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HEC MONTRÉAL
École affiliée à l'Université de Montréal

**The impact of multi-brand settings on sponsorship effects :
essays on competitive interference and portfolio variance**

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**The impact of multi-brand settings on sponsorship effects :
essays on competitive interference and portfolio variance**

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Résumé

La présente thèse s'articule autour de deux articles empiriques sur la commandite sportive, dans le contexte de commandites multiples. Deux environnements sont étudiés : les grappes compétitives (*clutter*) (Article 1) et les portefeuilles de commandites (Article 2).

Le premier article examine l'impact de la présence simultanée de marques concurrentes sur le terrain, qui commanditent des joueurs ou équipes sportives (*clutter*) sur l'attitude des consommateurs envers le commanditaire de l'événement et sa commandite. Une étude expérimentale en 2 (congruence entre le sponsor et l'événement : oui/non) x 2 (*clutter* : oui/non) x 3 (communication commanditaire : publicité avec articulation/ publicité sans articulation/ aucune publicité) fut menée auprès de 415 participants. Les résultats de recherche indiquent que l'évaluation du commanditaire de l'événement et de sa commandite est affectée par un changement dans la congruence perçue entre le commanditaire et l'événement. Plus spécifiquement, alors que le *clutter* a un impact négatif sur l'attitude des consommateurs lorsque les commanditaires sont congruents avec l'événement, on observe un impact positif lorsqu'ils sont incongruents. En outre, les résultats identifient l'articulation comme une stratégie efficace pour empêcher les effets négatifs du *clutter*.

Le second article examine les effets de la variance d'un portefeuille de commandites sur l'évaluation du commanditaire et des événements commandités. Pour ce faire, l'extension d'un portefeuille de commandite, c'est-à-dire l'ajout d'un nouveau partenariat dans le contexte d'un portefeuille existant, a été retenue comme un contexte pertinent. Les résultats de deux études expérimentales suggèrent que l'horizontalité (l'activité des événements commandités) et la verticalité (le capital de marque des événements commandités) sont deux dimensions de la variance d'un portefeuille de commandites. Il est démontré que les effets de la verticalité sur l'évaluation des marques sont plus forts lorsque les événements commandités sont de même activité. En outre, le rôle médiateur du niveau de congruence perçue du portefeuille a été identifié.

Mots clés : commandite, communication, interférences, portefeuille, concurrence, sport, congruence, variance, évaluation de marque, expérimentation, questionnaire

Méthodes de recherche : expérimentation, questionnaire

Abstract

This dissertation is structured around two empirical essays in the field of sport sponsorship, in the context of multiple sponsorship agreements. Two environments are examined: competitive sponsorship clutter (Essay 1) and sponsorship portfolios (Essay 2).

The first essay explores the impact of the concurrent presence of competitor brands on-field sponsoring athletes or teams (*competitive sponsorship clutter*) on consumers' attitude toward the event sponsor and its sponsorship program. A 2 (congruence between the sponsor(s) and the sponsee: no/yes) $\times$ 2 (clutter: no/yes) $\times$ 3 (sponsorship-linked communication: ad with articulation/ad with no articulation/no ad) completely randomized factorial experimentation was used with 415 participants. The research findings indicate that the evaluation of the event sponsor and the sponsorship program is affected through a change in the perceived sponsor-sponsee congruence. In particular, while clutter negatively impacts consumers' response when the sponsors are congruent with the event, this pattern is reversed when they are incongruent. In addition, the results identify articulation as an effective strategy to cut through sponsorship clutter.

The second essay investigates the effects sponsorship portfolio variance on the evaluation of the sponsor and the sponsees. A sponsorship portfolio extension, i.e., the process of adding a new partnership in the context of an existing portfolio, was chosen as a relevant context to explore this topic. The results of two experimental studies suggest that horizontality (the sponsees' activity) and verticality (the sponsees' brand equity) are two dimensions of a sponsorship portfolio variance. It is revealed that the effects of verticality on brand evaluations are stronger when the sponsees are of the same activity. In addition, a mediating role of the level of perceived portfolio congruence was identified.

Keywords : sponsorship, communication, interferences, portfolio, competitors, sport, congruence, variance, brand evaluation, experimentation, survey

Research methods : experimentation, survey

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Introduction

La commandite d'activités sportives constitue aujourd'hui une pratique courante, à laquelle la recherche en marketing porte un intérêt grandissant (Cornwell, 2008). Les dépenses mondiales en commandite ont atteint la somme de 55.3 milliards de dollars en 2014, avec une croissance annuelle d'environ 4% (Statista, 2015). Les deux-tiers de ces dépenses concernent la commandite dans le domaine du sport (Dalakas, 2009).

La commandite a été définie par O'Hagan et Harvey (2000) comme « *a two-way commercial exchange between a company and an organization whereby the company gives resources (primarily money but also donations in kind) to the sponsored event. In return, the company receives promotional or other benefits of having its name associated with the event* » (p.205). Cette définition illustre la prise en compte des commandites comme échanges bidirectionnels (*two-way commercial exchanges*) dans la littérature marketing, c'est-à-dire comme des liens entre deux entités. De fait, la grande majorité des travaux en marketing se sont concentrés sur des environnements mono-commanditaires, où une marque ne commanditait qu'un seul événement et un événement n'avait qu'un seul commanditaire. Déjà en 2008, Cornwell appelait à plus de recherches sur des environnements multimarques en commandite, que ce soit par le biais de la question de l'embuscade ou de celle des portefeuilles. Si quelques chercheurs se sont intéressés à l'une (eg Mazodier, Quester et Chandon, 2012) ou l'autre (eg Chien, Cornwell et Pappu, 2011) de ces questions, nos connaissances sur les environnements multimarques restent à approfondir et à compléter.

L'étude de contextes multimarques est d'autant plus importante que, dans la pratique, les entreprises commanditaires, tout comme les événements sportifs, sont confrontés à des environnements où les consommateurs sont exposés à un nombre croissant de marques. Au travers de la prise en compte de l'environnement dans lequel s'inscrit une commandite, c'est l'efficacité même de cette stratégie de communication qui est questionnée. Les résultats des travaux antérieurs n'ont guère pris en considération l'impact de la présence d'autres marques sur les réponses des consommateurs à une commandite.

La présente thèse a pour objectif central de mesurer l'efficacité d'une commandite dans un environnement multimarque, en termes d'impact sur l'attitude des consommateurs envers les entités impliquées et les commandites. Deux contextes sont étudiés : les environnements concurrentiels dits de *clutter* (grappes compétitives) (chapitre 1), et les portefeuilles de commandites (chapitre 2). Ce travail met en évidence les effets d'interférences et de contagion qui existent en fonction de la nature des liens (liens concurrentiels ou liens commanditaires) entre les marques.

À l'instar de l'ensemble des communications marketing, la concurrence se trouve au cœur des stratégies commanditaires. L'engouement pour les commandites conduit à l'émergence de grappes compétitives (*competitive clutter*, Danaher, Bonfrer et Dhar, 2008) ou *sponsorship clutter* (Quester et Thompson, 2001), où l'espace d'exposition aux marques commanditaires est parfois saturé. Il n'y a qu'à penser aux maillots de joueurs de soccer, aux voitures de Formule 1, ou encore aux stades de hockey, tous recouverts de logos et de marques, pour s'en convaincre.

Les travaux existants ont considéré les accords d'exclusivité comme un moyen efficace d'empêcher des marques concurrentes d'être simultanément commanditaires lors d'un même événement sportif (e.g. Carrillat, Harris et Lafferty, 2010). Les études des stratégies d'embuscade (*ambush marketing*), où une entreprise tente illégitimement de recueillir les bénéfices d'une commandite d'un concurrent (e.g. Mazodier, Quester et Chandon, 2012), se sont concentrées sur l'identification et la mémorisation des marques commanditaires. Les commandites sur plusieurs niveaux, où le commanditaire de l'événement et les commanditaires des athlètes se disputent l'attention des spectateurs, appellent pourtant à la nécessité de mesurer les interférences concurrentielles sur l'attitude des consommateurs envers les commandites et les marques engagées. Ce contexte présente l'intérêt d'exposer les consommateurs à des commandites de marques concurrentes de façon concourante. Jusqu'ici, aucune étude ne s'est intéressée à ce type d'environnement.

Si la littérature sur les interférences en publicité (e.g. Burke et Srull, 1988; Keller, 1991) offre de riches enseignements, les singularités du contexte commanditaire constituent un

terrain d'étude prometteur pour mieux comprendre les effets néfastes de la concurrence en communication ainsi que les moyens de les atténuer.

La congruence entre commanditaire et commandité a été identifiée à maintes reprises comme un facteur essentiel d'efficacité d'une commandite, notamment sur la mémorisation et l'attitude des consommateurs (e.g. Becker-Olsen et Simmons, 2002; Cornwell et al., 2006; Weeks, Cornwell et Drennan, 2008). Si la congruence entre les deux entités n'est pas naturelle, elle peut être articulée par le biais d'une activation, c'est-à-dire d'une communication qui explique le lien entre le commanditaire et le commandité (Cornwell, Roy et Steinard II, 2001). Il a été montré qu'une congruence articulée permettait d'améliorer l'attitude des consommateurs envers la commandite de la même façon qu'une congruence naturelle activée (Becker-Olsen et Simmons, 2002), ce qui souligne le rôle de l'articulation comme tactique d'atténuation de l'incongruence.

Par ailleurs, Cornwell et al. (2006) définissent l'articulation comme « *the act of explaining the relationship between entities to support the development of meaning in the mind of the individual* » (p. 312). L'articulation fait partie des communications marketing collatérales (*sponsorship-linked marketing*) au cœur des enjeux de rentabilité et d'efficacité d'une commandite (Cornwell, Weeks et Roy, 2005). Il est cependant important de bien différencier l'articulation, qui relève d'une communication liée à une commandite, et la communication commanditaire. Les deux approches prennent des formes différentes : alors que la première s'appuie soit sur une verbalisation rationnelle dans des communiqués de presse ou des publicités, la seconde revêt la forme de la simple présence de noms ou de logos de marques pendant ou autour d'un événement sportif (Cornwell et Humphreys, 2013). Leurs effets sur l'attitude des consommateurs peuvent alors être largement différents. Pourtant, peu d'études se sont intéressées à bien distinguer ces deux types de communications.

Mesurer les effets de la congruence et de l'articulation au sein d'un *clutter* constitue une importante contribution pour la compréhension des effets concurrentiels en communication et des stratégies pour y répondre, et offre des enseignements précieux pour les entreprises dans leur décision de commanditer des événements et des

personnalités sportives. Concernant la pratique managériale, cette étude présente une avenue de recherche importante en ce qu'elle pose la question des effets d'un contexte concurrentiel direct qui échappe aux accords d'exclusivité. Ces derniers ne protègent les marques qu'à un seul niveau de commandite, et il est essentiel de prendre en compte la concurrence telle qu'elle existe dans l'environnement réel.

Cette thèse prend en considération un autre environnement multicommanditaire fréquent, celui des portefeuilles de commandites, définis par Chien, Cornwell et Pappu (2011) comme « *the collection of brand and/or company sponsorships comprising sequential and/or simultaneous involvement with events, activities and individuals (usually in sport, art and charity) utilized to communicate with various audiences* » (p.142). À l'instar des grandes marques comme Nike, Coca-Cola ou McDonald's, un nombre croissant de marques commanditent plusieurs événements, dans le but de se spécialiser dans un sport ou d'élargir leurs marchés (Groza, Cobbs, et Schaefer 2012).

En effet, à l'instar d'un portefeuille de marques (Riley, Pina et Bravo, 2013), un portefeuille de commandites peut être appréhendé comme un ensemble d'entités connectées dans le réseau mnémonique des consommateurs, dont la variance peut avoir un effet sur l'attitude du consommateur envers les marques liées par ces liens commanditaires. Commanditer plusieurs événements ne saurait se résumer à une simple juxtaposition de stratégies de communication indépendantes. Un portefeuille de commandites doit au contraire être appréhendé comme un « *integrated marketing communications challenge* » (Cornwell, 2008, p. 51).

Or, jusqu'à ce jour aucune recherche ne s'est intéressée à la question des dimensions de la variance d'un portefeuille de commandites et à ses effets sur les réponses des consommateurs. En s'appuyant sur la commandite d'événements sportifs, la chapitre 2 a pour objectif de mesurer les effets de l'extension (c'est-à-dire de l'ajout d'un nouvel entrant) d'un portefeuille de commandites sur l'attitude des consommateurs envers les différentes marques du portefeuille (commanditaire et commanditées). Deux dimensions d'une extension sont proposées: la dimension horizontale (le domaine d'activité de l'entité commanditée) et la dimension verticale (le capital de marque de l'entité). La

conjonction de ces deux dimensions permet de manipuler la variance due à l'extension et de mesurer ses effets sur l'attitude des consommateurs.

Deux cas sont étudiés : l'extension d'un portefeuille de deux commandites d'événements de même sport et de capital de marque similaire par l'ajout d'un troisième événement sportif, et l'extension d'un portefeuille de deux commandites d'événements de sports et de capital de marque différents par l'ajout d'un troisième événement sportif. Dans le premier cas, la variance existante au sein du portefeuille avant l'extension est plus faible que dans le second cas. Dans les deux contextes, l'introduction de cette nouvelle entité modifie l'équilibre du portefeuille et influence le traitement de l'information par le consommateur. Deux études expérimentales (étude 1, $n = 237$; étude 2, $n = 232$) indiquent qu'une forte variance pré-extension (portefeuille hétérogène) diminue la catégorisation du portefeuille et amoindrit donc les effets de contagion du capital de marque du nouvel entrant au commanditaire et aux autres entités commanditées. Au contraire, une faible variance pré-extension (portefeuille homogène) favorise le traitement du portefeuille comme catégorie et donc les effets de contagion. Dans ce cas, l'horizontalité du nouvel entrant joue un effet modérateur sur ces effets.

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Chapitre 1

Interference Effects in Competitive Sponsorship Clutter

Résumé

This article examines the effects on consumers' attitudes of the concurrent exposure of competitive brands sponsoring different entities during an event (i.e., sponsoring an event *versus* the athletes participating in this event), thus creating *competitive sponsorship clutter*. In contrast with previous research having examined interference effects in advertising, the results reveal that in a sponsorship setting, clutter effects depend on perceived sponsor-sponsee congruence, and do not result from a greater cognitive load. More precisely, it was found that whereas the evaluation of a congruent sponsoring brand is negatively affected by clutter, the impact of clutter on attitude toward an incongruent sponsor is positive. In addition, articulating the sponsorship was shown to decrease the negative effects of clutter. Implications for research and practice are derived from these findings.

1.1 Introduction

Although *Adidas* was the only official sponsor in the International Olympic Committee's Top Program (IOC) of the London 2012 Olympics in the sports equipment category, competitors such as *Nike*, *Reebok*, and *Puma* were everywhere on the fields. While *Adidas* sponsored the event, its competitors sponsored teams or athletes participating in the Olympics, cleverly playing on sponsorship properties levels (events *versus* players). Spectators attending the Olympics on site, or watching them on television, were thus exposed to stimuli from competitor brands in their visual field concurrently, i.e. during a same exposure. This example provides an illustration of competitive sponsorship clutter, a common situation for competitor brands that sponsor events, teams, and athletes participating simultaneously in the same competition. With the proliferation of sport sponsorship opportunities (Meenaghan, 2013), sport events have become a fertile ground for competitive sponsorship clutter (Quester & Thompson, 2001), with the consequent

possible occurrence of interference effects on consumer responses (Danaher, Bonfrer, & Dhar, 2008).

In the advertising domain, the impact of the presence of competitive advertising on communication effectiveness has generated a great deal of attention since the seminal studies of Burke and Srull (1988) and Keller (1991). However, no research has investigated the effects of concurrent exposure to competitor brands simultaneously sponsoring different properties. While it is a widely accepted view that advertising clutter impacts brand evaluations through a detrimental effect on memory (Lee & Lee, 2007), the research presented in this paper calls into question the generalizability of this claim to a sponsorship context. Previous research in the area of competitive environments has focused on complex communication stimuli (e.g., advertisements) that induce a high cognitive load (e.g., Kumar et al., 2014). In contrast, the present research examines how concurrent sponsorship stimuli (logos and brand names on-field), which are impoverished by nature (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005), may affect the evaluation of the sponsor and the sponsorship program by impacting the perceived congruence of the sponsor-sponsee association.

In addition, while research on sponsorship has generally documented the positive impact of congruence on brand evaluation in single-sponsor settings (Cornwell & Humphreys, 2013), in a sponsorship clutter context, two levels of congruence have to be considered: *sponsor-sponsee congruence* (i.e., the degree of association between the event and its sponsor; e.g., Pappu & Cornwell, 2014) and *competitors-sponsee congruence* (i.e., the degree of association between the event and the sponsor's competitors). Because competitors are strongly linked to the sponsor in consumers' network memory (Kumar et al., 2014), their presence may activate competing associations and modify the frame of reference through which consumers process the association between the sponsor and the sponsee.

This research offers the first empirical examination of the effects of competitive clutter in a sponsorship context on consumers' attitude toward the sponsor and toward its sponsorship program. Its results show that consumers' responses in a cluttered

environment derive from a change in the perceived congruence of the sponsor-sponsee association that itself depends on the perceived level of competitors-sponsee congruence. In contrast with research using advertising stimuli as well as sponsorship-linked communications (e.g., activations), the results show that memory of the event sponsor is not altered by competitive sponsorship clutter, a finding which favors a congruence rather than a cognitive load explanation of the effects. This research further extends the sponsorship research literature by showing that sponsor-sponsee incongruence has a positive effect on brand evaluation in a competitive sponsorship clutter environment. Due to the presence of competitor sponsors, congruence can be suboptimal as regards consumers' attitudes. Thus, failing to account for the presence of competitors results in an unrealistic picture of the effects at work, a situation which do not provide sponsorship managers with the full range of inputs necessary for optimal decision making. Also, by revealing a positive effect of incongruence in a sponsorship clutter context, this research provides a new perspective on the examination of very incongruent partnerships which, despite their prominence in practice, are understudied. Examples of atypical sponsor-sponsee associations include *Skittles* and the American National Football League (NFL), *Best Buy* and the U.S. Open, *Smucker's* and the Ladies Professional Golf Association (LPGA), or *Hard Rock Café* and the Bassmaster Classic (professional bass fishing).

The structure of the article is as follows. First, the literature on the effects of congruence in single-sponsor and multi-brand settings is reviewed. Then, recent conceptual developments on congruence and sponsorship articulation are discussed in order to motivate the research hypotheses. This is followed by a description of the research method and a discussion of the findings. The article concludes with the study's theoretical and managerial contributions.

1.2 Theoretical background

Congruence Effects in Single-Sponsor Contexts

The degree of sponsor-sponsee congruence refers to how much sense a specific association between a sponsor and its sponsee makes (e.g., Pappu & Cornwell, 2014). Research in this area has demonstrated that sponsor-sponsee congruence is a key

determinant of consumers' response to sponsorship, showing that the level of congruence between the sponsor and the event has an impact on consumer information processing (e.g., Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Rifon et al., 2004).

A majority of studies have found that the congruence between a sponsor and its sponsee generates positive consumer responses toward the brand and the sponsorship program (e.g., Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006) and creates synergy between the two entities (Becker-Olsen, 2003). These findings are consistent with how schemas provide knowledge structures that serve as interpretive and organizing patterns in making judgements (Clemente et al., 2014; Noseworthy, Finlay, & Islam, 2010). According to schema congruity theory, consumers compare pre-exposition schemas from memory with information to which they are exposed in order to form evaluations (Mandler, 1980; Roy & Cornwell, 2003). Congruence – or schema congruity – occurs when the mental representation of the sponsor-sponsee association conforms to an activated schema. As an illustration, a sports equipment brand such as *Adidas* is more congruent with a sport event than with a musical event (Weeks, Cornwell, & Drennan, 2008) because the brand shares more functional similarities with the former event. A strong congruence between the schema and the received information eases encoding and reinforces the association between the mental representations, that is, in a sponsorship context, the sponsor and its sponsee (Fleck, Korchia, & Le Roy, 2012). This leads to the spreading activation of positive affect among brands and, consequently, more favorable brand evaluations (Jagre, Watson, & Watson, 2001).

In contrast, low-congruence sponsorship associations are inconsistent with expectations, leading to negative consumer responses (Fleck, Korchia, & Le Roy, 2012; Wakefield & Bennett, 2010). Highly incongruent information is hard to reconcile, which leads to frustration and negative affective responses (Clemente et al., 2014; Mandler, 1980; Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989) as well as poorer brand recognition (Cornwell & Humphreys, 2013).

Interference Effects in Multi-Brand Sponsorship Contexts

The research findings on congruence reviewed above have been obtained in single-sponsor settings. Several studies have examined how the presence of other sponsors or competitors may modify the role of congruence in consumer responses to sponsorship. Two multi-brand situations have been examined in previous research: (1) when the other sponsors are not competitors and (2) when some competitors are present, but are not sponsors.

In the case of non-competitor sponsors, researchers have sought to understand how the presence of sponsors from different product categories may affect sponsorship effectiveness (e.g., Carrillat, Harris, & Lafferty, 2010). Ruth and Simonin (2006) reported a dilution effect of the presence of non-competitor sponsors on the perceived goodwill sponsorship motive, leading to a detrimental impact on attitude toward the sponsee. They observed that the presence of other sponsors reduces the distinctiveness and positive impact of sponsorship on sponsor evaluation. However, no study has identified such a dilution effect on consumers' attitude toward the sponsor or the sponsorship program in a competitive setting.

In the second type of situation (non-sponsor competitors), Cornwell et al. (2006) found that the recall of a sponsoring brand diminishes when a non-sponsor competitor is mentioned (i.e., consumers were informed through a press release that the competitor brand had not succeeded in securing the sponsorship). The research literature on ambush marketing also offers insights on how the presence of non-sponsor competitors can dilute the perceived exclusivity of a sponsoring brand, negatively affect the recall of true sponsors, and lead to the creation of associations between the ambusher and the event (Carrillat, Colbert, & Feigné, 2014). Ambushing corresponds to a situation where brands that do not officially sponsor the event are nevertheless indirectly associated with the event, mainly through cleverly designed marketing communications (Sandler & Shani, 1989). Competitive sponsorship may be seen as a specific type of ambushing (e.g., Meenaghan, 1996), where brands have all secured a sponsorship of different properties (e.g., event and players). However, in contrast with the other types of ambushing strategies examined in previous research (e.g., Mazodier, Quester, & Chandon, 2012; Shani & Sandler, 1998), in a competitive sponsorship clutter situation, consumers are

concurrently exposed to communication stimuli where the sponsor and its competitors are all linked to the event. For instance, during each match of the 2014 World Cup Soccer with the Brazilian national team playing, consumers could see communication stimuli from both the sponsor of the event, *Adidas* (present in the stadium), and the sponsor of the Brazilian team, *Nike* (present on the players' jerseys and apparel).

Interference Effects in Sponsorship Competitive Clutter

While research has looked at interference effects on the evaluation of brands in an advertising clutter context (Burke & Srull, 1988; Keller, 1991), such effects have yet to be examined in a sponsorship setting. When contrasting these two cases (i.e., advertising and sponsorship), it is important to note that the cognitive effort necessary for encoding advertising information (e.g., when reading newspaper ads or watching TV) is much greater than that required for processing sponsorship stimuli (brand names and logos on-field). In the context of advertising clutter, being exposed to competing brand communications increases cognitive load, which leads to confusion regarding which brand is associated to which claim (Kelting & Rice, 2013; Kumar & Krishnan, 2004). In contrast, on-field sponsorship information is processed peripherally (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005; Fleck & Quester, 2007). Since sponsorship brand logos represent a subtle form of communication stimuli (van Reijmersdal, Neijens, & Smit, 2007), the exposure to additional impoverished communication stimuli in competitive sponsorship clutter is unlikely to increase consumer's cognitive load (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005). Consequently, while previous research in single-sponsor settings has rested on a cognitive load explanation, this may not be appropriate to examine and explain the effects of sponsorship clutter on consumers' evaluations.

Attitude toward the Sponsor and the Sponsorship Program.

In a sponsorship clutter situation, consumers are simultaneously exposed to competitor brands in a common setting (i.e., the event). Due to their many alignable attributes which are easily compared, competitor brands typically share a large number of similarities (Kumar et al., 2014). Indeed, brands from the same product category are strongly linked

in consumers' network memory, facilitating affective transfers (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999) and spreading activation among competitors (Carrillat, d'Astous, & Christianis, 2014).

By activating comparable nodes (i.e., competitor brands) that are associated with the event, the presence of several competitor sponsors is likely to increase the overall congruence of the setting (i.e., competitors-sponsee congruence). Through associative learning, consumers make judgments toward brands based on their associations with other valenced stimuli (Ranganath & Nosek, 2008). Associative links (e.g., among competitors) are sufficient for consumers to speculate about the characteristics of a brand (Ratcliff et al., 2012). As such, associations between an event and one brand should increase the likelihood and congruence of an association with a brand from the same product category. Because consumers perceive a high level of congruence between brands that compete in the same product category (Pham & Johar, 2001), it is expected that an event that is already associated with a brand may appear as more congruent with an additional brand of the same product category through the activation of shared links and an increase in the accessibility of its competitors.

While in a congruent single-sponsor setting the association between the sponsor and its sponsee is perceived as exclusive and unique (Meenaghan, 1996), in a cluttered environment the high level of competitors-sponsee congruence should reduce the salience of the sponsor-sponsee association, and therefore its level of congruence, which in turn should negatively impact consumer's evaluations. Thus, while in a single-sponsor setting the level of sponsor-sponsee congruence has a positive impact on attitude toward the sponsor (e.g., Speed & Thompson, 2000) and the sponsorship program (e.g., Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006), in sponsorship clutter it is expected to have a detrimental effect on consumers' affective responses. Thus:

H1: When a sponsor is congruent with the sponsored event, the concurrent presence of competitor sponsors has a negative effect on (a) attitude toward the sponsor and (b) attitude toward the sponsorship program.

In the case of an incongruent sponsor-sponsee association, the high level of competitors-sponsee congruence should help consumers resolve sponsor-sponsee incongruence. While

in advertising clutter incongruence resolution may demand too much cognitive effort to be successful (Torn & Dahlen, 2008), in a sponsorship clutter setting the exposure to competitors' impoverished stimuli (logos) may contribute to ease consumers' processing efforts. Incongruence resolution has been shown to generate positive affect (Mazodier & Quester, 2014) as consumers feel a sense of satisfaction and arousal through this intellectually challenging process (Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989). Thus:

H2: When a sponsor is incongruent with the sponsored event, the concurrent presence of competitor sponsors has a positive effect on (a) attitude toward the sponsor and (b) attitude toward the sponsorship program.

Based on the preceding discussion, it is expected that in a cluttered sponsorship setting, the level of congruence between the competitors and the sponsee may serve as an anchor in the perception of the sponsor-sponsee congruence (Noseworthy, Finlay, & Islam, 2010), which in turn should impact the evaluation of the sponsor and the sponsorship program. Indeed, the alignable attributes shared between the sponsor and competitor brands facilitate information processing as they serve as a frame of reference for the formation of consumer's evaluations (Lee & Lee, 2007). Since the evaluation of a brand is affected by the characteristics of the entities that are in close proximity (Simonin & Ruth, 1998), the effects of clutter on consumer evaluations are thus likely to be serially mediated by competitors-sponsee congruence and sponsor-sponsee congruence. Thus:

H3: The effects of the concurrent presence of competitor sponsors on consumer attitudes (a) toward the sponsor and (b) toward its sponsorship program are serially mediated by competitors-sponsee congruence and sponsor-sponsee congruence.

The Role of Articulation.

A considerable body of research has been conducted on the strategies that may be used to cut through advertising clutter. Brand familiarity (Kent & Allen, 1994), ad repetition (Burke & Srull, 1988), product knowledge (Lee & Lee, 2011), product attributes (Lee & Lee, 2007), and distinctiveness in executional elements of the ad (Kumar et al., 2014)

have been identified as significant moderators of competitive interference. In a sponsorship environment, articulation may play this role.

Articulation refers to various communication initiatives, typically in an advertising setting, designed to put forward the association between the sponsor and its sponsee (Cornwell et al., 2006; Weeks, Cornwell, & Humphreys, 2006). In competitive sponsorship clutter, articulation from the event sponsor should alleviate interference by singling out the sponsor-sponsee association. Because articulation aims at explaining the link between the two properties (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002), it should increase the perceived level of congruence between the sponsor and its sponsee. Consequently, the sponsor-sponsee schema is more likely to act as a frame of reference in forming judgments, which should positively impact the evaluation of the sponsor and its sponsorship program. This should reduce negative clutter effects on the evaluation of the sponsorship program (Crimmins & Horn, 1996) and the sponsor (Weeks, Cornwell, & Drennan, 2008). Hence, it is predicted that articulation has a positive impact on consumers' evaluations through an increase in the perceived level of sponsor-sponsee congruence. Thus:

H4: Articulation has a positive effect on (a) attitude toward the sponsor and (b) attitude toward the sponsorship program.

H5: The effects of articulation on consumer attitudes (a) toward the sponsor and (b) toward its sponsorship program are mediated by sponsor-sponsee congruence.

1.3 Method

Design and Experimental Procedure

A 2 (congruence between the sponsor(s) and the sponsee: no/yes) $\times$ 2 (clutter: no/yes) $\times$ 3 (sponsorship-linked communication: ad with articulation/ad with no articulation/no ad) completely randomized factorial experimental design was used to test the research hypotheses. The Golf Canadian Open was chosen as the sport event since golf usually involves concurrent congruent or incongruent sponsors at both the event and the golfers' levels. In order to create a competitive sponsorship clutter, five brands were included as

sponsors, one brand at the event level and four competitor brands at the golfers' level. Congruent sponsors were *Adidas* (event), and *Fila*, *Reebok*, *Puma*, and *Asics* (golfers), which are major players in the highly competitive sportswear's market (Tong and Hawley 2009). Incongruent sponsors were *MTV* (event), and *Much*, *MusiMax*, *MusiquePlus*, and *Galaxie* (golfers), which compete against each other in the music programming market (Pegley, 2008). Previous research on sponsorship has used sportswear brands with a sport event for a congruent setting (e.g., Mazodier & Merunka, 2012) and music brands for an incongruent setting (e.g., Törn, 2012).

The experiment was conducted online where participants were exposed to a fictitious five-page promotional leaflet for the 2014 Golf Canadian Open that contained text and pictures of the event and the golfers. Researchers having examined the effect of the presence of non-sponsor competitors on memory and brand evaluation have typically employed the simulated press-release paradigm introduced by Johar and Pham (1999) (e.g., Cornwell et al., 2006; Humphreys et al., 2010). Although these studies have provided relevant information concerning interference effects arising from exposure to sponsorship-linked marketing (Cornwell, 1995) – that is, the promotion of a sponsorship program through other types of communication, including advertising and “*press releases found in newspapers, magazines, and traditional broadcast media*” (Humphreys et al., 2010, p.97) –, they have not examined the effects of sponsorship stimuli *per se* (i.e., on-field) in the context of competitive sponsorship clutter. This is because fictitious press-releases bring to the participants' attention much more information than impoverished on-field sponsorship stimuli (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005). In contrast, in the present research, the stimuli were representative of the sponsorship context. This offers the opportunity to disentangle the effect of sponsorship stimuli on consumers' response from that of advertising. Consequently, the stimuli in clutter conditions comprised the logos and names of the golfers' sponsors printed on the players' clothes and caps, whereas the logo and name of the event sponsor were visible on the golf course. In the no clutter conditions, the event sponsor had the same level of visibility, but the players' clothes and caps did not display any brand.

In addition, in conditions with articulation, the second page of the leaflet contained an ad from the event sponsor that articulated the sponsorship program by highlighting the uniqueness of the sponsor-event relationship. In the congruent conditions, it stated: “*Adidas* is proud to share its passion for golf with the 2014 Canadian Open. With 50 years of innovation in the service of achievement, *Adidas* offers clothes and equipment for golf at the leading edge of technology”, whereas in the incongruent conditions, it stated: “*MTV* is proud to put its energy in the 2014 Canadian Open. Sharing the same desire to always go beyond our limits and to move the crowd, *MTV* offers an audacious, unique and vibrant programming”. In order to isolate the effect of articulation from simple exposure to the brand, conditions with an ad were included, which featured simply real-life advertising slogans (“*Adidas*, impossible is nothing”, “*MTV*, the music never stops”).

Sample and Measures

Four hundred and twenty-four participants from a Canadian province were recruited with the help of a market research company. Nine individuals were dropped from the analysis due to excessive incomplete data, leaving a final sample of 415 (209 women and 206 men). The age of the respondents varied between 18 and 66 years with a mean of 43. Twenty-seven percent had some primary or high school, 41% some college or professional studies, and 32% had a university diploma; 17% had an annual household income of less than CAD20,000 and 46% of more than CAD50,000. Overall, the participants’ socio-demographic distribution was very similar to the latest census data of the province.

Each individual was randomly assigned to one of the twelve experimental conditions. After reading the leaflet, the participants completed a questionnaire including several measures (seven-point scale items, unless otherwise mentioned). First, brand memory was assessed with two measures presented sequentially: unprompted awareness, then prompted awareness (Meenaghan & O’Sullivan, 2013) where the participants were asked to identify the brands they had noticed from a list of 11 brands. This list included the event sponsor, the four sponsor competitors, and six plausible sponsors of the event that were competitors of the real sponsors (i.e., from the same product category and of similar level

of market prominence) (Pham & Johar, 2001). Three items pertaining to the perceived quality of the leaflet and the ad appeared after (*bad/good quality, unpleasant/pleasant, uninteresting/interesting*). A measure of attitude toward the event sponsor followed, comprising three items based on Speed and Thompson (2000) with anchors: *that I do/do not like, for which I have a negative/positive opinion*, and *which is inferior/superior to other brands*. Three items from Speed and Thompson (2000) were selected to measure sponsor-sponsee congruence: “there is a logical connection between (brand) and the Canadian Open tournament, the image of (brand) and the image of the Canadian Open tournament are similar, it makes sense to me that (brand) sponsors the Canadian Open tournament” (*totally disagree/totally agree*). These items were used as a global measure of perceived congruence (e.g., Mazodier & Quester, 2014). Attitude toward the sponsorship program was measured using three items based on Olson (2010): “My feeling toward the sponsorship is *unfavorable/favorable, bad/good, negative/positive*”. The perceived congruence of each competitor brand with the event was assessed with the same items as those presented above. Finally, a one-item measure of familiarity with each sponsoring brands (*familiar/not familiar*) was used. The questionnaire ended with socio-demographic questions.

1.4 Results

Preliminary analyses

The measures of perceived quality of the leaflet and the ad exhibited good reliability, and factor analyses led to a single factor explaining a large proportion of the total variance (leaflet: 89%, $\alpha = .939$; ad: 90%, $\alpha = .949$). This was also the case for brand attitude (*Adidas*: 91%, $\alpha = .951$; *MTV*: 74%, $\alpha = .830$; *Asics*: 90%, $\alpha = .945$; *Fila*: 88%, $\alpha = .931$; *Puma*: 90%, $\alpha = .948$; *Reebok*: 87%, $\alpha = .924$; *Galaxie*: 89%, $\alpha = .941$; *Much*: 91%, $\alpha = .950$; *MusiquePlus*: 91%, $\alpha = .954$; *MusiMax*: 91%, $\alpha = .955$), attitude toward the sponsorship (*Adidas*: 87%, $\alpha = .891$; *MTV*: 92%, $\alpha = .961$), and event-sponsor congruence (*Adidas*: 90%, $\alpha = .949$; *MTV*: 90%, $\alpha = .945$; *Asics*: 95%, $\alpha = .969$; *Fila*: 94%, $\alpha = .976$; *Puma*: 90%, $\alpha = .974$; *Reebok*: 95%, $\alpha = .947$; *Galaxie*: 96%, $\alpha = .984$; *Much*: 97%, $\alpha = .985$; *MusiquePlus*: 96%, $\alpha = .984$; *MusiMax*: 96%, $\alpha = .980$). The mean of the items was used to operationalize these concepts.

The results of two ANOVAs using as dependent variable the mean of the items assessing the perceived quality of the stimuli and as independent variables clutter, congruence, and articulation as well as their 2 and 3-way interactions, confirmed that there was no difference across the conditions (all F s < 1). In order to check the effectiveness of the congruence manipulations, comparisons were restricted to the conditions with no ad or articulation, so that the results would not be affected by the manipulation of communication. The congruence mean was higher for congruent brands and lower for incongruent brands than the scale's middle point (i.e., 4), and the differences in congruence were statistically significant for both the event sponsors ($M_{\text{Cong}} = 4.83$ vs. $M_{\text{Incong}} = 3.49$, $\Delta = 1.34$, $t = 7.00$, 134 df , $p < .001$) and their competitors ($M_{\text{Cong}} = 4.66$ vs. $M_{\text{Incong}} = 3.67$, $\Delta = 1.01$, $t = 2.66$, 134 df , $p < .01$). Also, the congruence between the event sponsor and its competitors was not significantly different for both congruent conditions ($M_{\text{Sponsor}} = 4.83$ vs. $M_{\text{Competitors}} = 4.66$, $\Delta = .17$, $t = .99$, 66 df , $p > .05$) and incongruent conditions ($M_{\text{Sponsor}} = 3.49$ vs. $M_{\text{Competitors}} = 3.67$, $\Delta = .18$, $t = 1.15$, 66 df , $p > .05$). These results indicate that event sponsors' congruence was successfully manipulated.

Familiarity did not significantly differ between congruent *versus* incongruent event sponsors ($M_{\text{Cong}} = 5.42$ vs. $M_{\text{Incong}} = 5.27$, $\Delta = .15$, $t = 1.11$, 413 df , $p > .05$), and between congruent *versus* incongruent competitors ($M_{\text{Cong}} = 4.24$ vs. $M_{\text{Incong}} = 4.34$, $\Delta = .10$, $t = -0.73$, 413 df , $p > .05$). For both congruent and incongruent conditions, the familiarity of the event sponsor was higher than that of its competitors (congruent: $M_{\text{Sponsor}} = 5.42$ vs. $M_{\text{Competitors}} = 4.24$, $\Delta = 1.18$, $t = 13.76$, 211 df , $p < .001$; incongruent: $M_{\text{Sponsor}} = 5.27$ vs. $M_{\text{Competitors}} = 4.34$, $\Delta = 1.12$, $t = 8.55$, 202 df , $p < .001$), which reflects current managerial practice, as the top performing sporting properties are principally sponsored by the most prominent brands in their category (Wakefield and Bennett 2010). Yet, in order to hold these differences constant, sponsors' familiarity scores (event sponsor and competitors), which is a proxy of market prominence (Pham and Johar 2001), were used as covariates in the analyses aimed at testing the hypotheses. The use of these covariates allow to ascertain the robustness of the findings through the estimation of the effects of sponsorship clutter while statistically controlling the sponsors' familiarity and prominence.

Tests of Hypotheses

The two dependent variables (attitude toward the sponsor, and attitude toward the sponsorship program) were entered into a $2 \times 2 \times 3$ MANCOVA with clutter, congruence, and articulation, as well as their 2 and 3-way interactions, as the independent variables, and sponsors' familiarity as covariates. A significant multivariate interaction between congruence and clutter was obtained (Wilk's $\lambda = .90$, $F(2,397) = 21.16$, $p < .001$) as well as a significant multivariate main effect of articulation (Wilk's $\lambda = .78$, $F(4,794) = 25.65$, $p < .001$). The 3-way interaction was not significant (Wilk's $\lambda = .98$, $F(4,794) = 1.78$, $p > .05$) (see the MANCOVA results in Tables 1 and 2).

TABLE 1.1
MANCOVA Results
Effects on Attitude Toward the Sponsor and Attitude Toward the Sponsorship

<i>Source of variation</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Error</i>	<i>Wilks' λ</i>	<i>F</i>
Intercept	2	397	.435	257.340***
Congruence (A)	2	397	.987	2.643
Clutter (B)	2	397	.993	1.324
Articulation (C)	4	794	.784	25.650***
A $\times$ B $\times$ C	4	794	.982	1.782
A $\times$ B	2	397	.904	21.162***
B $\times$ C	4	794	.988	1.196
A $\times$ C	4	794	.979	2.151
Event Sponsor Familiarity	2	397	.956	9.150***
Competitor 1 Familiarity	2	397	.990	1.909
Competitor 2 Familiarity	2	397	.994	1.172
Competitor 3 Familiarity	2	397	.999	.227
Competitor 4 Familiarity	2	397	.998	.471

Univariate Results

		Sponsor		Sponsorship program	
<i>Source of variation</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean squares</i>	<i>F statistic</i>	<i>Mean squares</i>	<i>F statistic</i>
Intercept	1	369.35	369.61***	406.12	427.55***
Congruence (A)	1	5.29	5.29*	1.48	1.55
Clutter (B)	1	1.04	1.04	0.23	0.24
Articulation (C)	2	19.45	19.46***	50.96	59.65***
A × B	1	41.91	41.94***	16.30	17.16***
B × C	2	0.66	0.66	0.57	0.60
A × C	2	0.39	0.39	1.68	1.77
A × B × C	2	2.44	2.44	0.02	0.02
Event Sponsor Familiarity	1	17.37	17.39***	9.18	9.67**
Comp 1 Familiarity	1	2.82	2.82	0.01	0.01
Comp 2 Fam	1	0.59	0.59	2.22	2.34
Comp 3 Fam	1	0.07	0.07	0.12	0.13
Comp 4 Fam	1	0.03	0.03	0.46	0.48
Error	398	0.99		0.95	

Note: *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

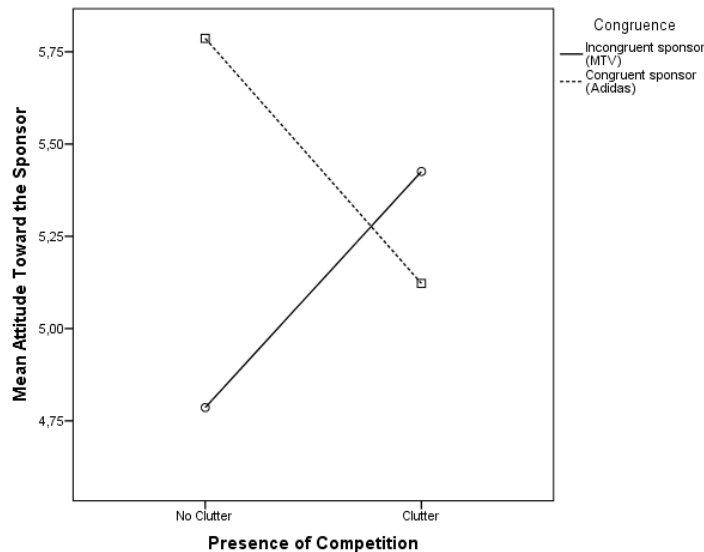
TABLE 1.2
Means and Standard Deviations of Dependent Variables

<i>Congruent Sponsor (Adidas)</i>						
	Clutter			No Clutter		
<i>Dependent variables</i>	Art (n= 38)	Ad (n= 35)	No com (n= 36)	Art (n= 39)	Ad (n= 33)	No com (n= 31)
Sponsor	5.62 (.173)	5.21 (.180)	4.50 (.178)	5.93 (.171)	5.78 (.186)	5.60 (.191)
Sponsorship	5.59 (.162)	4.94 (.169)	4.21 (.167)	6.06 (.160)	5.19 (.174)	4.43 (.180)
<i>Incongruent Sponsor (MTV)</i>						
	Clutter			No Clutter		
<i>Dependent variables</i>	Art (n= 32)	Ad (n= 36)	No com (n= 26)	Art (n= 28)	Ad (n= 38)	No com (n= 43)
Sponsor	5.70 (.188)	5.53 (.178)	4.92 (.209)	5.38 (.201)	4.85 (.173)	4.34 (.163)
Sponsorship	5.53 (.177)	5.10 (.167)	4.57 (.196)	5.21 (.189)	4.64 (.162)	4.03 (.153)

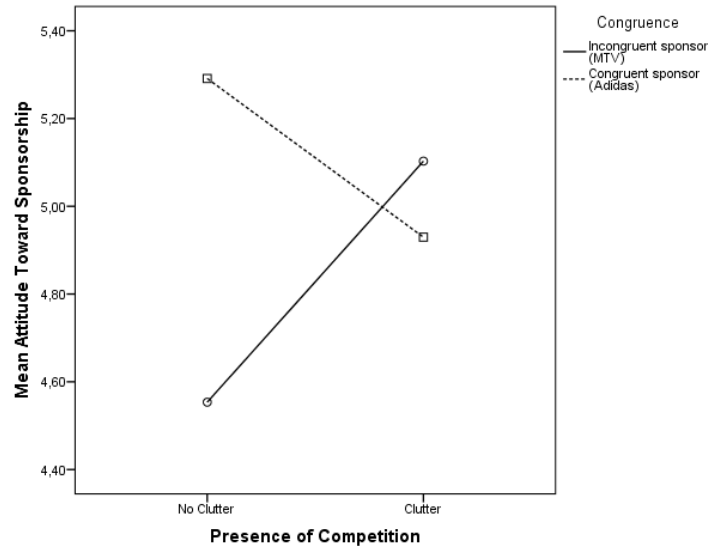
Interaction between Clutter and Congruence.

In line with hypotheses 1 and 2, there was a statistically significant interaction between congruence and clutter on consumers' attitude toward the sponsor ($F(1,398) = 41.94, p < .001$) and attitude toward the sponsorship ($F(1,398) = 17.16, p < .001$). In congruent conditions, consumers' attitude was significantly less positive in a cluttered than in a non-cluttered setting as regards the sponsor ($M_{\text{ConClut}} = 5.12$ vs. $M_{\text{ConNoClut}} = 5.78, \Delta = .66, t = 4.30, 210 \text{ df}, p < .001$) and the sponsorship program ($M_{\text{ConClut}} = 4.93$ vs. $M_{\text{ConNoClut}} = 5.29, \Delta = .36, t = 2.42, 210 \text{ df}, p < .05$). In incongruent conditions however, it was more positive in clutter conditions for both the sponsor ($M_{\text{InconClut}} = 5.42$ vs. $M_{\text{InconNoClut}} = 4.78, \Delta = .64, t = -4.10, 201 \text{ df}, p < .001$) and the sponsorship program ($M_{\text{InconClut}} = 5.10$ vs. $M_{\text{InconNoClut}} = 4.55, \Delta = .55, t = -3.33, 201 \text{ df}, p = .001$) (Figure 1). Altogether, these results give strong support to hypotheses 1a, 1b, 2a, and 2b.

FIGURE 1.1
Clutter x Congruence Interactions on Consumer Response
Attitude toward the Sponsor



Attitude toward the Sponsorship Program



Mediation Effects.

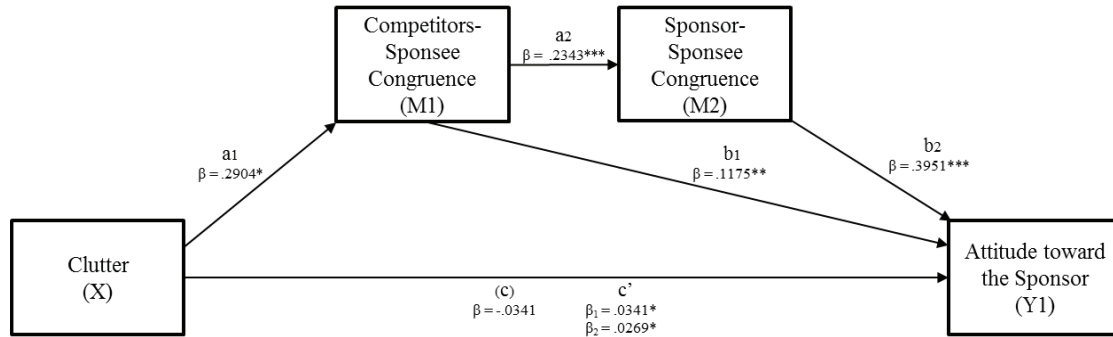
It was predicted that the observed effects of clutter on consumer evaluation would be explained by the serial mediation of competitors-sponsee congruence and sponsor-sponsee congruence (hypotheses 3a and 3b). To provide evidence on this process, mediation analyses were conducted following the protocols of Hayes (2013). Specifically, PROCESS Multiple Mediation Model 6 was used, with the bootstrapping method with bias-corrected confidence estimates from 5000 bootstrap resamples. No clutter was coded '0' and clutter '1'. Competitors-sponsee congruence was operationalized with the mean level of congruence between each competitor and the event.

Figure 2, panel (a) depicts the two-mediator models in which clutter (X) is modeled as affecting sponsor attitude (Y1) through two pathways. One pathway runs from X to Y1 through M1 (competitors-sponsee congruence) only ($\beta = .034$ with a 95% confidence interval between .003 and .087); a second indirect pathway runs through both M1 and M2 (sponsor-sponsee congruence) sequentially, with M1 affecting M2 ($\beta = .026$, CI = [.002; .064]). In addition to the expected serial mediation of M1 and M2, a mediating effect of competitors-sponsee congruence on attitude toward the sponsor was identified.

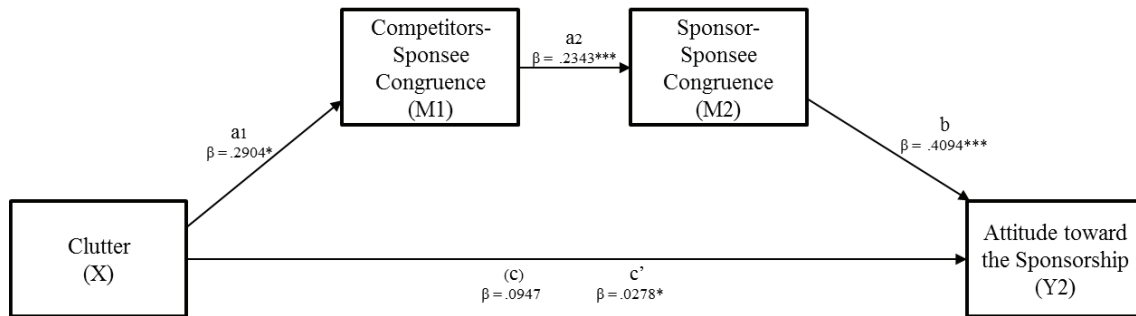
On the other hand, as shown in panel (b) of Figure 2, the mediation results shown that clutter (X) affects attitude toward the sponsorship (Y2) through one pathway, with a serial mediation of competitors-sponsee congruence (M1) and sponsor-sponsee congruence (M2) ($\beta = .027$, $CI = [.002; .068]$). All mediation results are reported in Table 3. Overall, these results bring empirical support to hypotheses 3a and 3b.

FIGURE 1.2

Panel (a): Multiple-Step Indirect Effect of Clutter on Attitude toward the Sponsor



Panel (b): Multiple-Step Indirect Effect of Clutter on Attitude toward the Sponsorship



These analyses are particularly enlightening with respect to the underlying processes driving the effects of clutter in a sponsorship setting. They are consistent with the assumption that competitive sponsorship clutter impacts competitors-sponsee congruence, which in turn affects the perceived level of congruence of the sponsor-sponsee association. They suggest that the impact of clutter in this study was driven by a change in perceived sponsor-sponsee congruence and not by an impact on memory for the sponsor. This is confirmed by a MANCOVA using unprompted memory and prompted memory for the sponsor as dependent variables, and as independent variables,

congruence, clutter, articulation, as well as their 2 and 3-way interactions, and sponsors' familiarity as covariates. No significant interaction was obtained. As expected, the main effect of clutter was not statistically significant (Wilk's $\lambda = .98$, $F(2,397) = 2.85$, $p > .05$).

TABLE 1.3
Effects of Clutter on Attitude When Controlling for Competitors-Sponsee
Congruence and Sponsor-Sponsee Congruence

<i>Model 1: X: Clutter</i>				<i>Model 2: X: Clutter</i>		
<i>M1: Competitors-Sponsee</i>				<i>M1: Competitors-Sponsee</i>		
<i>Congruence</i>				<i>Congruence</i>		
<i>M2: Sponsor-Sponsee Congruence</i>				<i>M2: Sponsor-Sponsee Congruence</i>		
<i>Y1: Attitude Toward the Sponsor</i>				<i>Y2: Attitude Toward the Sponsorship</i>		
<i>Path estimates</i>						
	Coeff.	SE		Coeff.	SE	
a1	0.2904*	.1406		0.2904*	.1406	
a2	0.2343***	.0465		0.2343***	.0465	
b1	0.1175**	.0355		0.0443	.0354	
b2	0.3951***	.0365		0.4094***	.0364	
C	-0.0341	.0991		0.0947	.0987	
Indirect effects (c')						
	Effect	Lower	Upper	Effect	Lower	Upper
M1	0.0341	0.0032	0.0876	0.0129	-0.0056	0.0535
M1 & M2	0.0269	0.0027	0.0645	0.0278	0.0029	0.0688

Note: *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$

Articulation.

The results of a MANCOVA using attitude toward the sponsor and attitude toward the sponsorship as dependent variables indicated that the interaction between articulation and clutter was not significant (Wilk's $\lambda = .98$, $F(4,794) = 1.19$, $p > .05$), implying that there were no differential effects of articulation in cluttered versus non-cluttered environments. Univariate ANCOVAs yielded a statistically significant main effect of articulation for both attitude toward the sponsor ($F(2,398) = 19.46$, $p < .001$) and attitude toward the sponsorship ($F(2,398) = 53.65$, $p > .001$).

The results reveal that attitude toward the sponsor and attitude toward the sponsorship program were more favorable in the presence of articulation than when there was only an

ad (sponsor: $M_{Art} = 5.68$ vs. $M_{Ad} = 5.33$, $\Delta = .35$, $t = 2.75$, 277 df , $p < .01$; sponsorship: $M_{Art} = 5.63$ vs. $M_{Ad} = 4.96$, $\Delta = .67$, $t = 5.43$, 277 df , $p < .001$). In addition, the simple ad condition led to more favorable evaluations than no communication from the sponsor (sponsor: $M_{Ad} = 5.33$ vs. $M_{NoCom} = 4.78$, $\Delta = .55$, $t = 4.05$, 276 df , $p < .001$; sponsorship: $M_{Ad} = 4.96$ vs. $M_{NoCom} = 4.27$, $\Delta = .69$, $t = 5.79$, 276 df , $p < .001$). These results bring strong support to hypotheses 4a and 4b. They confirm that sponsorship-linked communications have a positive impact on consumers' attitudinal responses. In addition, they show that in a competitive sponsorship clutter context, consumer attitudes toward the sponsor and its sponsorship program are more favorable when the sponsor-sponsee association is articulated than when it is not.

To test the potential mediating effect of sponsor-sponsee congruence in the context of the relationship between articulation and consumers' attitudes, the MEDIANTE macro associated with the PROCESS software was used as it accommodates multicategorical independent variables. A bootstrapping estimation method with bias-corrected confidence estimates from 5000 bootstrap resamples was employed for this purpose (Hayes & Preacher, 2014). The three levels of sponsor communication were rank-ordered with respect to their degree of singling out the association between the sponsor and its sponsee (no communication, advertising, articulation), and were coded '1', '2' and '3' respectively.

TABLE 1.4
Effects of Articulation on Attitude When Controlling for Sponsor-Sponsee Congruence

<i>Model 1: X: Articulation</i>			<i>Model 2: X: Articulation</i>			
<i>M: Sponsor-Sponsee Congruence</i>			<i>M: Sponsor-Sponsee Congruence</i>			
<i>Y1: Attitude Toward the Sponsor</i>			<i>Y2: Attitude Toward the Sponsorship</i>			
<i>Path estimates</i>						
	Coeff.	SE	Coeff.	SE		
a	0.5615***	.0796	0.5615***	.0796		
b	0.3792***	.0374	0.3250***	.0346		
c	0.4484***	.0675	0.6790***	.0616		
Indirect effects						
	Effect	Lower	Upper	Effect	Lower	Upper
c'	0.2129	0.1522	0.2869	0.1825	0.1277	0.2505

Note: *** $p < .001$

Separate analyses were conducted for each outcome, that is, attitude toward the sponsor (H5a), and attitude toward the sponsorship (H5b). The hierarchical regression analyses revealed a mediation effect of sponsor-sponsee congruence on the relation between articulation and attitude toward the sponsor ($\beta = .212$, $CI = [.152;.286]$) and toward the sponsorship ($\beta = .182$, $CI = [.127;.250]$) (Table 4). Conversely, no significant mediating effect of competitors-sponsee congruence was observed with respect to the relationship between articulation and attitude toward the sponsor ($\beta = .011$, $CI = [-.020;.052]$) and toward the sponsorship ($\beta = .007$, $CI = [-.013;.034]$). These results suggest that articulation, which explains the sponsor-sponsee association, has a positive effect on sponsor-sponsee congruence, which in turn positively impacts attitude toward the sponsor and the sponsorship program, and this brings empirical support to hypotheses 5a and 5b.

The MANCOVA using unprompted memory and prompted memory for the sponsor as dependent variables, and as independent variables, congruence, clutter, articulation, as well as their 2 and 3-way interactions, and sponsors' familiarity as covariates yielded a statistically significant main effect of articulation (Wilk's $\lambda = .89$, $F(4,794) = 11.56$, $p < .001$). Univariate ANOVAs revealed a statistically significant main effect of articulation for memory (unprompted: $F(2,403) = 14.52$, $p > .001$; prompted: $F(2,403) = 22.15$, $p > .001$). Memory for the sponsor was significantly better with articulation than without (unprompted: $M_{Art} = .59$ vs. $M_{NoArt} = .35$, $\Delta = .24$, $t = 4.65$, 413 df , $p < .001$; prompted: $M_{Art} = .82$ vs. $M_{NoArt} = .58$, $\Delta = .24$, $t = 5.18$, 413 df , $p < .001$). Also, memory was better when the ad contained an articulation than when it did not (unprompted: $M_{Art} = .59$ vs. $M_{Ad} = .44$, $\Delta = .15$, $t = 2.48$, 277 df , $p < .05$; prompted: $M_{Art} = .82$ vs. $M_{Ad} = .68$, $\Delta = .14$, $t = 2.77$, 277 df , $p < .01$). Finally, an ad led to better memory than no ad (unprompted: $M_{Ad} = .44$ vs. $M_{NoAd} = .26$, $\Delta = .18$, $t = 3.15$, 276 df , $p < .01$; prompted: $M_{Ad} = .68$ vs. $M_{NoAd} = .46$, $\Delta = .18$, $t = 3.78$, 276 df , $p < .001$). The use of communication (articulation or ad) resulted in higher unprompted and prompted awareness of the sponsor than no communication, a result that is coherent with the presumption that richer information has an impact on brand memory, as illustrated in advertising clutter (Keller 1991) as well as in research on sponsorship-linked communications (Cornwell et al. 2006).

1.5 Discussion

In contrast with previous research which has centered almost exclusively on single-sponsor situations, this study has examined for the first time the effects of the presence of competitor sponsors during a sports event on consumers' attitudinal responses. The objective was to assess the processes by which the evaluation of the event sponsor and the sponsorship program is affected when consumers are concurrently exposed to competing sponsorship stimuli.

Overall, this study makes a number of interesting contributions to the sponsorship and advertising literatures. First, while previous research in advertising has shown that brand evaluation is negatively impacted by memory interference (e.g., Jewell & Unnava, 2003; Keller, 1991), the results of this study indicate that in a situation of competitive sponsorship clutter, consumers' attitudes toward the sponsor and the sponsorship program follow from a change in the level of perceived congruence between the sponsor and the sponsee (i.e., sponsor-sponsee congruence) as well as between the sponsor's competitors and the sponsee (i.e., competitors-sponsee congruence). More precisely, the results of an experiment show that the presence of competitor sponsors modifies the frame of reference through which consumers process information by increasing the level of competitors-sponsee congruence. That is, in a congruent setting, competitors' stimuli activate competing schemas that impede the perceived congruence of the sponsor-sponsee association due to a highly congruent competitors-sponsee environment. In an incongruent setting on the other hand, the congruence of competitors' schema stimulates incongruence resolution, which leads to more favorable affective responses. Hence, when the sponsors are congruent with the event, consumer evaluations are significantly less favorable in a cluttered than in a single-sponsor environment, but this pattern is reversed when they are incongruent. Ruth and Simonin (2006) showed an effect of the roster size on how consumers evaluate a sponsor. They illustrated how the presence of other sponsors provides additional judgment reference points in the formation of an attitude toward the sponsor. The present study extends their research by spelling out the nature of this impact in a context where competitors are not sponsors of the event, but are associated with different entities (i.e., sponsoring the players *versus* the event). In addition, it clarifies how the presence of other brands impacts consumers' evaluations in opposite directions depending on the level of perceived sponsor-sponsee congruence.

Second, although congruence has been repeatedly shown to positively affect consumers' evaluations (e.g., Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; Weeks, Cornwell, & Drennan, 2008), the results of this study highlight the fact that in a sponsorship clutter context, a high level of congruence exposes consumer responses to the deleterious impact of clutter, whereas a low level of congruence may lead to more favorable consumer reactions through incongruence resolution. The results support the proposition that because of the peripheral nature of sponsorship stimuli, incongruence may have more impact on consumers' affective responses than an expected congruent association (Fleck & Quester, 2007).

Third, this study is the first to provide evidence that the presence of competitors' brand logos does not result in memory interference. These findings confirm that, in contrast with advertising stimuli, brand logos in sponsorship clutter are processed peripherally (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005). This was confirmed by the absence of clutter effects on brand memory. Because contemporary marketing environments increasingly take the form of the display of competitive peripheral stimuli (brand names and logos) (Stafford & Grimes, 2012), this result provides a first insight into the mechanisms underlying the impact of marketing communications in cluttered environments.

Finally, this study examined for the first time how articulation as a communication strategy may positively impact consumers' evaluations in a competitive environment. It extends the growing body of research on articulation by looking at the role of articulation in a context of clutter. The results suggest that articulating commonalities between the sponsor and the event increases consumer information processing at the brand association level (Crimmins & Horn, 1996). While previous research has generally examined the impact of articulation on sponsor identification (e.g. Cornwell et al., 2006), the results of this research also suggest that it is possible to improve consumers' attitudes by articulating the relationship between the sponsor and the event. This research is the first to isolate the effects of articulation on attitude through a positive impact on congruence. In addition, although Cornwell et al. (2006) found an interaction between articulation and congruence on sponsor memory, the present research failed to identify such an interaction in a cluttered environment. This may be explained by the stronger associative links created by the presence of competitors. These associations may increase competitors-sponsee

congruence, which may modify the level of congruence of the sponsor-sponsee association, and as such reduce the differences between conditions. Also, in this study the direction of cued recall was not manipulated, which may contribute to explain why these findings differ from those of Cornwell et al. (2006) who found that the relation between articulation and congruence was qualified by a three-way interaction with the direction of cueing.

Managerial Implications

These results on the effects of sponsorship clutter are of interest to sponsorship managers. When faced with competitive exposure, managers of sponsoring brands can implement defensive strategies. For instance, to counter ambush marketing and reduce the interference arising from such unfair competitive exposure, they may opt for the disclosing of ambushers (Mazodier, Quester, & Chandon, 2012) or, alternatively, try to convince the event's organizers to adopt stricter rules governing the commercial environment. As an illustration, in 2008, the Olympic Organizing Committee announced a number of measures to give priority to the sole visibility of the official Olympic sponsors, including prohibiting all non-sponsor ads in Olympic-related TV programs (Brownlee, Greenwell, & Moorman, 2009). However, the findings of this research suggest that such measures may be ineffective in preventing competitive interferences in a cluttered sponsorship environment, because they fail to address the impact of the presence of competitor sponsoring brands on the playing field and, consequently, are not likely to reduce the clutter effects coming from entities simultaneously sponsoring different entities on-field.

Hence, sponsorship managers should carefully consider this threat in developing their defence strategy. The results of this study indicate that sponsors that are congruent with the event are vulnerable to their competitors' association with athletes or teams which are part of this event. In order to avoid negative spillover effects due to the presence of competitors, sponsors of events should consider using pre-emptive advertising to focus consumers' attention on their brand and on its association with the event. Although the use of advertising with no articulation may suffice in singling out the sponsor-sponsee

association, the results of this study suggest that the articulation of the sponsor-sponsee association may have even more favorable effects on attitudinal responses by underscoring and reinforcing the unique association of the sponsor with the event. As a result, this should contribute to attenuate the detrimental effects of sponsorship clutter and increase their perceived congruence with the event.

Another relevant issue for sponsorship managers concerns the decision to sponsor an event or not as a function of the athletes who are likely to participate and the sponsoring brands they might be associated with. This issue is especially important as the associations between a brand and a team or an athlete may last several years or decades, as illustrated by the Major League Baseball sponsored by *Anheuser-Busch* since 1980, and Gatorade since 1990. The results of this study suggest that while an incongruent sponsor should look for events where the main athletes are sponsored by competitors, a congruent sponsor should avoid such events.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

As this study is the first to explore the competitive sponsorship clutter phenomenon, interesting research opportunities are emerging. Future research endeavors should continue to focus on the specificities of competitive sponsorship strategies and their effects on consumers' evaluations. As regards the effects of sponsorship clutter on memory, a delayed memory test may confirm the absence of an impact of sponsorship stimuli (*versus* advertising) on sponsor memory. In addition, in this research, the presence of competitor sponsors was found to positively affect consumer evaluative responses in an incongruent competitive context. An open question is whether these findings can be equally applied to different levels of incongruence, from slight to very strong. Also, in this study the number of competitor sponsors was held constant. It seems reasonable to think that negative sponsorship clutter effects would be stronger as the number of competitors increases in the case of congruent sponsorships, and that the positive effects in conditions of low event-sponsor congruence would be attenuated. By manipulating the number of sponsors, it would be possible to verify if these predictions are confirmed and investigate, at the same time, what constitutes a saturated cluttered environment, where

the presence of extra competitor sponsors does not provide additional impact on consumers' evaluations. Future research should also investigate the level of similarity and brand linkages between the event sponsor and the athletes' sponsors. This would help to develop a deeper understanding of the key influences associated with sponsorship effects in situations of competitive clutter.

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Chapitre 2

The Effects of Sponsorship Portfolio Variance on Consumer Evaluations

Résumé

Although brands increasingly sponsor several properties and accordingly have to manage *sponsorship portfolios*, how to build a good portfolio of sponsorships is a topic that remains largely uninvestigated in the literature. This article examines one important aspect of sponsorship portfolio building, that is, the process of adding a new partnership in the context of an existing portfolio. The sponsorship portfolio variance resulting from a new partnership is defined according to two dimensions that affect consumers' evaluation of the sponsor and the sponsees: horizontality (the sponsees' domain of activity) and verticality (the sponsees' brand equity). Two experimental studies reveal that the effects of verticality on brand evaluations are stronger for portfolio entities that are closely linked through a common activity. In addition, these effects are shown to be mediated by the level of perceived portfolio congruence. This research represents the first empirical investigation of sponsorship portfolio variance using a multidimensional approach and offers relevant implications for sponsorship research and practice.

2.1 Introduction

Brands commonly become associated with different events through long-term sponsorship agreements (Mazodier & Rezaee, 2013; Meenaghan, McLoughlin, & McCormack, 2013) as companies rarely engage in sponsorship activities with only one sponsee (e.g., a sporting event). For instance, the *Coca-Cola Company* sponsors around 20% of soccer professional properties (athletes, teams, and tournaments) worldwide (IEG, 2013). Indeed, most companies using sponsorship as a means to communicate with consumers have built sponsorship portfolios, which are defined as “*the collection of brand and/or company sponsorships comprising sequential and/or simultaneous involvement with events, activities and individuals*” (Chien, Cornwell, & Pappu, 2011). Until now however, the literature has, by and large, concentrated mainly on single sponsorship

situations and ignored the increasingly common case where sponsorship agreements are made with several properties (Cornwell, 2008). Because brands often activate their sponsorships through a variety of marketing communications, it is likely that these entities become associated in consumers' minds and that consumers consider what other properties a brand sponsors when exposed to a sponsorship agreement. As such, sponsorship portfolios open up new research avenues to assess spillover effects among sponsors and sponsees.

Research has shown that sponsorship has a positive impact on brand evaluations (e.g., Mazodier & Merunka, 2012; Speed & Thompson, 2000) and, therefore, it is not surprising that many companies contract new sponsorship agreements in order to extend these beneficial effects through the enrichment of brand associations (Groza, Cobbs, & Schaefer, 2012). One can identify two main types of sponsorship portfolio strategy which serve different objectives. First, companies may structure their portfolio around sponsees from the same activity and level of prestige, like the clothing company *Lacoste* which sponsors only strong equity tennis events such as the French Open and the Australian Open. By minimizing the variance of the sponsorship portfolio, this strategy mainly serves to reinforce a specific market positioning. On the other hand, some companies choose to diversify their sponsorship agreements with sponsees from different activities and levels of prestige. An example of this strategy is offered by *Nestlé* which is affiliated with the Tour de France (bicycle race), the Southeast Asian Games (multiple sports), the São Paulo Indy 300 (open wheel race), and the FIVB Women's Club World Championship (volleyball). Through a diversification of the activities and levels of prestige of sponsored entities, companies principally aim at expanding their target markets.

Depending on the type of strategy, a sponsorship portfolio will therefore be characterized by a certain level of variance which could affect the perceived associations among brands (sponsor and sponsees) and eventually create spillover effects. To date, research on sponsorship has not looked at the effects of portfolio variance on consumers' responses (Cornwell, 2008). Although Chien, Cornwell, & Pappu (2011) conducted a first empirical study on sponsorship portfolio variance, their research focused on the sponsor, ignoring possible spillover effects on the sponsees. In addition, while they examined how category

(i.e., sporting events and charitable events) and brand personality-based congruence between two sponsorships impact the sponsor's brand meaning, they did not consider the different dimensions that define the variance of a sponsorship portfolio (i.e., the sponsees' type of activity and equity).

In this research, the effects of portfolio variance on brand evaluations are examined in the context of the addition of a *new entrant* (i.e., an extension) in a sponsorship portfolio. By analogy with product portfolios (Keller, 2003), it is posited that the decision to engage in a sponsorship portfolio extension requires understanding (1) how the new entity might affect portfolio congruence (*portfolio level*), (2) how the evaluation of each brand of the portfolio (sponsor and sponsees) is affected by the extension, depending on the strength of its association with the new entity (*dyadic level*), and (3) how the pre-extension portfolio variance might moderate these effects. Consequently, the present research aims to contribute to further theoretical development around the concept of sponsorship portfolio by offering a conceptualization that outlines the impact of sponsorship portfolio variance at both the portfolio and dyadic levels. Specifically, two dimensions of sponsorship portfolio variance are put forward in a framework applied to a sponsorship context: activity variance (*horizontality*) and equity variance (*verticality*).

This article is organized as follows. First, a review of the brand management literature connects the sponsorship portfolio concept with existing theories and offers opportunities for integrating different dimensions of sponsorship portfolio variance. Then, categorization theory provides the conceptual anchor for the development of research hypotheses. Following this, the results of two experiments with different levels of pre-extension portfolio variance are presented. The results of these experiments show that equity transfers depend on the strength of association between any two entities (sponsor, sponsees, new entrant) as well as the portfolio's perceived congruence. In addition, the results show how verticality impacts brand evaluations and how these effects are moderated by horizontality and mediated by portfolio congruence. The article concludes with managerial and research implications.

2.2 Literature Review

Dimensions of sponsorship portfolio variance

Research in the area of brand management has identified horizontality and verticality as two basic dimensions of a brand's product line (Randall, Ulrich, & Reibstein, 1998) and extensions (Aaker, 1996; Kim, Lavack, & Smith, 2001). Horizontality refers to the variance in the products' category (i.e., same *versus* different category) (Arslan & Altuna, 2010) whereas verticality refers to the variance in quality level, and generally price point (i.e., same *versus* different quality and price) (Kim, Lavack, & Smith, 2001; Randall, Ulrich, & Reibstein, 1998). As an illustration, *Nikon* offers lines of different product categories such as cameras, binoculars, and microscopes (horizontal variance), as well as products of varying quality and price points, from entry-level compact cameras (e.g., Coolpix models) to high-end digital SLR cameras (e.g., Nikon D4S) (vertical variance).

In order to yield a better understanding of how sponsors' strategic decisions to structure and extend their portfolio impact consumers' evaluation, this research develops a conceptualization of a sponsorship portfolio variance. Thus, the horizontality of a sponsorship portfolio corresponds to the variance among the sponsees' activities (e.g., tennis, soccer, hockey) (Meenaghan, 2001) whereas the verticality of a sponsorship portfolio refers to the variance among the sponsees' equity levels. Though product quality has been used to operationalize the verticality of a brand's product line, brand equity seems to be a more appropriate criterion in a sponsorship portfolio context since sponsorship effectiveness is mainly assessed at the brand level (Cornwell, 2008). As it is a summary measure of a set of associations and affective responses to a brand (Cornwell, Roy, & Steinard II, 2001), Keller's (1993) conceptualization of brand equity around two main components, awareness and image, seems particularly fitting in this context. This conceptualization has indeed been applied previously in sponsorship research (e.g., Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006).

As previously discussed, firms' decisions to structure and extend a sponsorship portfolio may follow one of two basic strategies: to reinforce a specific market positioning or to expand their market targeting. Typically, the first strategy entails the design of a *homogeneous portfolio* around a given activity (e.g., the same sport) and level of equity,

such as *Omega* sponsoring several high-profile golf tournaments including the PGA Championship, the Ryder Cup, and the European Masters. With respect to the second strategy, companies choose to have sponsorship agreements with sponsees from different activities and levels of equity in an effort to reach different target markets, thus creating a heterogeneous portfolio, such as *HSBC* sponsoring golf tournaments, various rugby events (e.g., the Sevens World Series and the British & Irish Lions Tour), and two tennis competitions (Wimbledon and the Mexican Open). The variance of the portfolio is accordingly greater in the heterogeneous than in the homogeneous case.

Similarity and congruence

A key motivation for contracting new sponsorship associations is to gain new brand associations and enhance sponsor evaluations (Groza, Cobbs, & Schaefer, 2012). Yet, by introducing variance in the portfolio through the activity and equity level of the new entrant, the extension may negatively impact the strength of associations among the portfolio's entities, and as such reduce congruence and similarity among the sponsees.

In the present framework, the distinction introduced by Pappu and Cornwell (2014) between similarity and congruence is adopted and extended. Research in brand portfolio has shown that the perceived similarity between two brands is positively affected by the extent to which associations, based on usage situation or complementarity, product category, or any other characteristics, are shared by the two entities (Spiggle, Nguyen, & Caravella, 2012). In the context of sponsorship portfolio, this concept corresponds to sponsees similarity, defined as shared features and aligned differences among the sponsees of a sponsorship portfolio. As regards portfolio congruence, it is defined as how much sense and logic the overall portfolio (sponsor and sponsees) makes (Pappu & Cornwell, 2014).

Thus, coming back to the previous examples, the perceived similarity among *Omega*'s sponsees is likely to be higher than that of *HSBC*'s as the former are strongly associated through the same sport activity and equity level (Chien, Cornwell, & Pappu, 2011; Klink & Smith, 2001). Hence, it follows that in general sponsees similarity and portfolio congruence are greater in a homogeneous than in a heterogeneous sponsorship portfolio.

Equity transfer and sponsorship portfolio extension

Sponsorship arrangements lead to strong brand associations (Cornwell et al., 2006) and encourage categorization processes through commonalities and shared nodes in consumers' associative memory network (Cornwell & Humphreys, 2013). Previous research has shown that a sponsor and its sponsee are categorized as part of a same associative set (Carrillat, Harris, & Lafferty, 2010). In the context of a sponsorship portfolio, it seems useful to envision consumers' cognitive structure as a set of interlinked brand nodes (sponsor and sponsees) in an associative memory network. When a new entrant is introduced in the portfolio, a new node is formed and new cognitive linkages are created among the portfolio entities (Chien, Cornwell, & Pappu, 2011). The strength of association between same-activity sponsees is expected to be higher than that of different-activity sponsees because they share strong and direct associative links (Spiggle, Nguyen, & Caravella, 2012).

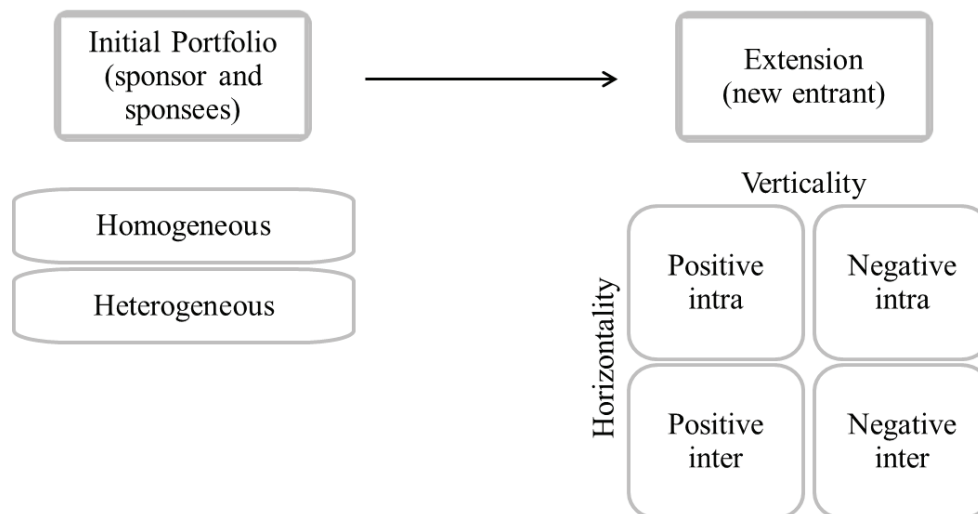
The evaluation of a brand is likely to be affected by the activation of these new associations (Lei, Dawar, & Lemmink, 2008). In the case of a sponsorship portfolio extension, because the new entrant becomes linked with the sponsor and the sponsees (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999), equity should be transferred from the new entrant to the sponsor and the other sponsees (Lei, Dawar, & Lemmink, 2008).

Consumers have more brand knowledge about high-equity brands because these brands are often prominent in their market and they have built greater positive associations in consumers' minds through various marketing communications (Johar and Pham, 1999). As a result, Roy and Cornwell (2003) have highlighted that high-equity brands are perceived as more likely to conclude a sponsorship association, which leads to greater affect transfers than with lower equity brands. Heath, DelVecchio, & McCarthy (2011) have shown that in the case of a product line extension, the introduction of a higher quality product has a greater positive impact on brand evaluation than the negative impact created by the introduction of a lower quality product. Thus, whereas a higher-quality extension should improve the perception of these capabilities (and positively affect brand evaluation), a lower-quality extension would leave this signal intact (and have less impact

on brand evaluation). In order to take this asymmetric effect into account, it seems appropriate to see the verticality of a sponsorship portfolio extension as being *positive* whenever the new entrant's equity is higher than that of the portfolio's highest-equity sponsee, and *negative* when it is lower (Arslan & Altuna, 2010). As regards the new entrant's horizontality, its activity may be similar (*intra-activity*) or different (*inter-activity*) than that of the portfolio's sponsees.

Accordingly, corporate sponsors may extend their portfolio by introducing a new entrant across a range of four types of extension (Figure 1): *positive intra-activity* (same activity, higher equity), *negative intra-activity* (same activity, lower equity), *positive inter-activity* (different activity, higher equity), and *negative inter-activity* (different activities, lower equity). For instance, *Canon*, an official sponsor of the UEFA Cup and the UEFA Super Cup, has contracted partnerships with the FIFA World Cup (positive intra-activity), the Russian Premier Football League (negative intra-activity), the Rugby World Cup (positive inter-activity), and the Canon Pro Golf Series (negative inter-activity).

FIGURE 2.1
Pre-Extension Variance and Four Types of a Sponsorship Portfolio Extension



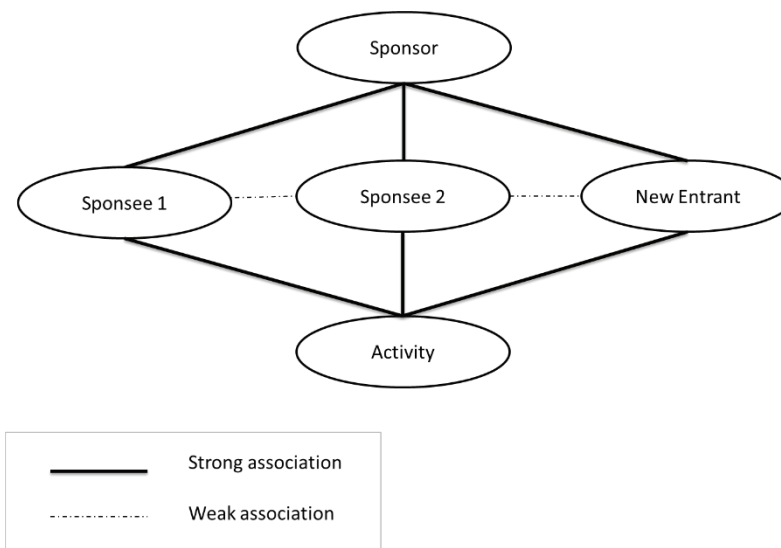
Based on the preceding discussion, it is predicted that the introduction of a new entrant in a sponsorship portfolio will result in spillover effects on consumers' attitude toward the sponsor and the sponsees. However, these effects should depend on 1) the level of perceived portfolio congruence (portfolio level), 2) the strength of association between

entities (dyadic level), and 3) the level of variance of the pre-extension portfolio (Groza, Cobbs, & Schaefer, 2012; Roehm & Tybout, 2006). Hence, in this research, sponsorship portfolio pre-extension variance is manipulated in two experiments: (1) low variance portfolios, which include initial sponsees from the same activities and equity level (homogeneous portfolios) (Study 1), and (2) high variance portfolios, which include sponsees of different activities and equity levels (heterogeneous portfolios) (Study 2). This allows the assessment of the effects of an extension on entities with different degrees of association with the new entrant and that are part of portfolios of different variance levels.

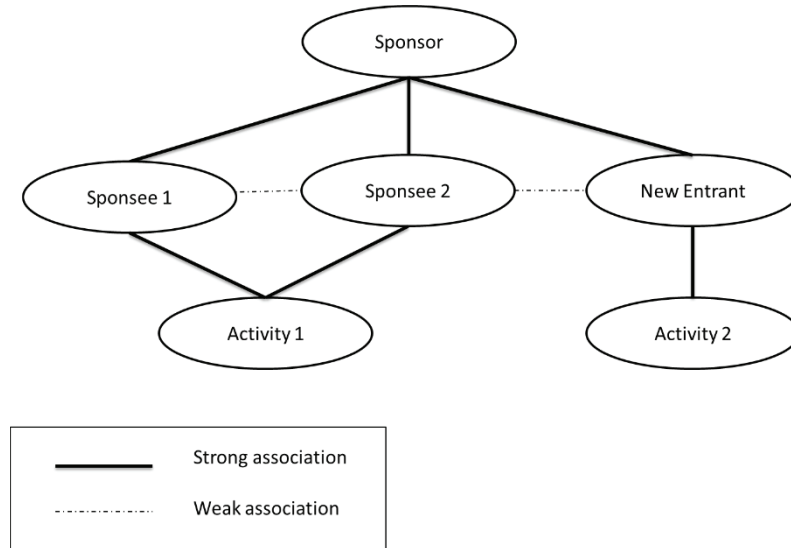
2.3 Study 1

Study 1 explores the effects of extending a homogeneous sponsorship portfolio. In this situation, because they are linked to a same activity and a same sponsor, the initial portfolio entities are closely associated and consistent (Figure 2). The new entrant is therefore likely to introduce variance in an overall congruent portfolio.

FIGURE 2.2
a) A Two-Sponsee Homogeneous Portfolio with an Intra-Activity Extension



b) A Two-Sponsee Homogeneous Portfolio with an Inter-Activity Extension



As regards the evaluation of the sponsor, in the case of an inter-activity extension, because the new entrant is the only sponsored entity of a dissimilar activity, this difference is likely to be highly noticeable (Sood & Drèze, 2006). Consumers should therefore differentiate the new entrant from the other sponsees and process that information at the sponsor-new entrant dyadic level. In contrast, when the extension is intra-activity, the new entrant is associated with the same activity as the other sponsees, leading to stronger associative links with the current sponsees. Consequently, in this situation consumers should process information at the portfolio level, as the strong associations of the new entrant with both the sponsor and the sponsees should facilitate equity transfers. Accordingly, while spillover effects are expected to be facilitated by the strong linkage between the sponsor and the new entrant, they should be stronger in an intra-activity extension than in an inter-activity extension. As such, it is expected that the differential (and more favorable) effects of a positive (as opposed to a negative) extension on sponsor evaluation be stronger in the case of an intra-activity extension than in the case of an inter-activity extension. This provides the rationale for the first research hypothesis.

H₁: A positive extension of a homogeneous sponsorship portfolio results in a more favorable attitude toward the sponsor than a negative extension and this difference is

stronger in the case of an intra-activity extension than in the case of an inter-activity extension.

As regards the evaluation of sponsees, in the context of a positive intra-activity extension, the new entrant is strongly associated with the other sponsees through the sharing of the nodes “same activity” and “sponsor” (Figure 2). These links should facilitate equity transfers from the new entrant to the sponsees. However, in the case of a positive inter-activity extension, the new entrant and the sponsees are only associated through the sharing of the node “sponsor”. This should hinder categorization at the portfolio level but favor information processing at the dyadic sponsor-sponsee level, and therefore prevent equity transfers from the new entrant to the sponsees (Lei, Dawar, & Lemmink, 2008). Thus,

H_{2a}: A positive intra-activity extension of a homogeneous sponsorship portfolio results in a more favorable attitude toward the sponsees than a negative intra-activity extension.

H_{2b}: There is no difference between the effect of a positive and a negative inter-activity extension of a homogeneous portfolio on attitude toward the sponsees.

In line with the preceding discussion, it is predicted that the magnitude of the equity transfers are moderated by the strength of association between two entities (dyadic level). In addition, it is expected that these transfers are enabled by the high level of congruence of a homogeneous portfolio (portfolio level).

The variance introduced by an extension should impact the perceived degree of portfolio congruence (Chien, Cornwell, & Pappu, 2011). Previous research has shown that consumers can easily evaluate the level of sponsor-sponsee congruence in the context of high-equity brands, because they have more knowledge about these brands, whereas congruence perceptions remain uncertain in the case of low-equity brands. Consumers’ favorability toward high-equity brands resulting from greater positive associations (Speed & Thompson, 2000) increases the perceived likelihood of high-equity brands contracting sponsorship agreements. Consumers generally consider high-equity brands as being more viable in a sponsorship association than low-equity brands (Pham & Johar, 1999). As

such, because of a higher likelihood of participating in a sponsorship, high-equity brands are generally perceived as forming more congruent matches in a sponsorship agreement than low-equity brands (Roy & Cornwell, 2003; 2004). Therefore, a positive extension should result in higher portfolio congruence than a negative extension. Congruence is in turn likely to positively impact brand evaluations because it facilitates categorization and, as such, the transfer of affect from the new entrant (Völckner & Sattler, 2006). Thus,

H₃: In a homogeneous sponsorship portfolio, the effects of the extension's verticality on attitude toward a) the sponsor and b) the sponsees is mediated by portfolio congruence.

Method

Sample and design

The research hypotheses were tested using a 2 (verticality: positive *versus* negative) $\times$ 2 (horizontality: intra-activity *versus* inter-activity) completely randomized factorial experimental design. Additionally, a no extension condition served as a control group to check the effectiveness of the manipulations. The extension of a sponsorship portfolio including two sport events as sponsees was used as the managerial context to test the research hypotheses.

The data were collected by means of a self-administered questionnaire delivered at the participants' home in a large North-American city. Interviewers knocked on the door of every two dwellings in randomly selected streets. Questionnaires were left with individuals having accepted to participate and picked up once filled in. From a total of 1104 homes visited, 534 contacts were made (contact rate = 48.4%), 260 individuals accepted to participate (acceptance rate = 48.7%), 242 questionnaires were picked up, and 237 were usable (final response rate = 44.4%).

The participants were aged from 18 to 79 years (mean age = 35 years); 48% were female. About 20% of the participants indicated an annual household income of less than 20,000 CAD and 41% of more than 50,000 CAD. Overall, the gender and income sample distributions were similar to those of the population census data for the city.

Pretest

A pretest was conducted to select appropriate brands and stimuli. Real-world brands were used as it was necessary that respondents have an appreciation of sponsees' equity so it could potentially impact other brands (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999). In selecting possible sponsees, it was important that the initial overall portfolio equity be at a middle point in order to avoid floor or ceiling effects (Heath, DelVecchio, & McCarthy, 2011).

A convenience sample of 30 adult consumers participated in the pretest. In order to find two sponsees from the same category (homogeneous portfolio) with a brand equity similar to that of their sponsor, five scenarios of different sponsor-sponsees-new entrant combinations were tested as regards the portfolio consistency ("this portfolio is consistent", *totally disagree/totally agree*), the sponsees' activity similarity ("this portfolio contains events of similar sport activities", *totally disagree/totally agree*), the sponsees' equity similarity ("this portfolio contains events of similar prestige", *totally disagree/totally agree*), brand equity evaluation (*not/very prestigious, bad/good, I don't like/I like*), and brand familiarity (*familiar/not familiar*) (Keller, 1993). All measures were associated with seven-point numerical scales. A single factor explained 79% of the brand equity scale, and internal consistency was satisfactory (α : .82).

The *Champion* brand and the Fed Cup event were confirmed as having a similar medium equity ($M_{\text{Champion}} = 4.21$ versus $M_{\text{FedCup}} = 3.74$, $\Delta = .47$, $t(29) = 1.38$, $p > .05$). The difference of equity between *Champion* and the Davis Cup was marginally significant ($M_{\text{Champion}} = 4.21$ versus $M_{\text{DavisCup}} = 4.78$, $\Delta = .57$, $t(29) = -1.97$, $p = .057$). Similarly, the brand equity of the Davis Cup was more positive than that of the Fed Cup ($M_{\text{DavisCup}} = 4.78$ versus $M_{\text{FedCup}} = 3.74$, $\Delta = -1.04$, $t(29) = 5.17$, $p < .001$), but the pairing Fed Cup-Davis Cup remained appropriate for reducing ceiling effects (Heath, DelVecchio, & McCarthy, 2011) and contrasting higher and lower-equity new entrants. Among the combinations tested for the new entrant, Wimbledon and the Stanley Cup were identified as two similarly high-equity and high-familiarity events (equity: $M_{\text{Wimbledon}} = 5.80$ versus $M_{\text{StanleyCup}} = 5.38$, $\Delta = .42$, $t(29) = 1.23$, $p > .05$; familiarity: $M_{\text{Wimbledon}} = 5.96$ versus $M_{\text{StanleyCup}} = 5.62$, $\Delta = .34$, $t(29) = .76$, $p > .05$), whereas the Winston-Salem Open and the

Continental Cup of Hockey were identified as two similarly low-equity and low-familiarity events (equity: $M_{\text{Winston-Salem}} = 2.47$ versus $M_{\text{Continental}} = 2.65$, $\Delta = -.18$, $t(29) = -.66$, $p > .05$; familiarity: $M_{\text{Winston-Salem}} = 2.31$ versus $M_{\text{Continental}} = 3.20$, $\Delta = -1.11$, $t(29) = -1.71$, $p > .05$). In addition, the brand equity of high-equity events was higher than the brand equity of the Davis Cup ($M_{\text{DavisCup}} = 4.78$ versus $M_{\text{Wimbledon}} = 5.80$, $\Delta = 1.02$, $t(29) = -3.13$, $p < .01$; $M_{\text{DavisCup}} = 4.78$ versus $M_{\text{StanleyCup}} = 5.38$, $\Delta = .60$, $t(29) = -1.73$, $p < .05$), while the brand equity of low-equity events was lower than the brand equity of the Fed Cup ($M_{\text{FedCup}} = 3.74$ versus $M_{\text{Winston-Salem}} = 2.47$, $\Delta = 1.27$, $t(29) = 5.16$, $p < .001$; $M_{\text{FedCup}} = 3.74$ versus $M_{\text{ContinentalCup}} = 2.65$, $\Delta = 1.09$, $t(29) = 4.05$, $p < .001$).

As expected, portfolios with an intra-activity extension were perceived as including events of greater similarity as regards the sport activity than portfolios with an inter-activity extension ($M_{\text{Intra}} = 6.68$ versus $M_{\text{Inter}} = 1.95$, $\Delta = 4.73$, $t(29) = 18.59$, $p < .001$). Similarly, portfolio consistency was significantly higher in the case of an intra-activity extension than in an inter-activity extension ($M_{\text{Intra}} = 6.06$ versus $M_{\text{Inter}} = 3.51$, $\Delta = 2.55$, $t(29) = 8.85$, $p < .001$). Also, portfolio equity was not significantly different across horizontality conditions for both negative ($M_{\text{Intra}} = 2.16$ versus $M_{\text{Inter}} = 1.90$, $\Delta = .26$, $t(29) = .91$, $p > .05$) and positive extensions ($M_{\text{Intra}} = 4.36$ versus $M_{\text{Inter}} = 3.96$, $\Delta = .4$, $t(29) = 1.58$, $p > .05$). These different results led to the choice of *Champion*, an American sportswear company, as the sponsor, the Davis Cup, an international team competition in men's tennis, and the Fed Cup, its equivalent in women's tennis, as the sponsees forming the pre-extension portfolio. The new entrants selected were, in tennis, the Winston-Salem Open (negative intra-activity) and Wimbledon (positive intra-activity) as well as in ice hockey, the Continental Cup (negative inter-activity), and the Stanley Cup (positive inter-activity).

Experimental procedure and measures

The participants were asked to read two fictitious press releases: the first presented a sponsorship agreement renewal involving *Champion* and two tennis tournaments, the Davis Cup and the Fed Cup. These events were presented as being the male and female versions of the same competition and therefore of similar prestige. The second press

release announced the introduction of the new entrant in this sponsorship portfolio. In order to vary its verticality and horizontality, this new entrant was presented as being of higher or lower prestige than the Davis Cup and the Fed Cup, in the context of an identical (intra) or different (inter) sport activity (i.e., intra-positive: Wimbledon; inter-positive: the Stanley Cup; intra-negative: Winston-Salem; inter-negative: the Continental Cup). Whereas consumers often develop explicit preferences consistent with what was learned after a single exposure (Ranganath & Nosek, 2008), the use of two sequentially presented press releases was made to increase the likelihood of associationistic learning in a realistic context.

After reading the two excerpts, each participant answered several questions with the help of bipolar seven-point numerical scales. First, attitude toward the sponsor was measured with items based on Desai & Keller (2002): *of bad/good quality, that I dislike/like, and which is unappealing/appealing*. Then, three items based on Becker-Olsen & Hill (2006) were used to measure the evaluation of the sponsees: *negative/positive, unfavorable/favorable, bad/good*. Since brand equity is judged from comparisons among brands (Chen, 2001), the new entrant's perceived equity was assessed by measuring its prestige in absolute and relative terms (three items: *not at all/very prestigious, less/more prestigious than the Fed Cup, less/more prestigious than the Davis Cup*) and, following Keller (1993), with a one-item measure of familiarity (*familiar/not familiar*). The portfolio's congruence was conceived as a global perception which was measured using three items from Bouten, Snelders, & Hultink (2011): "The three events sponsored by *Champion* are consistent", "It makes sense that *Champion* sponsors these three events", and "The three events sponsored by *Champion* fit with each other" (*totally disagree/totally agree*). The questionnaire ended with socio-demographic questions.

Results

Manipulation checks

A single factor explained a large proportion of the total variance of the items purported to measure brand attitude. In addition, internal consistency was satisfactory: *Champion*: explained variance: 74% (α : .887); Fed Cup: 77% (α : .855); Davis Cup: 78% (α : .863);

new entrant: 85% (α : .912). This was also the case for the perceived congruence of the portfolio (78%, α : .865), and the new entrant's equity (87%, α : .932).

The overall perceived congruence of the portfolio was significantly higher in the control group than in the experimental conditions ($M_{\text{CongControl}} = 5.44$ *versus* $M_{\text{CongExtended}} = 4.67$, $\Delta = .77$, $t(235) = 3.22$, $p < .01$). The high level of congruence among the initial sponsees confirms the homogeneity of the initial portfolio, and the observed differences with post-extension portfolios corroborate that the extension introduced variance in the portfolio.

Additional analyses also indicated that the horizontality and verticality manipulations were effective. An ANOVA using the perceived similarity of sponsees' sport activity as dependent variable and horizontality, verticality, and their 2-way interaction as independent variables resulted in a statistically significant main effect of horizontality ($F(1, 187) = 148.81$, $p < .001$; $M_{\text{inter}} = 3.06$ *versus* $M_{\text{intra}} = 5.84$). The interaction was not statistically significant ($F(1, 187) = 1.40$, $p > .05$). Additional ANOVAs were conducted to check the effectiveness of the manipulation of the sponsees' prestige and familiarity. These analyses confirmed that the prestige of same-sport events with a different level of equity significantly differed in the expected direction (intra-activity: $M_{\text{Neg}} = 3.81$ *versus* $M_{\text{Pos}} = 5.65$, $\Delta = -1.84$, $t(44) = -7.66$, $p < .001$; inter-activity: $M_{\text{Neg}} = 3.90$ *versus* $M_{\text{Pos}} = 5.67$, $\Delta = -1.77$, $t(44) = -7.47$, $p < .001$), but that it was not different among different-sport sponsees with the same level of equity (negative: $M_{\text{Intra}} = 3.81$ *versus* $M_{\text{Inter}} = 3.90$, $\Delta = .09$, $t(44) = -.39$, $p = .49$; positive: $M_{\text{Intra}} = 5.65$ *versus* $M_{\text{Inter}} = 5.67$, $\Delta = .02$, $t(44) = -.05$, $p = .95$). Also, the familiarity of same-sport sponsees with a different level of equity was significantly different (intra-activity: $M_{\text{Neg}} = 2.97$ *versus* $M_{\text{Pos}} = 5.86$, $\Delta = -2.89$, $t(44) = -8.44$, $p < .001$; inter-activity: $M_{\text{Neg}} = 3.15$ *versus* $M_{\text{Pos}} = 5.76$, $\Delta = -2.61$, $t(44) = -7.64$, $p < .001$), but did not differ among different-sport sponsees with the same level of equity (negative: $M_{\text{Intra}} = 2.97$ *versus* $M_{\text{Inter}} = 3.15$, $\Delta = -.18$, $t(44) = -.59$, $p = .76$; positive: $M_{\text{Intra}} = 5.86$ *versus* $M_{\text{Inter}} = 5.76$, $\Delta = .10$, $t(44) = -.30$, $p = .55$). These results show that, as expected, the level of equity differed among different-equity sponsees while being similar for same-equity sponsees regardless of the sport activity.

Test of the research hypotheses

In order to test the research hypotheses, the dependent variables (attitude toward the sponsor, attitude toward the Fed Cup, and attitude toward the Davis Cup) were entered in a two-factor (horizontality and verticality) MANOVA. The interaction was statistically significant (Wilk's $\lambda = .92$, $F(3,185) = 4.91$, $p < .01$). Univariate ANOVAs were therefore conducted and revealed a statistically significant interaction as regards attitude toward the sponsor ($F(1, 187) = 9.19$, $p < .005$) and attitude toward the Davis Cup ($F(1, 187) = 6.68$, $p < .01$). The interaction was marginally significant in the case of attitude toward the Fed Cup ($F(1, 187) = 1.92$, $p = .082$). The results of these analyses are consistent with the hypotheses and displayed in Table 1.

TABLE 2.1

Study 1: MANOVA Results

<i>Source of variation</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Wilks' λ</i>	<i>F</i>
Intercept	3	.034	1767.09***
Horizontality (A)	3	.999	0.05
Verticality (B)	3	.754	20.07***
A $\times$ B	3	.926	4.91**
Error	185		

Note: *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$

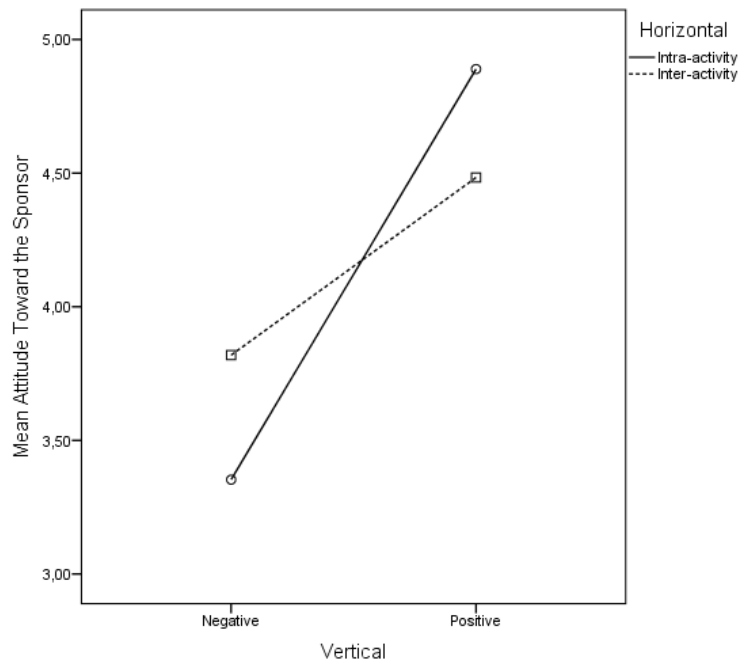
Univariate Effects of Horizontality and Verticality

		Test of H1 <i>Dependent variable:</i> <i>Attitude toward the</i> <i>sponsor</i>		Test of H2a and H2b <i>Dependent variable:</i> <i>Attitude toward Davis</i> <i>Cup</i>		Test of H2a and H2b <i>Dependent variable:</i> <i>Attitude toward Fed</i> <i>Cup</i>	
<i>Source of variation</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean squares</i>	<i>F statistic</i>	<i>Mean squares</i>	<i>F statistic</i>	<i>Mean squares</i>	<i>F statistic</i>
Intercept	1	3259.54	3312.47***	4548.31	2825.41***	3900.39	2780.72***
Horizontality (A)	1	0.04	0.04	0.23	0.14	0.12	0.08
Verticality (B)	1	57.66	58.60***	12.01	7.46**	14.83	10.57**
A $\times$ B	1	9.04	9.19**	10.75	6.68**	2.69	1.92 ^x
Error	187	0.984		1.61		1.40	

Note: *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; ^x $p < .1$

Attitude toward the sponsor: As predicted by H1, sponsor evaluation was more favorable in positive than in negative extension conditions, and this difference was more important in the intra-activity ($M_{\text{IntraPos}} = 4.88$ versus $M_{\text{IntraNeg}} = 3.35$, $\Delta = 1.53$, $t(96) = -7.58$, $p < .001$) than in the inter-activity extension case ($M_{\text{InterPos}} = 4.48$ versus $M_{\text{InterNeg}} = 3.81$, $\Delta = .613$, $t(91) = -3.26$, $p < .01$) (Figure 3). This confirms that horizontality moderates the spillover effects of the new entrant on sponsor evaluation. This is in line with the proposition that the strength of associative links within the portfolio has an impact on brand evaluation.

FIGURE 2.3
Horizontality $\times$ Verticality Interaction (Attitude Toward the Sponsor)



Attitude toward the sponsees: Consistent with H2a, a positive intra-activity extension of a sponsorship portfolio resulted in a more favorable attitude toward the sponsees than a negative intra-activity extension (Fed Cup: $M_{\text{IntraPos}} = 4.89$ versus $M_{\text{IntraNeg}} = 4.01$, $\Delta = .88$, $t(96) = 3.58$, $p < .001$; Davis Cup: $M_{\text{IntraPos}} = 5.33$ versus $M_{\text{IntraNeg}} = 4.36$, $\Delta = .97$, $t(96) = 3.92$, $p < .001$). In addition, the evaluation of sponsees was not significantly different between a negative and a positive inter-activity extension (Fed Cup: $M_{\text{InterPos}} = 4.71$ versus $M_{\text{InterNeg}} = 4.39$, $\Delta = -.32$, $t(91) = 1.22$, $p = .22$; Davis Cup: $M_{\text{InterPos}} = 4.93$ versus $M_{\text{InterNeg}} = 4.90$, $\Delta = .03$, $t(91) = .10$, $p = .92$). This is consistent with H2b according to which

equity transfers only occur when the new entrant is strongly linked with the other sponsees.

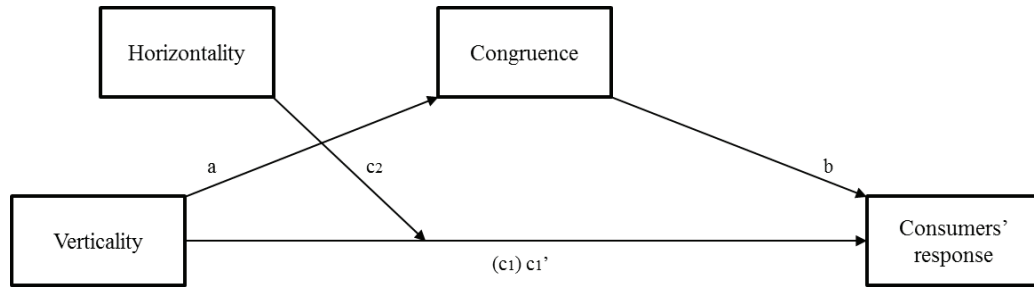
Mediational effects of portfolio congruence: To confirm the predictions that portfolio congruence mediates the effects of an extension's verticality on brand evaluations (H3), mediation and moderation models were estimated following the protocols of Hayes (2013). Specifically, PROCESS Model 5 was used, based on a bias-corrected bootstrapping with 5000 resamples to generate 95% confidence intervals around estimates of the indirect effects (Figure 4). Intra-activity and inter-activity extensions were coded '0' and '1', respectively, whereas a negative extension was coded '0' and a positive extension '1'. The results confirmed a statistically significant moderation effect of horizontality on the relationship between verticality and attitude toward the sponsor ($\beta = -.770, t = -2.945, p < .01$). This was also the case for attitude toward one sponsee (Davis Cup: $\beta = -.898, t = -2.468, p < .05$, Fed Cup: $\beta = -.413, t = -1.228, p > .05$). Importantly, in line with H3a and H3b, the results revealed a mediation effect of portfolio congruence on the relationship between verticality and the evaluation of the sponsor ($\beta = .161$ with a 95% confidence interval between .039 and .314), as well as that of the sponsees (Davis Cup: $\beta = .082, CI = [.011;.222]$; Fed Cup: $\beta = .100; CI = [.019;.246]$). These results are reported in Table 2.

TABLE 2.2
Direct, Indirect, and Conditional Effects of Verticality on Consumer's Response

	Model 1: X: Verticality Mediator: Congruence Moderator: Horizontality Y: Attitude Toward the Sponsor			Model 2: X: Verticality Mediator: Congruence Moderator: Horizontality Y: Attitude Toward the Davis Cup			Model 3: X: Verticality Mediator: Congruence Moderator: Horizontality Y: Attitude Toward the Fed Cup		
<i>Path estimates</i>									
	Coeff.	SE	<i>t</i>	Coeff.	SE	<i>t</i>	Coeff.	SE	<i>t</i>
a	0.5271	.2144	2.4580**	0.5271	.2144	2.4580**	0.5271	.2144	2.4580**
b	0.3064	.0479	6.3934***	0.1569	.0667	2.3521*	0.1900	.0616	3.0818**
c1	2.1079	.4123	5.1123***	1.7743	.5740	3.0913**	1.0860	.5303	2.0478*
c2	1.5288	.4167	3.6684***	1.5939	.5801	2.7475**	0.8831	.5360	1.6476
c1 x c2	-0.7703	.2615	-2.9459**	-0.8985	.3640	-2.4686*	-0.4131	.3363	-1.2283
<i>Indirect effects</i>									
	Effect	Lower	Upper	Effect	Lower	Upper	Effect	Lower	Upper
c1'	0.1615	0.039	0.3149	0.0827	0.0118	0.2224	0.1001	0.0198	0.2466
3									
<i>Conditional effects of c1 at values of the moderator</i>									
	Coeff.	SE	<i>t</i>	Coeff.	SE	<i>t</i>	Coeff.	SE	<i>t</i>
intra	1.3376	.1849	7.2335***	0.8757	.2574	3.4021***	0.6729	.2378	2.8292**
inter	0.5673	.1874	3.0273**	-0.0228	.2609	-0.0874**	0.2598	.2410	1.0778

Note: *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; * $p < .05$; indirect effects are significant with a 95% confidence interval

FIGURE 2.4
Moderation of Horizontality and Mediation of Congruence in the Relationship
between Verticality and Consumers' Response



Additional analyses: In order to assess the different impact of the extension's verticality and horizontality on portfolio congruence, additional analyses were conducted. An ANOVA using the perceived congruence of the post-extension portfolio as dependent variable and horizontality, verticality, and their 2-way interaction as independent variables resulted in statistically significant main effects of horizontality ($F(1, 187) = 31.66, p < .001$) and verticality ($F(1, 187) = 5.87, p < .05$) and a non-significant interaction ($F(1, 187) = 0.69, p = .40$). The post-extension portfolio was perceived as being less congruent in the case of an inter-activity extension ($M_{\text{Inter}} = 4.08$ versus $M_{\text{Intra}} = 5.22, \Delta = -1.14, t(189) = -5.67, p < .001$), and less congruent in the case of a negative extension ($M_{\text{Neg}} = 4.40$ versus $M_{\text{Pos}} = 4.92, \Delta = -0.52, t(189) = -2.45, p < .05$). This is in line with the proposition that high-equity sponsees are seen as more congruent matches than low-equity brands. These findings also indicate that congruence was positively impacted by a stronger association among same-activity sponsees.

In the same way, additional analyses testing the mediation effects of portfolio congruence using PROCESS Model 4 (Hayes, 2013), based on bias-corrected bootstrapping with 5000 resamples, yielded a statistically significant indirect effect of horizontality on attitude toward the sponsor ($\beta = -.429$; $CI = [-.648; -.253]$), and attitude toward the sponsees (Davis Cup: $\beta = -.221$; $CI = [-.437; -.075]$; Fed Cup: $\beta = -.256$; $CI = [-.477; -.104]$). This is in line with the conceptualization of portfolio variance according to which

portfolio congruence mediates the impact of an extension across its two dimensions (horizontality and verticality).

Discussion

The results from Study 1 provide support for the proposition that the magnitude of equity transfers to a sponsor and its sponsees from a new entrant in a sponsorship portfolio depends on the strength of association between the brands (dyadic level), and is mediated by the portfolio's congruence (portfolio level). Specifically, they show that in a homogeneous sponsorship portfolio, if the sponsor and a sponsee are strongly associated with the new entrant (i.e., intra-activity), spillover effects either harm (in the case of a negative extension) or enhance (for a positive extension) the evaluation of the sponsoring brand. In contrast, a weak sponsee-new entrant association (i.e., inter-activity) produces smaller (sponsor) or no (sponsees) spillover effects.

Although previous research has considered the transfers of equity from a sponsee to its sponsor (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999), Study 1 extends prior research in providing evidence of spillover effects among a sponsorship portfolio's entities. The findings support the view that a sponsee's activity (horizontality) and equity (verticality) are important dimensions of sponsorship portfolio variance. The research results also reveal that in a homogeneous portfolio, the introduction of a new sponsee in consumers' memory (i.e., a new node) that is strongly associated with the other entities (intra-activity) increases the magnitude of equity transfers through a mediational effect of perceived portfolio congruence. In addition, they indicate that high-equity sponsees have a favorable impact on congruence, extending results from previous sponsorship studies (Roy & Cornwell, 2003) to a portfolio context.

On the basis of these findings, the impact of the pre-extension portfolio's level of variance on the spillover effects appears to be an important issue. While in Study 1 the variance of the initial portfolio was low, Study 2 addresses the question of the impact of an extension in a heterogeneous portfolio including two sponsees of different sport activities and levels of equity. In contrast with Study 1, a heterogeneous portfolio allows the opportunity to

assess the effects of the extension on sponsees that have different degrees of association with the new entrant and that are part of a high variance portfolio.

2.4 Study 2

The objective of Study 2 is to investigate the impact of extending a sponsorship portfolio that includes sponsees of different activities and equity levels. This sponsorship situation is common as companies often expand their sponsorship portfolio through a large variety of sponsees. For instance, the tool company *Stanley Black & Decker* sponsors world-class sporting entities such as Arsenal FC or FC Barcelona as well as less prestigious entities like the Chinese Basketball Association. The objective of this strategy is fundamentally different from the reinforcing of a market positioning (homogeneous portfolio) as it aims at diversifying market targeting. However, a high level of variance among the pre-extension portfolio's entities is likely to hinder categorization (Lei, Dawar, & Lemmink, 2008). In addition, because of the pre-extension variance among the sponsees' activities, the horizontality of the new entrant should not significantly accentuate or attenuate portfolio congruence and sponsees similarity.

At the dyadic level, the weak association between each sponsee and the new entrant should preclude equity transfers as consumers are unlikely to process these entities together. Hence, spillover effects from the new entrant on current sponsees should not be observed. Yet, the new entrant should be seen as strongly associated with the sponsor through their sponsorship agreement, and this should facilitate spillover effects (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Accordingly, equity transfers are expected to affect sponsor evaluation. Thus,

H4: A positive extension of a heterogeneous sponsorship portfolio results in a more favorable attitude toward the sponsor than a negative extension.

H5: There is no difference between the effects of a positive and a negative extension of a heterogeneous portfolio on attitude toward the sponsees.

In the case of a heterogeneous portfolio, the sponsor is strongly associated to each of the portfolio's entities (sponsees and new entrant) through sponsorship affiliations.

Therefore, consumers are likely to evaluate the sponsor in the context of these associations (Groza, Cobbs, & Schaefer, 2012). Consequently, a positive extension should enhance the perceived congruence of the portfolio (Roy & Cornwell, 2003; 2004), which in turn should facilitate equity transfers from the new entrant to the sponsor. Thus,

H₆: In a heterogeneous sponsorship portfolio, portfolio congruence mediates the relationship between the extension's verticality and attitude toward the sponsor.

Method

Sample and design

The overall design and procedure for Study 2 were similar to those used in Study 1. The data were generated by means of a 2 (verticality) $\times$ 2 (horizontal) completely randomized factorial experimental design. A no extension condition served as a control group. A pretest with a convenience sample of 71 participants led to select the Spengler Cup, an annual hockey tournament, as a sport event that differed from the Davis Cup in terms of activity (hockey *versus* tennis) and whose familiarity and equity levels were lower (familiarity: $M_{\text{Davis}} = 4.06$ *versus* $M_{\text{Spengler}} = 2.23$, $\Delta = 1.83$, $t(70) = 7.50$, $p < .001$; equity: $M_{\text{Davis}} = 7.44$ *versus* $M_{\text{Spengler}} = 4.49$, $\Delta = 2.95$, $t(70) = 5.01$, $p < .001$). Familiarity with the event was measured with one seven-point bipolar item (*not/very familiar*) and equity was measured using one ten-point numerical item (*not/very prestigious*). The initial (heterogeneous) portfolio consisted of the brand *Champion* sponsoring the Davis Cup and the Spengler Cup. New entrants were the same as in Study 1 (Winston-Salem, Wimbledon, the Continental Cup, and the Stanley Cup).

The participants in Study 2 were recruited using the same sampling procedure as in Study 1. From 1224 visits in randomly selected streets in the city, 497 contacts were made (contact rate = 40.5%), 255 individuals accepted to participate (acceptance rate = 51.3%), 241 questionnaires were picked up, from which 232 were usable (final response rate = 46.6%). The participants' age ranged from 18 to 79 (mean of 35 years); 55% were female; 23% had an annual household income of less than 20,000 CAD and 38% of more than 50,000 CAD. Overall, the sample was fairly representative of the city's population.

It was decided for Study 2 to add a measure of common features among entities in order to obtain a differentiation between similarity and congruence. Hence, four items adapted from Pappu & Cornwell (2014) were used: “the sponsees stand for similar things”, “the sponsees have very similar goals”, “the image of the sponsees are very similar”, and “the ideas I associate with each sponsee are very similar to that of the other sponsees” (*totally disagree/totally agree* seven-point scales). All other measures used were the same as those used in Study 1.

Results

Manipulation checks

A single factor explained a large proportion of the total variance of all multi-items scales, and internal consistency was satisfactory for all scales: brand attitude (*Champion*: explained variance: 72%, α : .810; Davis Cup: 76%, α : .837; Spengler Cup: 73%, α : .814; new entrant: 80%, α : .875), portfolio’s congruence (75%, α : .832), and sponsees’ similarity (80%, α : .917).

The observation of significant differences in brand equity and familiarity between the sponsees forming the initial portfolio provided a manipulation check for portfolio heterogeneity ($M_{AttDavis} = 5.04$ versus $M_{AttSpengler} = 3.94$, $\Delta = 1.10$, $t(231) = 11.39$, $p < .001$; $M_{FamDavis} = 4.89$ versus $M_{FamSpengler} = 2.72$, $\Delta = 2.17$, $t(231) = 13.84$, $p < .001$). Analyses of variance confirmed that the extension did not introduce extra dissimilarity among sponsees ($M_{SimilarityControl} = 3.98$ versus $M_{SimilarityExtended} = 4.12$, $\Delta = .14$, $t(230) = -0.522$, $p = .60$) nor extra incongruence ($M_{CongControl} = 4.69$ versus $M_{CongExtended} = 4.43$, $\Delta = .26$, $t(230) = 1.13$, $p = .25$). This is in coherence with a heterogeneous initial portfolio that already includes varied sponsees. An ANOVA using the perceived similarity of sponsees’ activity as dependent variable and horizontality, verticality, and their 2-way interaction as independent variables resulted in a not statistically significant main effect of horizontality ($F(1, 227) = 2.79$, $p = .10$). The interaction was not significant either ($F(1, 227) = .14$, $p = .70$). Using new entrant’s equity as dependent variable, the effect of verticality was marginally significant ($F(1, 227) = 3.25$, $p = .07$) and the horizontality $\times$ verticality interaction was not significant ($F(1, 227) = .01$, $p = .93$). Subsequent analyses confirmed

that a homogeneous portfolio (control group of study 1) was perceived as more congruent than a heterogeneous portfolio (control group of study 2), while both portfolios were as expected somewhat congruent ($M_{\text{CongControl1}} = 5.44$ versus $M_{\text{CongControl2}} = 4.69$, $\Delta = .75$, $t(89) = 2.70$, $p < .01$). It was therefore concluded that the manipulations were successful.

Test of the research hypotheses

Attitude toward the sponsor and the sponsees: In order to test hypotheses 4 and 5, the dependent variables (attitude toward the sponsor, attitude toward the Fed Cup, and attitude toward the Davis Cup) were entered in a two-factor (horizontality and verticality) MANOVA. While the interaction was not statistically significant (Wilk's $\lambda = .96$, $F(3,180) = 2.09$, $p = .10$), a significant main effect of verticality was obtained (Wilk's $\lambda = .90$, $F(3,180) = 6.64$, $p < .001$). The results are displayed in Table 3.

TABLE 2.3**Study 2: MANOVA Results**

<i>Source of variation</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Wilks' λ</i>	<i>F</i>
Intercept	3	.030	1943.38***
Horizontality (A)	3	.995	0.30
Verticality (B)	3	.900	6.64***
A $\times$ B	3	.966	2.09
Error	180		

Note: *** $p < .001$ **Univariate Effects of Horizontality and Verticality**

		Test of H4 <i>Dependent variable:</i> <i>Attitude toward the</i> <i>sponsor</i>		Test of H5 <i>Dependent variable:</i> <i>Attitude toward the</i> <i>Davis Cup</i>		Test of H5 <i>Dependent variable:</i> <i>Attitude toward the</i> <i>Spengler Cup</i>	
<i>Source of variation</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Mean squares</i>	<i>F statistic</i>	<i>Mean squares</i>	<i>F statistic</i>	<i>Mean squares</i>	<i>F statistic</i>
Intercept	1	3492.71	3246.50***	4775.86	3706.47***	2874.22	1644.52***
Horizontality (A)	1	0.05	0.05	0.95	0.73	0.58	0.33
Verticality (B)	1	19.78	18.39***	0.001	0.001	1.10	0.63
A $\times$ B	1	2.18	2.03	2.76	2.14	0.81	0.46
Error	182	1.22		1.28		1.74	

Note: *** $p < .001$

Consistent with H4, univariate tests revealed a statistically significant main effect of verticality on attitude toward the sponsor ($F(1, 182) = 18.39, p < .001$). Sponsor evaluation was more favorable in positive than in negative extension conditions ($M_{Pos} = 4.65$ versus $M_{Neg} = 4.00, \Delta = .65, t(184) = 4.26, p < .001$). No significant effects were found as regards attitude toward the sponsees (Davis Cup: $F(1, 182) = 0.001, p = .98$; Spengler Cup: $F(1, 182) = 0.63, p = .42$). These results therefore support H5.

Mediational effects of portfolio congruence: Subsequent analyses were aimed at determining whether portfolio congruence mediated the relationship between verticality and attitude toward the sponsor (H6). To estimate the indirect effects, PROCESS Model 4 was used based on a bias-corrected bootstrapping with 5000 resamples (Hayes, 2013) (Figure 5; Table 4). For this analysis, a negative extension was coded '0' and a positive extension '1'. Using congruence as a mediator, the indirect effect of verticality on attitude toward the sponsor was statistically significant ($\beta = .154$ with a 95% confidence interval between .061 and .296). Additional analyses revealed that there was no significant mediating effect of sponsees similarity ($\beta = .028, CI = [-.019;.143]$). This confirms that consumers evaluate the sponsor in the context of the portfolio (sponsor and sponsees).

TABLE 2.4

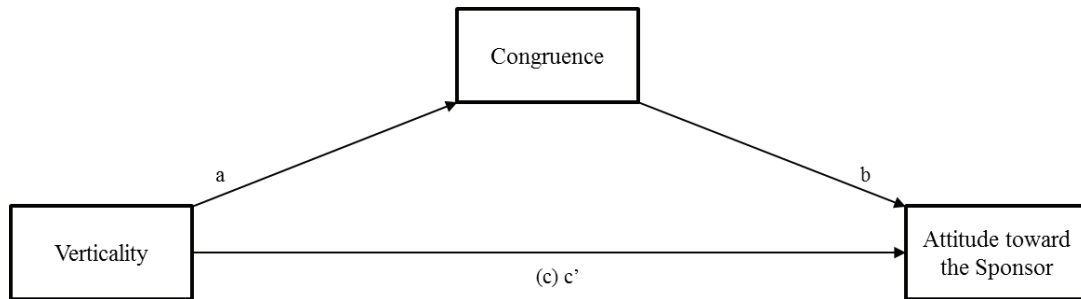
Total Effect, Direct Effect, and Indirect Effect of Verticality and Congruence on Attitude Toward the Sponsor

X: Verticality
Mediator: Congruence
Y: Attitude Toward the Sponsor

<i>Path estimates</i>			
	Coeff.	SE	<i>t</i>
A	0.6556	.2049	3.1993**
B	0.2353	.0521	4.5185***
c1	0.4954	.1487	3.3314***
<i>Indirect effect</i>			
	Effect	Lower	Upper
c1'	0.1542	0.0613	0.2963

Note: *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .01$; indirect effect is significant with a 95% confidence interval

FIGURE 2.5
Mediation of Congruence in the Relationship between Verticality and Attitude
Toward the Sponsor



Additional analyses: A MANOVA using portfolio congruence and sponsees similarity as the dependent variables and horizontality, verticality, and their 2-way interaction as independent variables yielded a statistically significant main effect of verticality (Wilk's $\lambda = .94$, $F(2, 181) = 5.15$, $p < .01$). Univariate analyses showed a significant main effect of verticality on portfolio congruence ($F(1, 185) = 10.31$, $p < .01$) and sponsees similarity ($F(1, 185) = 4.27$, $p < .05$). Consistent with the significant path a (Figure 5) from the indirect effect analysis, no significant main effect of horizontality was found (Wilk's $\lambda = .98$, $F(2, 181) = 1.32$, $p = .27$). The interaction was not significant (Wilk's $\lambda = .99$, $F(2, 181) = .44$, $p = .63$). This is in line with the prediction that in a heterogeneous portfolio, due to the initial variance among the sponsees, the new entrant's horizontality has no significant impact on perceived portfolio congruence and sponsees similarity.

Discussion

The results of Study 2 have two important implications. First, they provide further support that equity transfers among sponsorship portfolio entities depend on the strength of association between the sponsor or a sponsee and the new entrant (dyadic level) and the portfolio's overall variance (portfolio level). This is in line with the theoretical proposition that portfolio congruence, rather than sponsees similarity, mediates the transfers of equity from the new entrant to the sponsor or a sponsee. In a heterogeneous portfolio, the lower overall congruence may preclude these transfers on attitude toward the sponsees. Despite the same level of association and similarity among entities at the dyadic level (e.g., the highest-equity sponsee and the intra-activity new entrant), the higher level of congruence

of a homogeneous portfolio enables equity transfers that are not observed in the case of a low-congruency heterogeneous portfolio.

Second, while Pappu & Cornwell (2014) were the first to delineate a clear boundary between similarity and congruence, the results of Study 2 indicate that a positive extension enhances the perceived congruence of a sponsorship portfolio. Also, these results single out the mediating effect of portfolio congruence on the relationship between the variance of an extension and brand evaluations, hence providing further insights on the different roles of congruence and similarity in the explanation of sponsor evaluations.

2.5 General Discussion

The objectives of this research were to explore how sponsorship portfolio variance affects consumer evaluations, and to posit a two-dimensional conceptualization of portfolio variance with the aim of examining its differential effects on attitude toward the sponsor and the sponsees. Portfolio extension (i.e., the addition of a new sponsee) was used as a context to assess equity transfers among the entities forming the sponsorship portfolio.

Overview of results and theoretical implications

The findings presented in this article make significant contributions to the sponsorship and product portfolio literature. First, two dimensions of sponsorship portfolio variance were put forward: sponsees activity (horizontality) and sponsees equity (verticality). Based on the literature in brand management, this research developed a framework that contrasts the effects of these dimensions, as well as their interaction, on equity transfers among a sponsorship portfolio's entities. Extending previous research in the product portfolio literature (e.g., Lei, Dawar, & Lemmink, 2008), the findings indicate that horizontality and verticality function as differentiated contributors to a sponsorship portfolio's congruence and sponsees similarity, and have different effects on the equity transfers from the new entrant to the sponsor and the sponsees.

Second, beyond exposing the relevance of portfolio horizontality and verticality in sponsorship, the present research is the first to demonstrate that the magnitude of equity transfers within a sponsorship portfolio depends on both the overall portfolio's variance

(portfolio level) and the strength of association between the entities composing this portfolio (dyadic level). The research results have revealed that a low-variance portfolio encourages categorization of its entities (Chien, Cornwell, & Pappu, 2011) while a high-variance portfolio may preclude such categorization. Consequently, in a homogeneous portfolio (Study 1), the evaluation of the sponsor is impacted to a lesser degree in the case of an inter-activity extension (i.e., different sport activity) than when the extension is intra-activity (i.e., similar sport activity). Similarly, while in this research evaluations of the sponsees were more favorable in a positive than in a negative intra-activity extension, no difference was observed in the case of an inter-activity extension. These results imply that although transfers of equity depend on the overall variance of the portfolio, they are moderated by the strength of association at the dyadic level.

In a heterogeneous portfolio (Study 2), while a main effect of verticality on sponsor evaluation was present, no effect of horizontality was found. In addition, no effects of horizontality and verticality on the evaluation of the sponsees were observed. This supports the theoretical prediction that a high level of pre-extension variance prevents consumers from processing the portfolio as a category, and as such hampers equity transfers among the portfolio's entities.

The present research is the first to assess the joint effects of variance in portfolio equity, portfolio congruence, and the strength of association between brands. Although previous research that examined the effects of sponsorship portfolio variance on sponsor evaluation (Chien, Cornwell, & Pappu, 2011) and sponsee evaluation (Groza, Cobbs, & Shaefer, 2012) has investigated the phenomenon of variance at the portfolio level, the moderating impact of dyadic relationships between entities has never been empirically tested. Similarly, in the product portfolio literature, research has focused on the effects of horizontality and verticality (e.g., DelVecchio, 2000), and portfolio congruence (e.g., Arslan & Altuna, 2010; Heath, DelVecchio, & McCarthy, 2011), on consumers' response, but has not taken into account the effects of the variance among a portfolio's entities. In addition, while Chien, Cornwell and Pappu (2011) examined the effect of variance at the category level (ie, sports *versus* arts *versus* causes), analyses at the activity level, where

differences between sports are less salient, lead to conservative results concerning the effects of horizontality on portfolio variance.

Finally, the results of this research highlight the importance of sponsees similarity and portfolio congruence. First, while the beneficial effects of sponsor-sponsee congruence on sponsorship outcomes have been largely documented (e.g., Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006; Weeks, Cornwell, & Drennan, 2008), the present research extends these conclusions in a sponsorship portfolio context. Also, it extends the work of Grime, Diamantopoulos, & Smith (2002) by showing that beyond sponsor-sponsee similarity, consumers' responses to an extension are affected by the overall congruence of the portfolio.

Second, these results extend the work of Pappu & Cornwell (2014) by showing that sponsees similarity and portfolio congruence do not have the same effects on consumers' attitudes. While a mediating effect of portfolio congruence between the level of equity of the new entrant and brand evaluations was found, no such effect was identified for sponsees similarity. This provides empirical support for the proposition that congruence and similarity are conceptually distinct and must be considered separately. Finally, the research results confirm that the variance of a sponsorship portfolio is an important predictor of perceived portfolio congruence. As regards horizontality, although previous research had examined the effects of sponsees' category (as defined by Meenaghan, 1998; e.g., sport, art, and charity) on congruence (Chien, Cornwell, & Pappu, 2011), prior research did not investigate the impact of sponsees' activities (i.e., domain activities within a sport category; e.g., tennis and hockey). The results of this research confirm that in the context of a homogeneous sponsorship portfolio, there is a positive impact of including entities involved in the same activity on perceived congruence.

Implications for practice

The findings of this research that related to the impact of sponsorship portfolio variance on consumer responses should be of interest to sponsorship managers. The two scenarios chosen in this research (homogeneous *versus* heterogeneous portfolios) illustrate the two main strategies followed by corporate brands. Both are based on a deliberate attempt to increase brand visibility and equity (Groza, Cobbs, & Schaefer, 2012).

As companies commonly have sponsorship portfolios, single-sponsor approaches for explaining the benefits of sponsorship do not provide a comprehensive view of this common marketing communication strategy. Hence, research needs to consider the transfer of affect among entities in the context of multiple sponsorship affiliations (Cornwell, 2008).

Firms need to manage the dual tension that arises from the desire to multiply sponsorship deals in order to increase their brand's reach and the need to develop a thought-out portfolio strategy. As the results of this research have shown, managers who intend to structure or extend their sponsorship portfolio with different events should have in mind portfolio horizontality and verticality. Based on the findings of this research, the best strategy to increase positive spillover effects among a portfolio's entities consists in minimizing the portfolio's variance. In other words, the portfolio should be constructed with the objective of securing a certain level of consistency in sponsees' activities since following a homogeneous portfolio strategy increases the congruence of the portfolio, and consequently favors equity transfers. It is worth noting that introducing higher-equity entities in an existing sponsorship portfolio leads to better outcomes than adding lower-equity sponsees. Hence, sponsors with a high-profile and low-variance portfolio should not risk downgrading their strategic position for the sake of targeting a specific market.

While extending one's sponsorship portfolio is commonly used to expand market targeting (heterogeneous portfolio), the research results have revealed that a strategy of diversification may hamper spillover effects among the portfolio entities. Thus, a sponsor with a high-variance portfolio generally faces less risk of negatively impacting its brand equity by introducing a new entrant. Yet, by decreasing the magnitude of spillover effects, a high-variance portfolio strategy risks precluding potential positive associations that may enrich brand evaluations. Sponsorship managers should therefore carefully consider these potential constraining effects.

Also, this research has shown that the brand equity of sport events may be impacted by their indirect association with other sponsees. The results show that in the case of a lower-equity new entrant, a high level of variance (regarding activity) is one strategy that helps

mitigate the risk that arises from transfers of equity. Conversely, being a part of a low-variance sponsorship portfolio including higher-equity sponsees of the same activity may help the event to build its equity. Sponsees that are concerned about such potential detrimental effects may also favor sponsorship portfolio including sponsees from different activities. This may help to prevent equity transfers from other entities of the portfolio.

Limitations and future research directions

Although this research provides relevant insights into the effects of sponsorship portfolio variance on consumer responses, the results must be interpreted in light of limitations as well as possible avenues for future research. First, one factor that may signal a boundary condition for the observed effects relates to sponsor-sponsee congruence. Previous research has identified detrimental effects of incongruence on sponsorship outcomes (e.g., Becker-Olsen & Hill, 2006). Across the two studies, sponsees were congruent with the sponsor. It is likely that a high level of sponsor-sponsees incongruence would interact with the perceived variance of the portfolio and affect consumers' responses. This possibility should be examined in future studies. Second, though similarity and congruence were differentiated in Study 2, based on Pappu & Cornwell (2014), future studies should manipulate sponsees similarity to better articulate the relationship between portfolio congruence and sponsees similarity. Third, the conceptual framework of this research could be also extended through a consideration of roster size, simultaneous extensions, and across-categories extensions. These questions would offer important contributions to extend the results of this research by further investigating the effects of horizontality and verticality on equity transfers in multiple entities and complex environments. Finally, further research should be conducted to explore how articulation impacts the observed effects of portfolio variance. While articulating the link between a sponsor and a sponsee has been shown to increase the relational processing of sponsorship (Cornwell et al., 2006), articulation may also be used to modify the perceived congruence as well as the strength of association among all portfolio entities, including the sponsees.

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Annexes

Annexe 1-1 : Stimuli (condition Congruent Articulation Clutter)

Rendez-vous en juillet 2014
pour un événement
d'exception



Document d'informations

CANADIAN OPEN.

21 – 27 juillet 2014

Montréal
(Québec)

adidas est fier de partager sa passion pour le golf avec l'Open Canadien 2014. Fort de 50 ans d'innovation au service de la performance, **adidas** offre des vêtements et des produits d'équipement pour le golf à la pointe de la technologie.



**CANADIAN
OPEN™**

fièrement soutenu par **adidas**



Commanditaire officiel

CANADIAN OPEN™

fièrement soutenu par

adidas

21 – 27 juillet 2014
Montréal
(Québec)



Martin Kaymer, classé dans le top 5 du tournoi 2013

Golf Canada et Adidas sont fiers d'annoncer que le Club de golf Royal Montréal de l'Île-Bizard (Montréal) au Québec, sera l'hôte de l'Open Canadien 2014, qui aura lieu du 21 au 27 juillet. Le Royal Montréal accueillera l'Open Canadien pour la 10e fois de son histoire.

Fondé en 1904, l'Open Canadien est un tournoi de golf professionnel du PGA Tour et le troisième plus vieux tournoi de golf au monde. Tout au long de son histoire, l'Open Canadien a façonné le visage du golf professionnel au Canada. Plusieurs célébrités du golf ont remporté le championnat, y compris Byron Nelson, Arnold Palmer, Sam Snead, Greg Norman, Nick Price, Tiger Woods, Vijay Singh et Jim Furyk.



Gonzalo Fernandez-Castano, classé dans le top 5 du tournoi 2013

CANADIAN OPEN™

21 au 27 juillet 2014



adidas
félicite
BRANDT SNEDEKER
Champion de l'Open
Canadien 2013

Le mot du champion

« J'ignorais ce qui se passait; je ne regarde pas le tableau des meneurs parce que je n'ai aucun contrôle sur ce que les autres font. Dans l'allée du 18e, j'ai ressenti moins de tension. J'avais l'impression que mon avance était suffisamment confortable pour compléter le travail, » a déclaré Brandt Snedeker, champion du tournoi 2013 (photo de gauche).

À sa 11^e participation à l'Open Canadien, Jim Nelford (photo de droite), a mérité la Coupe Rivermead remise au meilleur Canadien après une dernière ronde de 73 (+1) et une égalité au 44^e rang avec un total de 284, moins 4.



Simon Dyson (à gauche) et Chris Williams (à droite) participaient pour la 1^{ère} fois à l'Open Canadien

CANADIAN OPEN.

21 au 27 juillet 2014



L'Open Canadien accueille chaque année les meilleurs joueurs mondiaux. L'an passé, 7 des 10 premiers joueurs au classement international étaient présents.

Photo de gauche: les deux premiers joueurs mondiaux, Tiger Woods et Rory McIlroy sur le parcours de l'Open Canadien 2013.



Justin Rose, 3^{ème} au classement mondial



Âgé de seulement 24 ans, Rickie Fowler fut le plus jeune joueur de l'Open Canadien 2013



Sergio Garcia, 8^{ème} au classement mondial, a remporté 24 tournois internationaux, dont l'Open Canadien en 2001

CANADIAN OPEN™

21 au 27 juillet 2014



Eduardo Molinari

L'Open Canadien offre une gamme de forfaits privilèges pour être au cœur de l'action. Les forfaits sont en vente à partir du 1er décembre 2013.

Nom du forfait	Billets par jour	Coût par personne
Loge du 18 ^e vert	30	514,67\$
Table au chalet	30	562,50\$
Suite 15 ^e allée	70	150\$



Rory McIlroy

Pour de plus amples renseignements,
contacter:
Dave Kay
Directeur, Développement des affaires
Golf Canada
1 800-263-0009 poste 228
dkay@golfcanada.ca

Annexe 1-2 : Questionnaire (conditions Congruent)

Présentation des documents

L'Open Canadien de golf est un **tournoi de golf professionnel** dont l'édition 2014 se tiendra à Montréal. L'événement regroupe certains des meilleurs joueurs du monde.

Les pages suivantes contiennent un **dépliant d'informations** qui sera distribué avant la tenue de l'événement.

Notre étude a pour objectif d'évaluer la qualité de ce dépliant.

Merci d'en examiner attentivement le contenu avant de répondre aux questions.

STIMULI

Vous devez répondre sans hésitation; il n'y a pas de bonne ou de mauvaise réponse, et votre première impression est celle qui reflète le mieux votre opinion.

SECTION 1

Afin de vérifier que vous avez bien lu le dépliant, merci de cocher le nom des joueurs présents dans le dépliant :

- ☐ Martin Kaymer
- ☐ Justin Rose
- ☐ Mike Weir
- ☐ Gonzalo Fernandez-Castano
- ☐ Rickie Fowler
- ☐ Eduardo Molinari
- ☐ Stephen Ames
- ☐ Brandt Snedeker
- ☐ Rory McIlroy
- ☐ Sergio Garcia
- ☐ Tiger Woods
- ☐ Chris Williams
- ☐ Jim Nelford

Merci d'indiquer votre accord avec les affirmations suivantes (1=pas du tout d'accord; 7=tout à fait d'accord) :

Le dépliant d'informations de l'Open Canadien 2014 est:

de mauvaise qualité	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	de bonne qualité
déplaisant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	plaisant
inintéressant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	intéressant

La publicité en page 2 du dépliant est:

de mauvaise qualité	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	de bonne qualité
déplaisante	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	plaisante
inintéressante	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	intéressante

Écrivez le nom de toutes les marques de sport que vous avez vues dans le dépliant :

Merci de cocher le nom des marques de sport que vous avez vues dans le dépliant :

- ☐ Reebok
- ☐ Wilson
- ☐ Nike
- ☐ Fila
- ☐ Asics
- ☐ Champion
- ☐ Adidas
- ☐ New Balance
- ☐ Umbro
- ☐ Puma
- ☐ Under Armour

En prenant en considération les informations contenues dans le dépliant d'informations, merci d'indiquer votre degré d'accord avec les affirmations suivantes:

Pour chaque question, **encerclez le chiffre** (de 1 à 7, avec 4 = neutre) qui correspond le mieux à votre opinion.

Adidas est une marque:

de mauvaise qualité	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	de bonne qualité
inférieure aux autres	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	supérieure aux autres
que je n'aime pas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	que j'aime

Les produits d'Adidas sont des produits:

	Pas du tout d'accord					Tout à fait d'accord			
de bonne qualité	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
prestigieux	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
désirables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

qui plaisent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
de grande valeur	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

En prenant en considération les informations contenues dans le dépliant d'informations, quelles sont les chances que vous achetiez un produit de marque **Adidas** la prochaine fois que vous achèterez de l'équipement de sport? Encerclez la réponse de votre choix.

0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%

En prenant en considération les informations contenues dans le dépliant d'informations, si vous décidiez d'acheter des équipements de sport, quelles sont les chances que vous achetiez la marque Adidas? Encerclez la réponse de votre choix.

improbable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	probable
impossible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	possible
invraisemblable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	vraisemblable

	Pas du tout d'accord					Tout à fait d'accord	
L'image d'Adidas est cohérente avec celle de l'Open Canadien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Il est logique qu'Adidas commandite cet événement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Adidas et l'Open Canadien vont bien ensemble.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Pas du tout d'accord					Tout à fait d'accord	
Je suis familier avec l'Open Canadien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
L'Open Canadien est un événement prestigieux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
J'aime l'Open Canadien	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Je serais fier d'assister à l'Open Canadien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Les matchs de l'Open Canadien sont de très bonne qualité.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 2

En prenant en considération les informations contenues dans le dépliant d'informations, merci d'indiquer votre degré d'accord avec les affirmations suivantes:

<u>Puma est une marque:</u>								
de mauvaise qualité	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	de bonne qualité
inférieure aux autres	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	supérieure aux autres
que je n'aime pas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	que j'aime
				Pas du tout d'accord				Tout à fait d'accord
L'image de Puma est cohérente avec celle de l'Open Canadien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Il serait logique que Puma commandite cet événement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Puma et l'Open Canadien vont bien ensemble.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

<u>Reebok est une marque:</u>									
de mauvaise qualité	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	de bonne qualité	
inférieure aux autres	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	supérieure aux autres	
que je n'aime pas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	que j'aime	
				Pas du tout d'accord				Tout à fait d'accord	
L'image de Reebok est cohérente avec celle de l'Open Canadien.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Il serait logique que Reebok commandite cet événement.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Reebok et l'Open Canadien vont bien ensemble.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

		<u>Asics est une marque:</u>											
de mauvaise qualité	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		de bonne qualité				
inférieure aux autres	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		supérieure aux autres				
que je n'aime pas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		que j'aime				
				Pas du tout d'accord				Tout à fait d'accord					
L'image d'Asics est cohérente avec celle de l'Open Canadien.							1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Il serait logique qu'Asics commandite cet événement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Asics et l'Open Canadien vont bien ensemble.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Fila est une marque:

de mauvaise qualité	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	de bonne qualité
inférieure aux autres	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	supérieure aux autres
que je n'aime pas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	que j'aime

	Pas du tout d'accord					Tout à fait d'accord	
L'image de Fila est cohérente avec celle de l'Open Canadien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Il serait logique que Fila commandite cet événement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fila et l'Open Canadien vont bien ensemble.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 3

En prenant en considération les informations contenues dans le dépliant d'informations, merci d'indiquer votre degré d'accord avec les affirmations suivantes:

	Pas du tout d'accord					Tout à fait d'accord	
J'aime la commandite entre Adidas et l'Open Canadien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
La commandite entre Adidas et l'Open Canadien est une bonne commandite.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
J'ai un avis positif envers la commandite entre Adidas et l'Open Canadien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Pas du tout d'accord					Tout à fait d'accord	
Les différentes marques présentes pendant l'Open Canadien (sur les affiches, les vêtements, etc.) sont difficiles à distinguer les unes des autres.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Les marques présentes pendant l'Open Canadien prennent trop de place par rapport à celui-ci.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Les marques présentes pendant l'Open Canadien prennent trop de place par rapport à la commandite entre Adidas et l'Open Canadien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Il y a trop de marques présentes pendant l'Open Canadien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Toutes les marques présentes pendant l'Open Canadien ont la même importance pour cet événement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 4

Les questions suivantes nous permettent de mieux connaître votre implication dans le sport. Toutes les informations collectées resteront totalement confidentielles.

1) Pratiquez-vous une ou plusieurs activités sportives?

☐ Non

☐ Oui Si oui, lesquelles?

Indiquez votre degré d'accord avec les affirmations suivantes:

	Pas du tout d'accord					Tout à fait d'accord	
Je regarde régulièrement des tournois de golf.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Je regarde régulièrement les résultats de tournois de golf.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Je me considère comme un fan de golf.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Merci d'indiquer votre degré de familiarité avec les marques suivantes en encerclant le chiffre correspondant:

	Pas du tout familier					Tout à fait familier	
Adidas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Puma	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Reebok	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Asics	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fila	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 5

Les questions suivantes nous permettent de mieux analyser les caractéristiques des personnes qui ont accepté de participer à l'étude. Toutes les informations collectées resteront totalement confidentielles.

1. Vous êtes: ☐ Un homme
☐ Une femme
2. Votre âge : _____
3. Quel est le niveau d'études le plus élevé que vous avez terminé?
☐ Primaire
☐ Secondaire
☐ Professionnel
☐ Collégial
☐ Premier cycle universitaire
☐ Deuxième ou troisième cycle universitaire
4. Votre profession:
☐ Agriculteur exploitant
☐ Artisan, commerçant
☐ Cadre, profession intellectuelle supérieure
☐ Étudiant
☐ Profession intermédiaire
☐ Travailleur autonome
☐ Employé
☐ Ouvrier
☐ Retraité
☐ Sans activité
☐ Autre (précisez : _____)
5. Votre revenu familial annuel approximatif avant impôts:
☐ Moins de 10 000\$
☐ 10 000\$ à 19 999\$
☐ 20 000\$ à 29 999\$
☐ 30 000\$ à 39 999\$
☐ 40 000\$ à 49 999\$
☐ 50 000\$ à 59 999\$
☐ Plus de 60 000\$

Note importante concernant le questionnaire

Nous tenons à vous informer que le dépliant d'informations est fictif, tout comme les commandites de l'événement et des joueurs.

Les scénarios ont été créés dans l'objectif de simuler des situations réelles. Cela nous permet de mieux étudier les réactions des gens dans de telles situations.

Connaissez-vous des commanditaires réels de l'Open Canadien?

a) Non b) Oui, précisez :

Connaissez-vous les commanditaires réels des joueurs en photographie?

a) Non b) Oui, précisez:

Annexe 2-1 : Stimuli (Étude 1, condition Extension Négative Intra-Activité)

Les pages suivantes présentent **deux communiqués de presse** concernant les événements sportifs commandités par la marque Champion. Les deux communiqués de presse ont été publiés dans le journal La Presse, à 3 mois d'intervalle.

Merci d'en **examiner attentivement le contenu** avant de répondre aux questions.

PREMIER COMMUNIQUÉ DE PRESSE



La Presse – Sports, 14 mai 2014

Depuis 9 ans, Champion, marque spécialisée dans les vêtements et le matériel de sport, est le commanditaire officiel de deux importants tournois internationaux de tennis professionnel: la Coupe Davis et la Fed Cup.

Champion vient d'annoncer le renouvellement de son partenariat avec la Coupe Davis et son équivalent féminin, la Fed Cup, en demeurant le commanditaire de ces deux événements pour les 5 prochaines années.

« La Coupe Davis et la Fed Cup ont grandement bénéficié du soutien de Champion, et sont fières de conserver la confiance d'une marque aussi reconnue et aussi engagée » a déclaré Francesco Ricci Bitti, président de la Fédération Internationale de Tennis, qui organise ces deux tournois.

Créée en 1900 et gérée par la Fédération Internationale de Tennis, la Coupe Davis est un tournoi international annuel de tennis masculin qui regroupe plus de 130 nations. Dans

son histoire, la Coupe Davis a accueilli les plus grands joueurs, comme Bill Tilden, John McEnroe, Rafael Nadal, Ivan Lendl, Björn Borg, Pete Sampras, Roger Federer et Andre Agassi.

Équivalent féminin de la Coupe Davis, la Fed Cup a été créée en 1963, a regroupé 97 nations en 2013 et s'est imposée comme un événement sportif féminin majeur. Des joueuses comme Billie-Jean King, Margaret Court, Martina Navratilova, Steffi Graf, Arantxa Sanchez-Vicario, Martina Hingis, Venus et Serena Williams, et Petra Kvitova ont connu la victoire à la Fed Cup.

DEUXIÈME COMMUNIQUÉ DE PRESSE



La Presse – Sports, 2 août 2014

Champion est heureuse d'annoncer qu'elle commanditera l'Open de Winston-Salem dès 2015. L'Open de Winston-Salem est ainsi le troisième événement de tennis commandité par Champion. Il rejoint la Coupe Davis et la Fed Cup, les deux autres tournois de tennis commandités par Champion depuis 2005. Avec ce nouveau partenariat, Champion devient donc le commanditaire officiel de trois tournois de tennis. L'Open de Winston-Salem est moins prestigieux que la Coupe Davis et la Fed Cup. Il est classé ATP 250 Series, et fait partie des US Open Series. Ce tournoi de tennis professionnel a été créé en 2011.

Annexe 2-2 : Questionnaire (Étude 1, condition Extension Négative Intra-Activité)

Vous devez répondre sans hésitation; il n'y a pas de bonne ou de mauvaise réponse, et votre première impression est celle qui reflète le mieux votre opinion. Pour chaque question, encerclez le chiffre (de 1 à 7, avec 4 = neutre) qui correspond le mieux à votre opinion.

SECTION 1

En prenant en considération les informations contenues dans les deux communiqués de presse, merci d'indiquer votre degré d'accord avec les affirmations suivantes:

<u>Champion est une marque:</u>							
de mauvaise qualité	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 de bonne qualité
que je n'aime pas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 que j'aime
qui ne m'attire pas du tout	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 qui m'attire beaucoup
inférieure aux autres	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 supérieure aux autres

<u>Les produits de Champion sont des produits:</u>							
Pas du tout d'accord				Tout à fait d'accord			
de bonne qualité	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
prestigieux	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
de grande valeur	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

En prenant en considération les informations contenues dans les deux communiqués de presse, si vous décidiez d'acheter des vêtements de sport, quelles sont les chances que vous achetiez la marque Champion? Encerclez la réponse de votre choix.

improbable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 probable
impossible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 possible
invraisemblable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 vraisemblable

<u>La Fed Cup est un événement:</u>							
de mauvaise qualité	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 de bonne qualité
que je n'aime pas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 que j'aime

qui ne m'attire pas du tout 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 qui m'attire beaucoup

La Coupe Davis est un événement:

de mauvaise qualité 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 de bonne qualité
 que je n'aime pas 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 que j'aime
 qui ne m'attire pas du tout 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 qui m'attire beaucoup

L'Open de Winston-Salem est un événement:

de mauvaise qualité 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 de bonne qualité
 que je n'aime pas 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 que j'aime
 qui ne m'attire pas du tout 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 qui m'attire beaucoup
 pas du tout 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 tout à fait prestigieux
 prestigieux
 moins prestigieux que la Fed Cup 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 plus prestigieux que la Fed Cup
 moins prestigieux que la Coupe Davis 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 plus prestigieux que la Coupe Davis

	Pas du tout d'accord	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Tout à fait d'accord
J'aime l'idée que Champion soit le commanditaire de la Fed Cup.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
J'aime l'idée que Champion soit le commanditaire de la Coupe Davis.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
J'aime l'idée que Champion soit le commanditaire de l'Open de Winston-Salem.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

SECTION 2

En prenant en considération les informations contenues dans les deux communiqués de presse, merci d'indiquer votre degré d'accord avec les affirmations suivantes:

Pas du tout d'accord	Tout à fait d'accord
-------------------------	-------------------------

Prises comme un ensemble, les commandites de Champion communiquent un message clairement unifié.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Prises comme un ensemble, les commandites de Champion forment une image facile à comprendre.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Prises comme un ensemble, les commandites de Champion forment une image claire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Prises comme un ensemble, les commandites de Champion communiquent un message clairement unifié.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Prises comme un ensemble, les commandites de Champion communiquent clairement l'image de Champion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Les trois événements commandités par Champion sont cohérents entre eux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Il est logique que Champion commande ces trois événements.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Les trois événements commandités de Champion vont bien ensemble.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Les trois événements commandités par Champion (Fed Cup, Coupe Davis, Open de Winston-Salem) sont des événements:

	Pas du tout d'accord					Tout à fait d'accord	
similaires	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
complémentaires	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
semblables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
cohérents	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
qui vont bien ensemble	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
de même prestige	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
qui sont associés à des sports comparables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Les trois événements commandités par Champion (Fed Cup, Coupe Davis, Open de Winston-Salem) forment:

	Pas du tout d'accord					Tout à fait d'accord	
trois entités ayant des identités distinctes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

un groupe resserré ayant une identité unique 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Merci d'indiquer votre degré d'accord avec les affirmations suivantes:

	Pas du tout d'accord					Tout à fait d'accord	
Le choix de commandites de Champion montre que Champion est une marque qui cherche à développer une expertise dans un sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Le choix de commandites de Champion montre que Champion est une marque qui cherche à diversifier ses partenariats.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Le choix de commandites de Champion montre que Champion est une marque qui a une stratégie de commandite claire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Le choix de commandites de Champion montre que Champion est une marque qui a une stratégie de commandite cohérente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Le choix de commandites de Champion montre que Champion s'intéresse principalement à maximiser ses profits. de même prestige	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Le choix de commandites de Champion montre que son image de marque est importante pour Champion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Le choix de commandites de Champion montre que Champion cherche avant tout à obtenir des bénéfices.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Merci d'indiquer votre degré de familiarité avec les marques et événements suivants
avant d'avoir lu les communiqués de presse, en encerclant le chiffre correspondant:

	Je ne connaissais pas du tout					Je connaissais très bien	
Champion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fed Cup	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Coupe Davis	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Open de Winston-Salem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 3

Les questions suivantes nous permettent de mieux connaître votre implication dans le sport. Toutes les informations collectées resteront totalement confidentielles.

1) Pratiquez-vous une ou plusieurs activités sportives?

☐ Non

☐ Oui Si oui, lesquelles?

Indiquez votre degré d'accord avec les affirmations suivantes:

	Pas du tout d'accord					Tout à fait d'accord	
Je regarde régulièrement des compétitions de sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Je regarde régulièrement les résultats de tournois de compétitions de sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Je me considère comme un fan de sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Pas du tout d'accord					Tout à fait d'accord	
Je regarde régulièrement des tournois de tennis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Je regarde régulièrement les résultats de tournois de tournois de tennis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Je me considère comme un fan de tennis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Pas du tout d'accord					Tout à fait d'accord	
Je regarde régulièrement des tournois de hockey	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Je regarde régulièrement les résultats de tournois de tournois de hockey.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Je me considère comme un fan de hockey.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Pas du tout d'accord					Tout à fait d'accord	
Je regarde régulièrement les résultats de la Fed Cup.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Je regarde régulièrement les résultats de la Coupe Davis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Je regarde régulièrement les résultats de l'Open de Winston-Salem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION 4

Les questions suivantes nous permettent de mieux analyser les caractéristiques des personnes qui ont accepté de participer à l'étude. Toutes les informations collectées resteront totalement confidentielles.

6. Vous êtes: ☐ Un homme
 ☐ Une femme

7. Votre âge : _____

8. Quel est le niveau d'études le plus élevé que vous avez terminé?
 - ☐ Primaire
 - ☐ Secondaire
 - ☐ Professionnel
 - ☐ Collégial
 - ☐ Premier cycle universitaire
 - ☐ Deuxième ou troisième cycle universitaire

9. Votre profession:
 - ☐ Agriculteur exploitant
 - ☐ Artisan, commerçant
 - ☐ Cadre, profession intellectuelle supérieure
 - ☐ Étudiant
 - ☐ Profession intermédiaire
 - ☐ Travailleur autonome
 - ☐ Employé
 - ☐ Ouvrier
 - ☐ Retraité
 - ☐ Sans activité
 - ☐ Autre (précisez : _____)

10. Votre revenu familial annuel approximatif avant impôts:
 - ☐ Moins de 10 000\$
 - ☐ 10 000\$ à 19 999\$
 - ☐ 20 000\$ à 29 999\$
 - ☐ 30 000\$ à 39 999\$
 - ☐ 40 000\$ à 49 999\$

- ☐ 50 000\$ à 59 999\$
- ☐ Plus de 60 000\$

Note importante concernant le questionnaire

Nous tenons à vous informer que les communiqués de presse sont fictifs, tout comme les commandites de Champion présentées dans ce document.

Les scénarios ont été créés dans l'objectif de simuler des situations réelles. Cela nous permet de mieux étudier les réactions des gens dans de telles situations.

Connaissez-vous des commandites réelles de Champion?

- a) Non b) Oui; lesquelles?