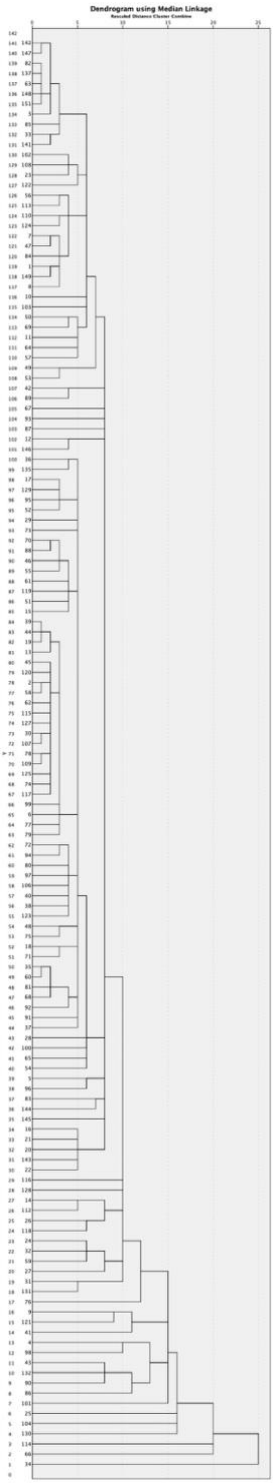


Figure K6: Median Linkage



Manhattan Distanc

Figure K4: Ward's Linkage

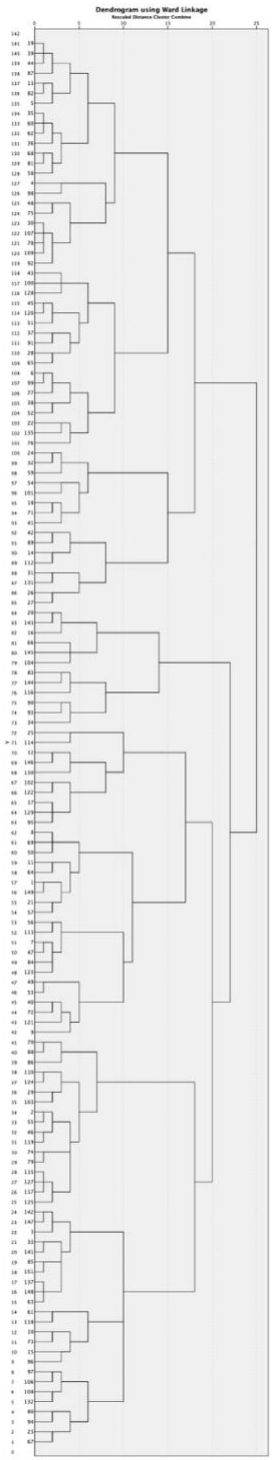


Figure K5: Complete Linkage

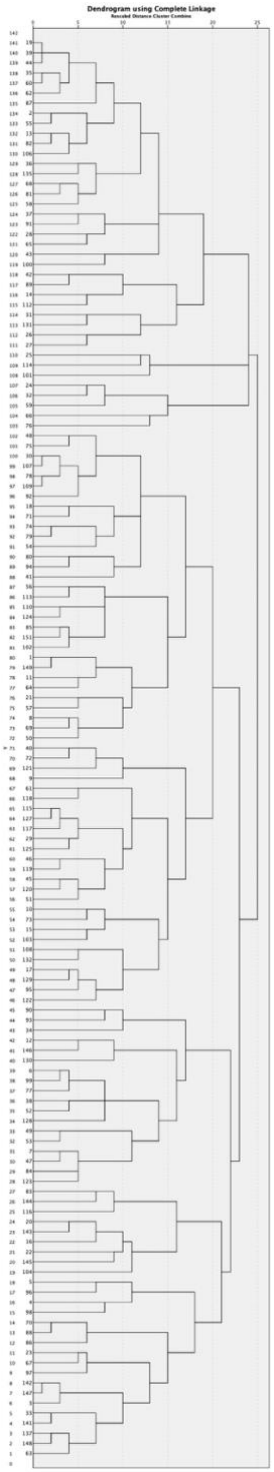


Figure K6: Median Linkage