

早稲田大学審査学位論文

博士（スポーツ科学）

The Effect of CSR-linked Sport Sponsorship on Attitude toward the Sponsor

CSRに関連したスポーツスポンサーシップがスポンサーに対する消費者の態度に与える影響

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早稲田大学大学院 スポーツ科学研究科

姜 泰安

KANG, Taeahn

研究指導教員：松岡 宏高 教授

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

Professor Hirotaka Matsuoka, Waseda University, Advisor

Professor Munehiko Harada, Waseda University

Professor Seiichi Sakuno, Waseda University

Professor Sebastian Uhrich, German Sport University Cologne

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ABSTRACT

Sponsors increasingly engage in CSR activities surrounding sporting events (i.e., CSR-linked sponsorship) to strengthen their socially responsible images. The purpose of the current study was to further identify the effect of CSR-linked sponsorship on consumers' attitudes toward the sponsor. The positive effect of CSR-linked sponsorship on attitude toward the sponsor has been explained by two forms of mediation chain: (1) sponsor-property fit and (2) CSR perception of sponsor. However, each mediation chain had a question that was unanswered. This research extended previous studies by answering such questions through two studies: Study 1 contributed to sponsor-property fit, whereas Study 2 strengthened existing evidence on CSR perception of sponsor.

Study 1 aimed to investigate the effects of two sponsorship purpose articulations (i.e., noncommercially-oriented vs. commercially-oriented) on attitude toward the sponsor via sponsor-property fit and the moderating effects of an overlapped-mission between a sponsor and a sponsored property. A 2 (purpose articulation type: noncommercially-oriented vs. commercially-oriented) \times 2 (mission overlap articulation condition: present vs. absent) between-subjects experimental design with a control condition was employed with student sample ($n = 171$). The moderated mediation model was tested using Hayes' PROCESS macro model 8. The noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation improved sponsor-property fit more than the commercially-oriented purpose articulation, resulting in more favorable attitude toward the sponsor. When the mission overlap was simultaneously articulated, the less positive effects of the commercially-oriented purpose articulation were weaker.

Study 2 examined the effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap conditions (i.e., high vs. low domain overlap) on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor and the moderating effects of perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity. Two experiments were executed: Experiment 1 ($n = 173$) assessed the mediation model using Hayes' PROCESS

macro model 4; Experiment 2 ($n = 247$) tested the moderated mediation model using Hayes' PROCESS macro model 8. The results indicated that participants reported less positive attitude toward the sponsor when CSR activity was strongly associated with CSI (i.e., in the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition) than when CSR activity was weakly associated with CSI (i.e., in the low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition). CSR perception of sponsor mediated the relationship between the CSR-CSI domain overlap and attitude toward the sponsor. Such positive effects of the low CSR-CSI domain overlap were weakened when they attributed firm-serving motives to the sponsor.

In summary, the findings of Study 1 provided incongruent sponsors with insights on mixed-articulation strategies with sponsorship purposes and the overlapped-mission. In Study 2, the application of CSR-CSI domain overlap strategy was suggested as scientific contributions to sponsors with CSI. Therefore, the current research further identified the effect of CSR-linked sponsorship on attitude toward the sponsor by examining two forms of medication chain: (1) sponsor-property fit and (2) CSR perception of sponsor.

“Go and do likewise.”

Luke 10:37

“가서 너도 이와 같이 하라.”

누가복음 10 장 37 절

「行って、あなたも同じようにしなさい。」

ルカによる福音書 10 章 37 節より

Dedicated to my wife, Jinyoung Kim

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VITA

January 7, 1986.....Born – Gwangju, Korea
2004 ~ 2011.....B.A. Sport Management, Namseoul University, Cheonan, Korea
2014 ~ 2016.....M.S. Sport Sciences, Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan
2016 ~ 2019.....Research Assistant, Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan
2016 ~ Present.....Ph.D. candidate, Sport Sciences, Waseda University, Tokyo, Japan

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Sponsorship is defined as ‘an investment, in cash or in kind, in an activity, in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with that activity (Meenaghan, 1991, p. 36).’ Based on this definition, sport sponsorship is viewed as a business-to-business relationship between a sponsor and a sport property for mutual benefits (Farrelly, Quester, & Greyser, 2005). It implies that a sponsored property earns monetary support and / or other in-kind resources needed to improve its quality and other managerial aspects, while a sponsor receives tangible and intangible benefits of being associated with the sponsored property (Biscaia, Correia, Rosado, Ross, & Maroco, 2013; Yang, 2008; Chen & Zhang, 2011).

Global sponsorship expenditures have increased during the past three decades (Cornwell & Kwak, 2015; Kim, Lee, Magnusen, & Kim, 2015). In 2015, sponsorship investments were estimated to US \$57.5 billion worldwide (IEG Sponsorship Report, 2015), which is about 28 times the amount in 1984 (Sponsorship Research International, 1996). The sport industry has been targeted the most for sponsorship investments in the United States, reaching an 70% of the market share (IEG Sponsorship Report, 2015). Such increasing investments are also shown in Japan. The Japan Professional Football League (J. League) indicated 44.8% of a total amount of income in the 2018 season as sponsorship profits (Japan Professional Football League, 2019). Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games raises US \$3.1 billion as domestic sponsorship investments, which are known as the most heavily sponsored Olympic Games in history (The Financial Times, 2019). These situations demonstrate the importance of sport sponsorship as a marketing communication implement for companies seeking to associate themselves with sports (Biscaia et al., 2013; Crompton, 2004; Tsuji, 2011; Zaharia, Biscaia, Gray, & Stotlar, 2016).

One of the main reasons why sport properties attract tremendous attentions from

corporates exist in images of sports. Sports have positive images, such as healthy, passion, sweat, strong, and competition. Such images are transferred to brands or their products when they link themselves to sport properties through sponsorships (Fujimoto, 2014). Furthermore, there are big fandoms in sport teams. Sponsors can have a big chance to interact with such huge fans for making a strong bond with them (Cornwell, 2008; Madrigal, 2001). Such expected benefits have attracted tremendous attention of academic researchers who are interested in how consumers process sport sponsorship information since the 1980s (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005; Grohs, 2016; Kim et al., 2015; Zaharia et al., 2016).

Sport Sponsorship has morphed from a passive form of marketing that was often philanthropic in nature, to a key strategic business building initiative (O'Reilly & Horning, 2013). Simply acquiring a sponsorship property and securing category exclusivity does not guarantee any results, such as effectively breaking through heavy promotional clutter (DeGaris, West, & Dodds, 2009), combatting ambush marketing attacks (Crompton, 2004; Séguin, Lyberger, O'Reilly, & McCarthy, 2005), and successfully differentiating a brand from competitors (Papadimitriou & Apostolopoulou, 2009). For these reasons, scholars cautioned against the use of sponsorship as a 'stand-alone' communication tool, addressing the need to actively and strategically leverage sponsorships with other promotional activities (Cornwell, 2014; Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Weeks, Cornwell, & Drennan, 2008). Leveraging is defined as 'the act of using collateral marketing communications to exploit the commercial potential of the association between a sponsored property and a sponsor (Weeks et al., 2008, p. 639).' It represents an additional investment and activity in a sponsorship beyond the rights fee spent to initially acquire a property. It includes, but is not limited to, advertising, promotion, public relations, hospitality, business-to-business communications, and CSR initiative. Well-leveraged sponsorships can activate the associations between a sponsor and a sponsored property, differentiating itself from competitors (Cornwell, 2014; O'Reilly &

Horning, 2013). For such effects, sponsors made great efforts on the leveraging activities by spending US \$1.6 for every dollar spent on sponsorship fees (IEG Sponsorship Report, 2011).

Linking such a leveraging activity to CSR initiative has been increased in the field of sport sponsorship (Flöter, Benkenstein, & Uhrich, 2016; Habitzreuter & Koenigstorfer, 2018; Uhrich, Koenigstorfer, & Groeppel-Klein, 2014). For example, Sony, a former sponsor of FIFA (Fédération Internationale de Football Association), launched an educational football project for over 14,000 children in Latin America to leverage its sponsorship of the 2014 FIFA World Cup in Brazil (Sony, 2014). Dow chemical announced to contribute to carbon savings through anti-corrosion steel coatings with The International Olympic Committee (IOC) (Dow, 2020). Meiji Yasuda Life – a Japanese insurance company – has been initiating a number of soccer schools for children and walking events for people in each hometown of the J. League clubs during its contracts with the J. League (Meiji Yasuda Life Insurance Company, 2020). As the attention to contribute to sustainable society for people and planet has been increased (The United Nations, 2015), consumers expect companies to behave in a socially responsible and ethical manner more than ever (Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2007; Kang, Germann, & Grewal, 2016; Yoon, Gürhan-Canli, & Schwarz, 2006). This situation has facilitated such CSR-linked sponsorship (i.e., the linkage of sponsorship to CSR initiative).

Sponsors can create favorable attitudes among consumers through CSR-linked sponsorship (Coppetti, Wentzel, Tomczak, & Henkel, 2009; Habitzreuter & Koenigstorfer, 2018; Plewa & Quester, 2011; Uhrich et al., 2014; Weeks et al., 2008). The process in which the CSR-linked sponsorship develops favorable attitudes toward the sponsors can be explained as two forms. First, articulation is useful for sponsors that are incongruent with a sponsored property. Articulation refers to a brand's attempts to explain its linkages with a sponsored property in order to create the associations between the two entities in consumers' memories (Cornwell, Humphreys, Maguire, Weeks, & Tellegen, 2006). It can activate

associative pathways in consumers' memories, which improve the degree of fit between the sponsor and the property (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Consumers can understand the sponsorship relationship and have favorable attitudes toward the sponsor (Weeks et al., 2008). Articulating the linkage of sponsorship to CSR initiative signals that a sponsor is "doing good" for serving society. It can increase the degree of sponsor-property fit regarding prosocial actions, enabling consumers to have more favorable attitudes toward the sponsor (Coppetti et al., 2009; Na & Kim, 2013; Weeks et al., 2008). Second, the meaning transfer can be key to supporting such process (McCracken, 1986). Consumers usually have a good image toward CSR initiative (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006; Ellen, Webb, & Mohr, 2006). Such a good meaning is transferred to a sponsor by linking sponsorship to CSR activity (Gwinner, 1997; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999), thus creating consumers' positive attitudes toward the sponsor (Ellen et al., 2006; Lacey, Close, & Finney, 2010).

Recent sponsorship research has paid great attention to advancing knowledge on how CSR-linked sponsorship affects consumers' attitude toward the sponsor. Such efforts have been made to distinguish it from other forms of leveraging communication. In spite of such conceptual and theoretical progress, however, there are still some questions that remain unanswered, which provide new avenues for future research.

Statement of the Problem

The positive effect of CSR-linked sponsorship on consumers' attitude toward the sponsor has been explained by two forms of mediation chain: (1) sponsor-property fit (Weeks et al., 2008) and (2) CSR perception of sponsor (Uhrich et al., 2014). However, each mediation chain has a question that is unanswered. This study extends previous studies by answering such questions through two studies: Study 1 has a contribution to sponsor-property fit, while Study 2 aims to improve existing evidence on CSR perception of sponsor.

Sponsor-Property Fit

P&G and The IOC seem incongruent, as a household product company appears to have no natural fit with sporting events. In such cases, it is important to articulate their linkages (Cornwell et al., 2006; Cornwell et al., 2005; Jensen & Cornwell, 2017). P&G, for example, explained that it sponsored the IOC to reach worldwide audiences and make life better for them (Baker, 2010). The former message represents a commercially-oriented purpose because it highlights that the IOC sponsorship allowed access to a hard-to-reach group to enhance brand awareness (Dean, 2002; Weeks et al., 2008). The latter relates to a noncommercially-oriented purpose (i.e., CSR-linked sponsorship) as it indicates the firm's goal of creating goodwill in society through sponsorship (Blake, Fourie, & Goldman, 2019; Weeks et al., 2008). Congruity theory (Mandler, 1982) states that these articulations can activate associative pathways in consumers' memories, which increase sponsor-property fit (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Consumers then can understand the link and have favorable attitudes toward the sponsor (Weeks et al., 2008).

Prior studies assessed the direct effects of these two types of sponsorship articulation on attitude toward the sponsor (Coppetti et al., 2009; Na & Kim, 2013; Weeks et al., 2008). However, little effort has been made to examine how these two types of articulation affect sponsor-property fit. Given the application of the congruity theory, an improved fit is key to creating favorable attitude toward the sponsor (King & Madrigal, 2018; Madrigal & King, 2017; Olson & Thjømmøe, 2011; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). This implies that the mediating process by which the two sponsorship purpose articulations develop attitude toward the sponsor via sponsor-property fit should be investigated to understand the effects of such articulation. Olson and Thjømmøe (2011) suggested six dimensions of the fit construct (i.e., geographic, audience, prominence, use, attitude, and image). Based on these fit dimensions, the noncommercially-oriented purpose message might activate the associations

of more fit dimensions (i.e., attitude, image) than the commercially-oriented purpose message (i.e., audience), possibly leading to more favorable attitude toward the sponsor. Therefore, a research question was prompted as follows:

RQ1: Does the noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation increase sponsor-property fit more than the commercially-oriented purpose articulation, resulting in creating more favorable attitude toward the sponsor?

Consumers are not always exposed to a single sponsorship message because sponsors usually communicate multiple messages to link them to sponsored properties (Cornwell et al., 2005; Dick, 2019; Madrigal & King, 2017). Thus, how consumers perceive such simultaneously-articulated multiple messages should be investigated (Olson & Thjømmøe, 2011; Zdravkovic, Magnusson, & Stanley, 2010). Another message that was simultaneously articulated with each sponsorship purpose message is expected to facilitate the associations of other fit dimensions that were uncovered by purpose articulation. A simultaneously-articulated message can attenuate the different effects of two purpose articulations on sponsor-property fit based on the congruity theory (Mandler, 1982). This study employs a mission overlap between a sponsor and a sponsored property as the simultaneously-articulated message. For example, P&G linked its mission, which creates a better world for everyone to the IOC's mission, which builds a better world through sports (P&G, 2017). Such an overlapped-mission can create a logical link, which has led to many actual articulation cases (Macdougall, Nguyen, & Karg, 2014; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Zdravkovic et al., 2010). Hence, the following research question of its moderating role was suggested:

RQ2: Does the simultaneously-articulated mission overlap between a sponsor and a property moderate the effect of the two purpose articulations on attitude toward the sponsor via sponsor-property fit?

CSR Perception of Sponsor

Sponsors increasingly engage in CSR activities surrounding sporting events to strengthen their socially responsible images (Habitzreuter & Koenigstorfer, 2018; Uhrich et al., 2014). Such strategic CSR engagements are more common among sponsors in the industries with bad reputations (Danylchuk & MacIntosh, 2009; Peluso, Rizzo, & Pino, 2019; Turco, 1999). For instance, Toyota, an active sponsor, may be unfavorably evaluated by their business actions that can hurt environment. Consumers may have bad images toward McDonald's, also an active sponsor, due to their businesses producing unhealthy foods. These sponsors strategically engage in CSR in conjunction with sporting events to tackle against their socially irresponsible status.

Sponsors with bad reputations can initiate CSR activities as two forms: CSR that is strongly or weakly associated with their socially irresponsible behaviors (Lenz, Wetzels, & Hammerschmidt, 2017; Yoon et al., 2006). The former case indicates CSR activity that is categorized into same domain, such as human rights or environment, with a sponsor's socially irresponsible behaviors (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). Toyota providing electric transportation vehicles using zero-emission hydrogen fuel cells during Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games can be an example of such cases because it can be irresponsible to environment by its businesses (Moore, 2019). The latter relates to a situation where a sponsor's CSR activity and socially irresponsible behaviors are categorized into different thematic domains. McDonald's – a previous IOC sponsor – that is associated with obesity issues, can be an example of the latter when they launched campaigns to appeal the importance of agriculture for the Olympic Games (Fernandez, 2010).

The former CSR activities, however, can be perceived as 'greenwashing' (Banerjee, 2008; Kang et al., 2016; Yoon et al., 2006). Corporate social irresponsibility (i.e., CSI) refers to 'firm-induced incidents that appear to hurt the social good (Kang et al., 2016, p. 60).' CSI

represents a lack of morality and leads bad reputations to firms (Godfrey, Merrill, & Hansen, 2009; Schuler & Cording, 2006). CSR activity that is strongly associated with CSI might magnify bad reputations of CSI. Drawing on associative network memory model (Anderson, 1983), if CSR and CSI share similar attributes that are categorized into same domain, such overlapped-domain may activate bad reputations of CSI in consumers' memories. Thus, the former CSR activities can be interpreted as hypocritical attempts to wash away past CSI, possibly damaging consumers' CSR perceptions of the sponsor. In contrast, if CSR and CSI are categorized into different domains (i.e., the latter CSR activities), it might be possible to restrict the activation of such bad reputations.

Although prior CSR studies have made tremendous contributions to CSR strategies, no research examined the effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap. Lenz et al. (2017) reported that 77% of firms engaging in CSR activities were faced by their CSI. This implies that most of firms largely engage in the former CSR activities (Heal, 2005; Kotchen & Moon, 2012). If the highly-overlapped CSR-CSI domains are more likely to activate bad reputations of CSI than the lowly-overlapped CSR-CSI domains, such many sponsors are expected to be damaged. Thus, this study raised the following research question:

RQ3: Are the highly-overlapped CSR-CSI domains less effective in increasing consumers' CSR perceptions of the sponsor than the lowly-overlapped CSR-CSI domains, resulting in creating less favorable attitude toward the sponsor?

Consumers categorize a firm's CSR engagement as either public-serving or firm-serving motives (Barone, Miyazaki, & Taylor, 2000; Becker-Olsen, Cudmore, & Hill, 2006). If consumers attribute firm-serving motives for CSR activity to a sponsor rather than public-serving motives, CSR activity that is weakly associated with CSI may be even perceived as insincere, then less effective in creating favorable attitude toward the sponsor. Therefore, the following research question of its moderating effect was prompted:

RQ4: Does the perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity moderate the effects of the CSR-CSI domain overlap conditions on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the current study was to further identify the effect of CSR-linked sponsorship on attitude toward the sponsor. Specifically, Study 1 aimed to (1) investigate the effect of two sponsorship purpose articulations (i.e., noncommercially-oriented vs. commercially-oriented purpose) on attitude toward the sponsor via sponsor-property fit and (2) the moderating effects of an overlapped-mission between a sponsor and a sponsored property. Figure 1.1 shows the research model of Study 1.

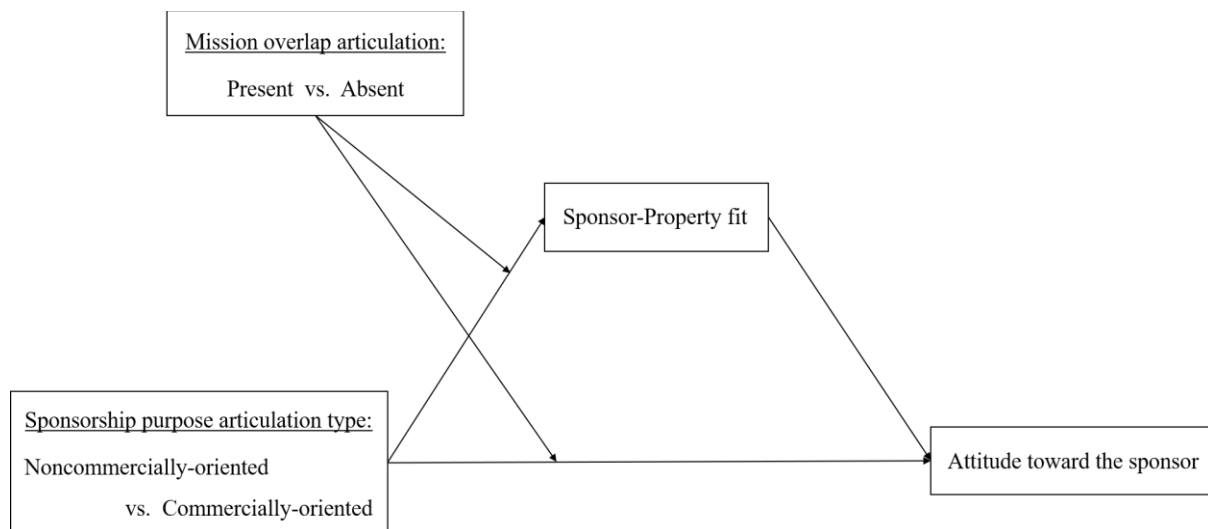


Figure 1.1. Research model of Study 1

The purposes of Study 2 were to (3) examine the effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap conditions (i.e., high vs. low domain overlap) on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor and (4) the moderating effects of perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity. The research model of Study 2 is exhibited in Figure 1.2.

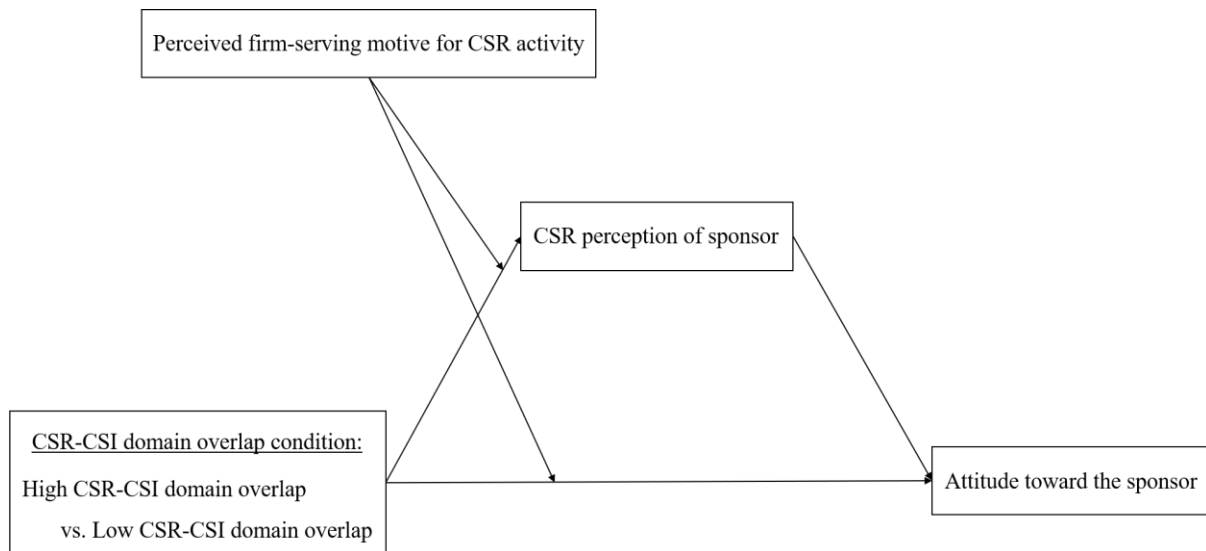


Figure 1.2. Research model of Study 2

Significance of the Study

This study contributes to previous literature in six ways. Study 1 suggests the first understanding of the mediating processes of two sponsorship purpose articulations. In the context of sponsorship articulation, an increased degree of sponsor-property fit has been considered a prerequisite for generating favorable attitude toward the sponsor (Cornwell et al., 2006; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Nevertheless, prior studies have not provided clear evidence on the processes in which attitude toward the sponsor are developed by the two purpose articulations via an improved sponsor-property fit. The findings of Study 1 highlight the possibility of links between articulation messages and specific dimensions of fit. Furthermore, considering situations where sponsors usually communicate multiple messages to explain their links with sponsored properties (Dick, 2019; Madrigal & King, 2017), the moderating effects of a simultaneously-articulated mission overlap between a sponsor and a sponsored property on increasing sponsor-property fit can be evaluated to be meaningful. Study 1 provides the implications of how sponsors that are incongruent with sponsored properties create more effective articulation impacts.

Study 2 highlights insights into the application of CSR-CSI domain overlap strategy in the sponsorship field. According to previous CSR research, consumers can easily understand a firm's intention to initiate CSR activity focusing on its CSI because such CSR effort is consistent with consumers' expectations (Heal, 2005; Kotchen & Moon, 2012). However, this study raises doubt about the strong CSR-CSI domain overlap condition, based on associative network memory model. The findings of Study 2 thus make significant contributions to sponsors with their CSI. Moreover, the mediation mechanism strengthens knowledge on how increasing CSR perception of sponsor is important to induce favorable attitude toward the sponsor (Flöter et al., 2016; Uhrich et al., 2014). Finally, the moderating effects of perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity can demonstrate the importance of communicating sponsors' sincere interest in solving social issues to consumer, which implies that sponsors with CSI need to draft CSR activity by taking the CSR-CSI relationship into careful consideration.

Delimitation

The current study conducts experiment surveys in both Study 1 and 2. Consumers are repeatedly exposed to sponsorship-related information in reality. The design of this research may limit the external validity of the findings. This study employs fictitious sponsorships as research contexts, which weaken the external validity. Although Study 2 collects heterogeneous samples, Study 1 only uses student samples. The results of Study 1 may not be generalizable to other populations. Moreover, data are collected from Japanese, which are limited in generalizing to the perceptions of other countries. The announcements of new sponsorship assignment are used as stimuli in the two studies. It is unclear whether consumers' responses that were measured last by the end of the sponsorship contracts. The press releases are employed as experimental stimuli. Individuals may view sponsorships

differently based on stimulus type (e.g., a press release, drawing, and picture; Wolfsteiner, Grohs, & Wagner, 2015). The present study can be extended by more studies using diverse tools.

Definition of the Terms

- Sponsorship is defined as ‘an investment, in cash or in kind, in an activity, in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with that activity (Meenaghan, 1991, p. 36).’
- Leveraging is defined as ‘the act of using collateral marketing communications to exploit the commercial potential of the association between a sponsored property and a sponsor (Weeks et al., 2008, p. 639).’
- CSR (corporate social responsibility) refers to ‘a commitment to improve community well-being through discretionary business practices and contribution of corporate resources (Kotler & Lee, 2004, p. 3).’
- CSR-linked sponsorship refers to ‘the linkage of sponsorship with CSR activity (Flöter et al., 2016, p. 146).’
- Articulation refers to a brand’s attempts to explain its linkages with a sponsored property in order to create the associations between the two entities in consumers’ memories (Cornwell et al., 2006).
- Sponsor-property fit is defined as ‘the “sense” or “logic” of a particular brand sponsoring a particular object (i.e., organization, cause, event, or individual being sponsored) (Olson & Thjømmøe, 2011, p. 57).’
- Meaning refers to an overall assessment of what an object represents to consumers (McCracken, 1986).

- Congruity theory refers to a specific explanation for attitude change that occurs when a source is connected to a particular object (Jagre, Watson, & Watson, 2001).
- CSR perception of sponsor is defined as ‘the brand’s status and activities with respect to its perceived societal obligations (Brown & Dacin, 1997, p. 68).’
- Attitude is defined as ‘a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 1).’
- Mission refers to the purpose of an organization’s existence (Monday, Akinola, Ologbenla, & Aladeraji, 2015).
- CSI (corporate social irresponsibility) refers to ‘firm-induced incidents that appear to hurt the social good (Kang et al., 2016, p. 60).’
- Associative network memory model refers to memory as a set of stored pieces of information (i.e., nodes) that are connected by links of varying strength (Anderson, 1983).
- Cause involvement is defined as ‘the degree to which consumers find the cause to be personally relevant to them (Grau & Folse, 2007, p. 20).’
- Role identification refers to ‘a set of meanings applied to the self in a social role or situation, defining what it means to be who one is in that role or situation (Burke & Stets, 1999, p. 349).’

Overview of the Study

This study is presented in seven chapters. Chapter 1 has introduced the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, significance of the study, delimitation, definition of the terms, and overview of the study. Chapter 2 reviews the definition of sponsorship, sponsorship effects, corporate social responsibility (CSR), literature on Study 1 (i.e., sponsorship articulation), and theoretical backgrounds for Study 2 (i.e., CSR-CSI domain overlap). Chapter 3 discusses theoretical frameworks and hypotheses

developments of Study 1 and Study 2. In Chapter 4, the overview of Study 1, methods used for Study 1, and results of Study 1 are described. Chapter 5 presents the overview of Study 2, methods and results of Experiment 1, and those of Experiment 2. The findings of Study 1 and Study 2 are discussed in Chapter 6, then limitations of the current research and recommendations for future research are provided in Chapter 7.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

This chapter begins with the definition of sponsorship. Then, focusing on consumer responses to sponsorship, antecedents, consequences of sponsorship, research stream from 1980s, sponsorship leveraging, and attitude toward sponsor are reviewed. Next, a definition and conceptualization of CSR and CSR-linked sport sponsorship are discussed. This chapter provides a rationale for Study 1 (i.e., sponsorship articulation). The role of articulation in incongruent sponsorship is reviewed; the effect of sponsorship purpose articulation is explained; the effect of mission overlap articulation is presented; a review of fit dimensions is followed. Study 2 (i.e., CSR-CSI domain overlap) is reviewed as follows: the effect of CSR activity; corporate social irresponsibility (CSI); consumer perception of CSR activity in the face of CSI; associative network memory model; motive attribution for sponsorship.

Definition of Sponsorship

Sponsorship refers to ‘an investment, in cash or in kind, in an activity, in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with that activity (Meenaghan, 1991, p. 36).’ The more recent definition indicates ‘the acquisition of rights to affiliate or directly associate with a product or event for the purpose of delivering benefits related to that affiliation or association (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2007, p. 315).’ Based on these definitions, three entities – a property, a sponsor, and consumers – are involved in sponsorship.

Sponsorship entails a business relationship between a sponsor and a sponsored property, involved in a transaction with overt commercial interest. It differs from philanthropy in that sponsors pursue tangible returns from their investment whereas philanthropists do not (Howard & Crompton, 2005). The philanthropy is assumed to be altruistic. The philanthropists may be motivated by an intangible psychological return such as

a feeling of gratification, while they do not seek tangible returns (Howard & Crompton, 2005). In return for the investment to a property, a sponsor is entitled to the assets of the property, which are later tapped into when the sponsor markets its products to consumers. It gains a return on its investment when its sponsorship influences consumer responses in a positive way. Thus, sponsorship does not occur without consumers, which represents the importance of understanding consumer responses to sponsorship.

Sponsorship Effects

Sponsorship research has examined sponsorship effects in order to provide evidence on ROI (Return on Investment) or ROO (Return on Objectives) (Tsuji, 2011). In particular, previous literature has mainly focused on demonstrating consumer evaluations of sponsor (Kim et al., 2015; Walliser, 2003). In the following, consequences and antecedents regarding the effects of sponsorship on consumer evaluations are reviewed.

Consequences

Sponsorship outcomes focusing on consumer evaluation are categorized into three effects: (1) cognitive, (2) affective, and (3) conative effects (Cornwell et al., 2005; see Figure 2.1). Cognitive effects are usually classified into two main outcomes: (1) awareness and (2) image. Awareness refers to the extent to which a brand is accurately recognized as a sponsor of a particular sponsored property in consumers' memories (Bennett, 1999). Sponsors can improve brand awareness by displaying corporate signages or billboards around the stadium or arena. Such awareness is the most frequently-investigated means of quantifying sponsorship effectiveness (Breuer & Rumpf, 2015; Cornwell et al., 2006; McDonald & Karg, 2015; Olson & Thjømmøe, 2009; Tripodi, Hirons, Bednall, & Sutherland, 2003; Wakefield, Becker-Olsen, & Cornwell, 2007). Image represents the perception of a sponsor as reflected by various forms of associations consumers hold in their memory structures regarding the

sponsor (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999). Sponsors try to link themselves to sponsored properties through various marketing activities utilizing their sponsorships. These linkages enable images of the sponsored properties consumers hold in their memories to be transferred to images of the sponsors (Abreu Novais & Arcodia, 2013; Coppetti et al., 2009; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Pope & Voges, 1999; Woisetschläger & Michaelis, 2012).

Sponsorship Effects

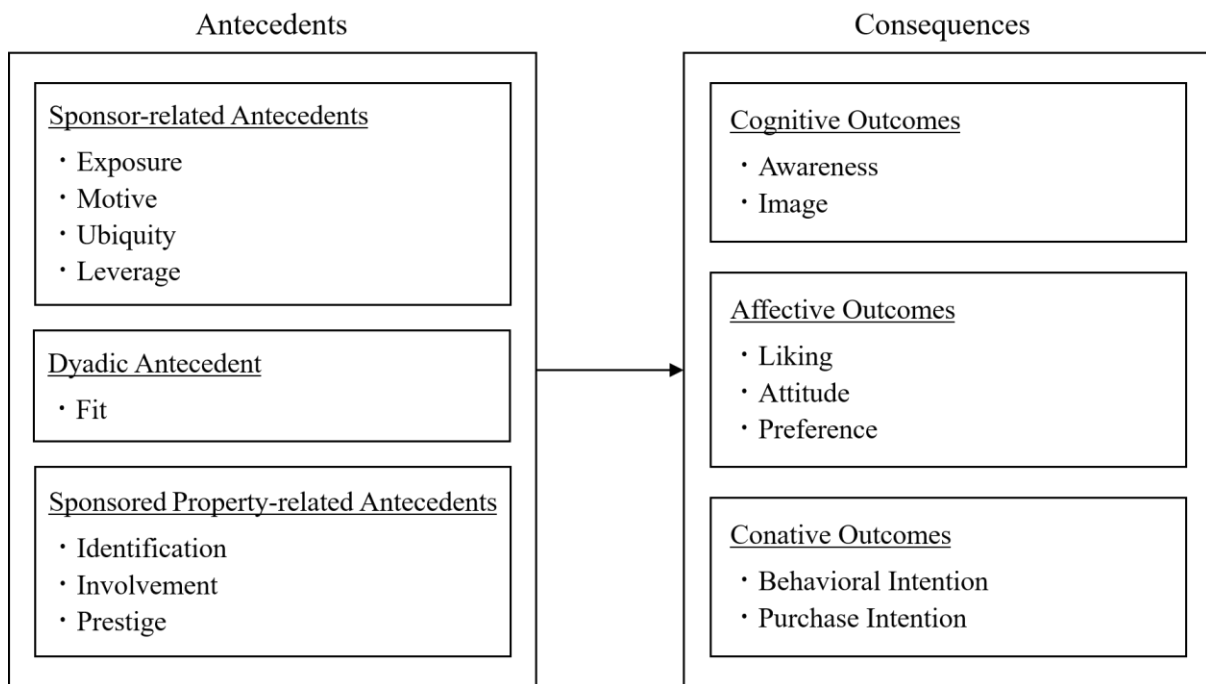


Figure 2.1. Sponsorship effects

Regarding affective effects, (1) liking, (2) positive attitude, and (3) preference are the most frequently-used outcomes in the sponsorship literature (Kim et al., 2015). Liking is the feeling of attraction, fondness, or approval toward the sponsor (Ngan, Prendergast, & Tsang, 2011). Attitude is defined as ‘a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 1),’ which is synonymous with the liking. Preference is interchangeably used with the liking and the positive attitude (Kim et al., 2015; Nicholls, Roslow, & Dublish, 1999). In sport

sponsorships, consumers tend to have favorable emotion toward sponsors if the sponsorships are interpreted as important to their favorite team (Alexandris, Tsaousi, & James, 2007; Dees, Bennett, & Villegas, 2008; Madrigal, 2001; Speed & Thompson, 2000). These positive feelings – liking, favorable attitude, and preference – have been considered pivotal elements of sponsorship effectiveness since they can highly cause positive behavioral intention to purchase a sponsor’s products (Biscaia et al., 2013; Koo, Quarterman, & Flynn, 2006; Zaharia et al., 2016).

Conative effects include (1) behavioral and (2) purchase intention. Behavioral intention reveals the perceived likelihood or subjective probability to engage in favorable behaviors for sponsors. Sponsor-related information seeking and positive word of mouth (WOM) are included in the behavioral intention (Kim et al., 2015). Such behavioral intention has been important in the sponsorship effects because it can draw a sponsor’s future sales and good evaluations among consumers. Purchase intention represents the perceived likelihood or subjective probability to purchase a sponsor’s products (Cornwell et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2015). The purchase intention is crucial for the sponsorship effectiveness, given its expected impact on increasing a sponsor’s sales (Baek, Byon, Choi, & Park, 2017; Choi, Tsuji, Hutchinson, & Bouchet, 2011). It is a focal indicator for sport entities to legitimize their relationships with sponsors and to negotiate future sponsorship contracts with the sponsors (Baek, Song, Kim, & Byon, 2020; Biscaia et al., 2013; Deitz, Myers, & Stafford, 2012; Hong, 2011; Madrigal, 2001).

Antecedents

Sponsorship outcomes focusing on consumer evaluation are influenced by several antecedents. Sponsors need to understand each antecedent to maximize their sponsorship effects. The antecedents are categorized into three domains: (1) sponsor-related, (2) sponsored property-related, and (3) dyadic antecedents (Cornwell et al., 2005; Kim et al.,

2015; see Figure 2.1). Sponsor-related antecedents indicate variables that pertain to or describe characteristics of sponsors, whereas sponsored property-related antecedents represent variables characterizing sport properties. Dyadic antecedents include variables, such as fit, that require sponsors and sponsored properties to be actively involved in each other (Kim et al., 2015).

In terms of the sponsor-related antecedents, mere exposure, motive, ubiquity, and leveraging are salient in the sponsorship effectiveness. Sponsors repeatedly expose their brand logos and products at the stadium or arena to make an appeal to fans of sport teams, which result in increasing brand awareness (Bennett, 1999; McDonald & Karg, 2015; Olson & Thjømøe, 2003). Motive refers to consumers' attributions of why a firm engages in sponsoring a sport property (Dean, 2002). Consumers usually perceive sponsors as having two motives for sponsorship: profit-driven and philanthropic motives (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; D'Astous & Bitz, 1995). If a philanthropic motive is more apparent in consumers' minds than a commercial motive, consumers are more likely to have favorable feelings of the sponsor since prosocial motivation is generally viewed as 'good image' (Lacey et al., 2010; Rifon, Choi, Trimble, & Li, 2004). Ubiquity indicates the extent to which a firm is engaging in sponsorships simultaneously (Speed & Thompson, 2000). When a firm engages in many sponsorships at the same time, it is expected that consumers interpret its engagement in each property as insincere (Polonsky & Speed, 2001; Speed & Thompson, 2000). Then, consumers possibly reduce their favorability toward the sponsor (Biscaia, Trail, Ross, & Yoshida, 2017; Habitzreuter & Koenigstorfer, 2018; Petrovici, Shan, Gorton, & Ford, 2015). Leveraging is defined as 'the act of using collateral marketing communications to exploit the commercial potential of the association between a sponsored property and a sponsor (Weeks et al., 2008, p. 639).' It has been pointed out that mere brand exposure on site makes no more unique brand value compared with non-sponsors (Cornwell, Roy & Steinard, 2001). Every collateral

marketing activity, such as advertising, promotion, public relations, and business-to-business communications, is required for sponsors to differentiate themselves from non-sponsors (Meenaghan, 1996; Uhrich et al., 2014; Weeks et al., 2008).

Identification, involvement, and prestige are three important antecedents related to a sponsored property. Identification refers to consumers' emotional connection or attachment to a sponsored property (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003). Similarly, involvement represents an internal state of arousal that comes from consumers' perceptions of a sponsor's relevance to themselves (Olson, 2010). Consumers who are highly identified with or involved in sport team (i.e., big fans) tend to perceive the needs and benefits of their teams as their own. Thus, they are more likely to have favorable feelings of the sponsors because their favorite teams are supported by the sponsors (McDonald, 1991). Prestige is also a significant antecedent because highly-prestigious sport teams provide their sponsors with great media exposure opportunities (Gwinner & Swanson, 2003; Keller, 1993).

Regarding a dyadic antecedent, fit is the most frequently-investigated theoretical concept for improving the process of sponsorship stimuli (Cornwell et al., 2005; Pappu & Cornwell, 2014; Speed & Thompson, 2000). Fit refers to the extent of congruence between the associations arising from a sponsoring firm and those from a sponsored property (Speed & Thompson, 2000). These associations generally stem from mission, products, markets, attributes, brand concepts, or any of other key characteristics of the sponsorship relationship (Bridges, Keller, & Sood, 2000; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). A well-fitted sponsorship encourages a great transfer of positive images of a sponsored property to images of a sponsor in consumers' minds, which leads to positive evaluations of the sponsor (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Olson & Thjømøe, 2011; Pappu & Cornwell, 2014; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Speed & Thompson, 2000).

Based on the review of sponsorship effects, many consequences and antecedents

have been demonstrated in the extensive sponsorship literature. Despite such growth, nevertheless, the sponsorship effects remain equivocal in minds of many business executives who question true values of sponsorship to their firms (Olson, 2010). One of the main reasons for the aforementioned gap is due to real situations where consumers are usually exposed to a sponsor's marketing activities that are not only linked to sponsorship, but also not linked to it. For these reasons, it has been pointed out that field studies are difficult to examine the true effects of sponsorship (Cornwell et al., 2005). Furthermore, widespread economic uncertainty requires more enhanced scrutiny for key decision-makers (e.g., executive boards) to spend sponsorships. The further understanding of sponsorship effectiveness is needed to provide the justification for sponsorship investments now more than ever (Kim et al., 2015).

Research Stream from 1980s

The 1980s-1990s Periods. Los Angeles 1984 Olympic Games is referred to as a watershed sporting event in commercial sponsorship history. It clearly highlighted how a mega sporting event can be possible to reach mass markets and deliver values to commercial sponsors. It also showcased a heated rivalry between competing firms such as Fuji (official sponsor) and Kodak (ambusher). With the rising popularity of sport sponsorship, sponsorship rights fees have increased exponentially (Kim, 2010). For example, the sponsorship rights fees paid for the 1988-1992 Olympics sponsorship package – approximately US \$10 million – almost doubled the fees paid for the 1985-1988 package (Masteralexis, Barr, & Hums, 2005). This rapid sponsorship growth led to an increase in scholar inquiry into whether sponsorship generates worthy effects against the significant financial investment.

Studies in the 1980s and 1990s attempted to answer if sponsorship is more effective compared to other investments to advertising. In order to answer this question, the most popular measure in this period was 'awareness' – recognition and recall (Cornwell & Maignan, 1998). It was suggested that intermediate measures, such as recognition and recall,

reflect sponsorship effect particularly when the focus is to inform consumers of a firm's sponsorship (Stotlar, 1993). For this reason, the effect of sponsorship on awareness was measured during the early decades (Hastings, 1984; Hoek, Gendall, Jeffcoat, & Orsman, 1997; Javalgi, Traylor, Gross, & Lampman, 1994; Pope, 1998; Quester, 1997).

The awareness is not the only one that has been measured to evaluate sponsorship effect. Preference or sponsor image has been used as an alternate effect of sponsorship or a mixed effect with the awareness (Nicholls, Roslow, & Laskey, 1994; Otker & Hayes, 1987). If consumers do not prefer a sponsoring brand to non-sponsoring brands in spite of the greater awareness, the brand cannot conclude that its sponsorship investment was effective (Nicholls et al., 1999). Even, there was an argument that these emotions should not be considered as a proof of sponsorship effectiveness because these may not reflect true sponsorship effect in that they are established as a result of consumer involvement in a sponsored event and not of consumer evaluation of a sponsoring brand (McDonald, 1991). That is, consumers come to prefer the brand as it supports the event they care about. However, later studies have supported the importance of such sponsorship effectiveness by arguing that such consumers' positive evaluations of the sponsor engendered by its support for the event are sufficiently considered important intermediate effects influencing subsequent sponsorship outcomes (Meenaghan, 2001a, 2001b; Pope & Voges, 1999).

Instead of providing evidence on sponsorship effectiveness, another line of research takes a more practical approach. This line was based on the presumption that the sponsorship effectiveness depends less on the nature of sponsorship per se but more on how the sponsorship is executed (Kim, 2010). For example, locations of signage and availability of sponsor products/services in a sporting event significantly related to the sponsor recognition (Cunneen & Hannan, 1993). This is not unexpected considering that sponsors placing their advertisements in high traffic areas receive more exposure and thus are better remembered.

Furthermore, additional promotions highly increase consumer awareness of a sponsor. It was reported that sponsorship recall can be improved when a field sponsorship is combined with additional promotional activities (Pitts, 1998). This stream of research continues in the 2000s. Lardinoit and Derbaix (2001) executed an experimental study to examine the effect of field versus television sponsorship on recall, indicating that combining such two modes of sponsorship significantly improved unaided consumer recall of sponsors. Likewise, the effect of time (i.e., early in the college football season versus the post season) on sponsor recognition was investigated (Pitts & Slattery, 2004): consumers better recognized sponsors in the post season than the early.

The 2000s Period. Sponsorship literatures in the 2000s have explored theory-driven approaches to understand consumer response to sponsorship, while those in the 1980s and 1990s mainly focused on stimulus conditions (e.g., highly visible signage, activation) as predictors of sponsorship outcomes. Most scholars view sponsorship as an indirect persuasion medium (e.g., McDonald, 1991; Meenaghan, 2001a, 2001b). Thus, it has been a major theme from this period to examine how consumers process sponsorship information and how this processing influences their evaluations of sponsors. Various theories have been employed to explain such processes in the context of sponsorship: e.g., schema congruity theory, associative network memory model, elaboration likelihood model, and balance theory, attribution theory.

Schema congruity theory explains the effect of sponsor-property fit on sponsorship outcomes. This theory posits that individuals hold abstract and generalized knowledge about the world – schema which influences their perceptions and interpretations of new information (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). In the context of sponsorship, consumers develop schemas for a particular sporting event and its sponsoring brands. If they believe that their schemas of the sponsoring brand are in line with their schemas of the event (i.e., a high degree of perceived

sponsor-property fit), the brand is more stored in their memories as an event sponsor, thus better recalled (Roy & Cornwell, 2003; Wakefield et al., 2007). Furthermore, schemas are linked to affect (Fiske, 1982). Thus, when schemas are used, related affect (e.g., favorable attitude toward sponsor) is also activated (Roy & Cornwell, 2003). Such effects of high fit have also been explained by associative network memory model (Anderson, 1983). It explains that individuals' stored information relating to objects (i.e., nodes) is connected to one another in their memories. Individuals tend to interpret an object with other nodes that are connected through the associative network (Anderson, 1983). In a case of incongruent sponsorship, a sponsor has few nodes that can be associated with a sponsored property. In contrast, when a sponsor is congruent with a sponsored property, there are much more nodes regarding the sponsorship relationship that can be stored in consumers' memories (Cornwell et al., 2006). Consistent with the role of schema congruity theory, the more stored nodes lead to better recall of the brand among consumers (Zdravkovic & Till, 2012).

On the other hand, elaboration likelihood model (ELM) addresses the moderating role of involvement on the congruence effects. ELM is a persuasion model that is widely used in the field of marketing communications (Koo & Lee, 2019; Lee & Park, 2014). According to ELM, peripheral cues are more important than issue-relevant cues under conditions of low involvement, while the opposite is true under those of high involvement (Petty, Cacioppo, & Schumann, 1983). Thus, it has been identified that congruence effects vary depending on consumer involvement levels, indicating a specific tendency that sponsorship acts as a peripheral cue that is most effective in low involvement conditions (Cornwell et al., 2005; Gwinner, 1997; Koo & Lee, 2019; Lee & Koo, 2016).

Balance theory focuses on sponsorship relations (Cornwell & Coote, 2005; Dalakas & Levin, 2005; Dean, 2002). This theory considers relations among objects individuals may perceive belong together, linked by association, proximity, similarity, ownership, or common

fate (Heider, 1958). Two major components of the theory are unit and sentiment: unit refers to persons or objects perceived to be closely related; sentiment refers to evaluative judgments toward others. A unit relation can be either balanced or imbalanced as a function of sentiment. Individuals seek cognitive and evaluative consistency, whereas they tend to avoid inconsistency or imbalance and shift their attitude so that consistency or balance is achieved (Heider, 1958). In the context of sponsorship, the balance theory suggests three elements linked in a triangular relationship: a sponsor, a sponsored event, and a consumer. If the consumer has positive sentiment toward the sponsored event, it is likely that the consumer forms his or her attitude to be positive toward the sponsor. This tendency occurs because consumers desire harmony in their beliefs, and it would be unstable to have a positively valued element linked to a negatively valued element. Alternatively, the consumer could reevaluate his or her sentiment toward the sponsored event to make it negative, then hold a negative view of the sponsor (Dean, 2002).

Attribution theory suggests that consumers act as naive scientists when understanding why a sponsor has contributed money to a sponsored event. Attribution refers to assigning causes to behaviors of others (Kelley & Michela, 1980). Individuals often seek explanations behind an action and engage in causal reasoning to arrive at their own answers, conclusions, or judgments. A key idea behind the attribution theory is that consumers tend to attribute an actor's behavior to motives of the actor. Two types of factors shape attributions of such motives (Heider, 1958): (1) personal factors internal to the actor (i.e., intrinsic motives) and (2) situational factors external to the actor (i.e., extrinsic motives). According to the discounting principle (Kelley, 1972), consumers discount an explanation if an alternative explanation exists. That is, when the extrinsic motivation explains an event, the intrinsic motivation becomes discounted. The inference of commercial motive is likely to have a detrimental effect on consumer responses to sponsorship (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Dean,

2002; Ellen et al., 2006; Rifon et al., 2004). Therefore, the attribution has been a critical factor in the context of sponsorship.

The 2010s Period. As sport sponsorship has developed over the past three decades to become a worldwide communication platform, it is the evolution and metamorphosis of sponsorship-linked marketing that delivers endless research topics (Cornwell & Kwak, 2015). Literature in the 2010s extended such numerous evidence by mainly focusing on three topics: (1) exploring the effects of leveraging activities, (2) long-term effects, (3) using a new technology, such as eye-tracking methodology.

First, as sponsors no longer guarantee any benefit from only showing their brand logos to audiences, additional promotional activities (i.e., leveraging activities) has been needed to successfully differentiate themselves from competitors (Cornwell, 2014; O'Reilly & Horning, 2013; Papadimitriou & Apostolopoulou, 2009). Thus, several studies have suggested how such leveraging activities helped break through heavy competitors effectively (Dreisbach, Woisetschläger, Backhaus, & Cornwell, 2018; Herrmann, Kacha, & Derbaix, 2016). For instance, Weeks et al. (2008) investigated how leveraging sponsorships via sponsors' websites enabled activation at the mass-media audience level. They demonstrated that activated websites promoted more favorable attitude toward the sponsors than non-activated websites. It was also shown that such an effect was moderated by the commerciality of the explanation for the sponsorship relationship. Another research examined how to create sponsor distinctiveness using exclusivity and brand juxtaposition in the presence of ambusher (Weeks, O'Connor, & Martin, 2017). It was highlighted that sponsor distinctiveness was achieved by communicating sponsorship exclusivity in the presence of ambusher, and by facilitating juxtaposition of sponsor and ambusher messages. The results suggested not only the increased recall to sponsor cues and the reduced recall to ambusher cues, but also that ambusher restrictions may sometimes be counterproductive. On the other hand, many studies

examined how leveraging sponsorship with CSR initiative affected consumer attitude toward the sponsor comparing to a standard promotional activity. Uhrich et al. (2014) investigated that CSR-linked sponsorship improved consumers' CSR perception of sponsor, then positive brand credibility, finally favorable attitude toward the sponsor more than the standard promotional activity. Flöter et al. (2016) focused on three different types of message sources communicating such CSR-linked sponsorship and examined that when the message came from a sponsor's website, consumer attitude toward the sponsor was less favorable by higher persuasion knowledge activation than when it came from a news media. Furthermore, Habitzreuter and Koenigstorfer (2018) highlighted how regulatory fit (i.e., a sponsorship communication's regulatory focus matches a message recipient's regulatory focus) moderated the impacts of CSR-linked sport sponsorship.

Second, long-term effects are required because sponsorship contracts usually last for multiple years (Mazodier & Quester, 2014). For this reason, there has been studies that examined how sponsorship effects are changed over time. Mazodier and Quester (2014) assessed the change of brand affect depending on sponsor-property fit over time, showing that the initial level of fit related positively to the initial level of brand affect, but related negatively to the subsequent increase in brand affect. Moreover, a steeper increase in the fit resulted in a faster rate of brand affect improvement and the initial level of brand affect was associated with subsequent increases in neither brand affect nor fit. Some studies focused on the change of sponsor recall over time, and investigated how sponsorship recall over time developed depending on other factors: sponsorship duration, individual involvement (Walraven, Bijmolt, & Koning, 2014); the presence of leveraging activity, duration, sponsorship tier level (Smith, Pitts, Mack, & Smith, 2016); tier level, duration, sponsor-property fit, market size (McDonald & Karg, 2015). They highlighted that the level of sponsor recall was changed over time, but it differed by the sponsorship relationships or

characteristics. Jensen and Cornwell (2017, 2018) and Jensen, Head, and Mergy (2020) measured to isolate factors that predict the dissolution of sponsorship partnerships by using a longitudinal dataset. Given that sponsorship partnership is based on relationship marketing, they employed three predictors – dyadic, seller-related, customer-related variables – and examined conditions that jeopardize what could be a long-term, multiyear relationship, in a dynamic, integrated model of sponsorship decision-making across various fields of sport sponsorship.

Third, a new technology, such as eye-tracking methodology, was often used to suggest a new perspective of understanding sports viewers' attention to televised sponsorship signages. This came from that although competition for viewers' attention to sponsorship signage in sport telecasts had become a growing issue in sponsorship-linked marketing, there was a lack of research that investigates how to create eye-catching sponsorship signage in the cluttered visual surroundings of sport events without negatively affecting the viewers' first objective (Breuer & Rumpf, 2015). Several studies using the eye-tracking technology contributed to further exploring such sports viewers' attention to sponsorship signages (Alonso Dos Santos, Moreno, & Crespo-Hervás, 2019; Boronczyk, Rumpf, & Breuer, 2018; Breuer & Rumpf, 2012, 2015; Rumpf, Boronczyk, & Breuer, 2020; Rumpf & Breuer, 2018).

Sponsorship Leveraging

Sponsorship leveraging is the act of using collateral marketing communications to exploit the commercial potential of the association between a sponsored property and a sponsor (Weeks et al., 2008). It includes advertising, promotion, public relations, social media, sampling, direct marketing, internal marketing, hospitality, online, and business-to-business communications. The leveraging is often used interchangeably with activation (O'Reilly & Horning, 2013). The activation refers to the marketing activities that a company conducts to promote its sponsorship (IEG Sponsorship Report, 2010). Papadimitriou and

Apostolopoulou (2009) add a third synonym of ‘exploitation’ to the leveraging and activation. In the field of sport sponsorship, it is often called as ‘working dollars’ whereby the leveraging is considered ‘standard’ activities around sponsorship (e.g., associated commercials, advertising, and onsite product sampling), while the activation is regarded as activities that are ‘value-added’ creative efforts to maximize the effect of the sponsorship (e.g., hospitality, VIP hosting, and creative marketing) (Cornwell et al., 2005; Weeks et al., 2008). In summary, the leveraging – can be replaced by the activation – represents additional investments and activities in sponsorship beyond the rights fees paid to initially acquire a property and includes the use of marketing strategies with the objective of profiting from the association between a sponsored property and a sponsor.

Why do sponsors leverage their sponsorships? Three key reasons for the increased effects when the leveraging (or activation) is employed were suggested (O’Reilly & Horning, 2013). First, it can be creatively designed to break through heavy clutter (DeGaris et al., 2009; O’Keefe, Titlebaum, & Hill, 2009). As the popularity of sponsorship has increased, so too has the clutter (Cornwell et al., 2005). It has been much more difficult for consumers to seek out sponsors (Crimmins & Horn, 1996). Without an adequate promotion of the sponsorship relationship, the value of sponsorship might be null (Cornwell & Maignan, 1998). Thus, the sponsorship relationship must be leveraged to stand-out and connect with the intended audiences in a meaningful way (Bal, Quester, & Plewa, 2009; Quester & Thompson, 2001). Second, the leveraging can be an effective way to combat ambush marketing (Crompton, 2004; Shani & Sandler, 1998; Tripodi, 2001). According to Tripodi and Hirons (2009)’s study, three official sponsors of Sydney 2000 Olympic Games (i.e., Nike, Westpac Bank, and Ansett Airlines) actively leveraged their investments in a credible fashion to continuously remain in the public conscience against each competitive ambusher (i.e., Adidas, National Australia Bank, and Qantas Airline). However, the ambushers were equally

aggressive and committed significant resources in an attempt to neutralize the impact of the official sponsor's efforts. Consequently, the quick tail-off effect was observed at the end of the Olympic Games once their leveraging activities were reduced, then the levels of sponsorship awareness were quick to evaporate. Third, sponsors must activate their sponsoring rights in a manner that cannot be easily copied by competitors to differentiate themselves, which is called as an 'intangible asset' (Cornwell et al., 2001).

Due to the above significant effects, sponsors tend to spend more money on leveraging activities than rights fees; the leveraging ration is 1.6:1 (IEG Sponsorship Report, 2011). In terms of the leveraging methods, there are countless ways in practice: e.g., advertising, PR/media coverages, signages, store displays, coupons, samples, licensing/merchandizing, giveaways, SNS, campaigns, hospitality, business-to-business communications, and employee programs (O'Reilly & Horning, 2013). According to a report of IEG (2011), advertising and public relations indicated the two most popular forms of leveraging (77% and 76% of sponsors respectively), followed by internal communications (72%), online promotions (66%), hospitality (63%), direct marketing (55%), on-site sampling (52%), sales promotions (51%), and business-to-business communications (41%). Recent trends include social media activations, technology-based leveraging (e.g., mobile application), and still hospitality (Cornwell, 2014).

Attitude toward Sponsor

A consumer's attitude toward a sponsor is a pivotal factor for sponsorship effectiveness (Alexandris et al., 2007; Biscaia et al., 2003; Chen & Zhang, 2011). The effect of favorable attitude toward the sponsor can be explained by the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991) and schema-based affect theory (McDaniel & Heald, 2000). Attitude is defined as 'a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 1).' It can be formed through direct

experiences with an object or exposure to knowledge and messages (Albarracin, Johnson, & Zanna, 2005). An individual's beliefs about an object represent the basis of his or her attitude toward the object. The beliefs reflect its attributes, characteristics, outcome, goal, or value (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). These constructs are operationalized as a favorable disposition toward a sponsor (Meenaghan, 2001a). Rodgers (2004) supports this by suggesting that the attitude generally refers to how favorably or positively an object is viewed by individuals. Therefore, attitude toward the sponsor can be defined as a consumer's overall evaluation of an organization sponsoring a property (Keller, 2003). Firms engaging in sponsorship activities expect that sport consumers have the same positive feelings toward the sponsoring brand as they have toward their teams (Shaw & McDonald, 2006). Sport consumers tend to have favorable attitude toward the sponsors if they believe that the sponsorships are important to the teams (Cornwell et al., 2006; Madrigal, 2001). Furthermore, sponsor's favorability and transfer of goodwill are the specific consumer attitude that is targeted with sponsorship activities (Alexandris et al., 2007). For these reasons, it has been suggested that attitude toward the sponsor is an important predictor of purchase intentions (Koo et al., 2006; Speed & Thompson, 2000).

Schema-based affect theory is also useful in explaining how attitude toward the sponsor is formed (McDaniel & Heald, 2000). A schema is a category based on prior knowledge or experience with certain people, places, events, and so forth. These memory templates are generally organized into categories because they can be more easily retrieved in a consumer's mind than individual pieces of data (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). Such organized categories of information based on past experiences, such as a sponsored sporting event, aid individuals in understanding sensory information, facilitating the storage and retrieval of the information. The information stored in schematic fashion influences individuals' affective and behavioral responses (Fiske, 1982). For example, when an individual attended a baseball

game to watch his or her favorite team, he or she stores and categorizes memories of the experience based on aspects, such as players, an opposing team, or team sponsors. Then, when he or she considers the purchase of a certain product or service, the names of team sponsors would be more easily retrieved from his or her memory than non-sponsor names. Since these schematic memories influence consumers' behaviors (McDaniel & Heald, 2000), attitude toward the sponsors can have a strong impact once it has formed (Dees et al., 2008). Based on the above theoretical backgrounds, it can be suggested that attitude toward sponsor plays a significant role in predicting an individual's behavioral responses to the sponsor (Madrigal, 2001; Meenaghan, 2001a; Terry & Hogg, 1996).

Corporate Social Responsibility

This section suggests theoretical foundations of corporate social responsibility (CSR). First, a definition and conceptualization of CSR is reviewed. Second, a similar concept of CSR – Creating shared value (CSV) – is explained, then differences between two concepts are discussed. Lastly, CSR-linked sport sponsorship is explained.

Definition and Conceptualization

CSR (corporate social responsibility) is a concept that has attracted worldwide attention and acquired a new resonance in the global economy (Jamali & Mirshak, 2007). CSR refers to 'a commitment to improve community well-being through discretionary business practices and contribution of corporate resources (Kotler & Lee, 2004, p. 3).' CSR examines a firm's activities and status relative to its societal or stakeholder obligations (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001). It indicates a set of actions that appear to further the social good, going beyond the economic interests of firms, and participating in initiatives that are not required by law (McWilliams & Siegel, 2001). It is an expansive concept encompassing several defined spheres, including fundamental responsibilities of

profitability and conformance to required legal obligations (i.e., financial and legal responsibilities) along with an obligation to conform to behaviors and activities that are not required by law but are ethical norms of business (i.e., ethical responsibility) (Carroll, 1979). Hence, CSR executors are encouraged to show their discretionary responsibilities, which are composed of voluntary attempts to solve social issues (Carroll, 1979).

CSR have evolved from being portrayed as an altruistic behavior (Epstein, 1989; Godfrey, 2009) to that of an important business strategy and source of competitive advantage (Bradish & Cronin, 2009; Porter & Kramer, 2006). Such evolution results from the merging of institutional theory and classical economic theory, arriving at the premise that returns are high on CSR initiatives because transactions regarded as honest, trustworthy, and ethical are rewarded (Jones, 1995). As consumers generally do not seek out information about a firm's social behavior, the limited awareness of such CSR behavior is a major obstacle that weakens overall responses to CSR (Meijer & Schuyt, 2005; Walker & Kent, 2009). Recent studies indicate that most of consumers expect firms to demonstrate social responsibility. Consumers are increasingly critical about firms that are insufficient in or in the absence of CSR (Lacey & Kennett-Hensel, 2016). CSR typically plays a relatively limited role in initial brand choice (Mohr, Webb, & Harris, 2001). However, many consumers still view CSR behaviors as attractive attributes (Sen, Bhattacharya, & Korschun, 2006). Accordingly, CSR ultimately leads to stronger brand relationships: e.g., brand visibility, countering negative publicity, increased brand awareness, increased sales, repeat purchases, customer favorability, positive word-of-mouth, and brand advocacy (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006; Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Lacey & Kennett-Hensel, 2016; Lii & Lee, 2012; Pirsch, Gupta, & Grau, 2007; Robinson, Irmak, & Jayachandran, 2012; Varadarajan & Menon, 1988).

Difference between CSR and CSV

Creating shared value (CSV) is a novel concept arguing that a societal progress is at

the heart of a company's economic success, and addressing that society's issues holds ample opportunities for improved competitiveness and value creation of the company (Lapiņa, Borkus, & Stariņeca, 2012). Creating shared value refers to management activities that strengthen competitive advantages by realizing companies' traditional economic value and social value that participate in solving social problems (Porter & Kramer, 2011). Firms should address social issues by reorganizing their business actions that reflect both societal needs and their internal economic values. Shared value creation is a way of reconnecting a company with the society through identifying and expanding the connections between societal and economic progress. This represents recognizing societal needs not exclusively as a burden on the business that only brings higher costs, but as a way to improve business performance while creating added values for the society as well. The followings are good examples of exercising CSV (Kim, Baek, Byon, & Ju, 2020). In 2010, a global food company, Nestle, launched the Nescafe Plan, which provided its coffee farmers with high-quality coffee seedlings resistant to pests and training programs for coffee cultivation and living environment. Through this program, it provided an average of 26.8 million seedlings to the coffee farms and stably received 225,600 tons of coffee beans (Kang, 2016). Besides, Adidas also partnered with the marine environmental protection group Parley for the Oceans and introduced shoes that recycle marine waste and illegal deep-sea gillnets from yarn and filament uppers (Adidas News Site, 2020). Based on the definition and examples, CSV is a way of doing business that considers the society not just as external settings that a company is operating in, but as an integral part of the business (Porter & Kramer, 2011).

Businesses operating in earlier decades solely created profits. However, as businesses began to grow, their roles in developing the society have importantly been emphasized. The sole responsibility of business corporations moved from responsibility to solely shareholders, to responsibility to every stakeholder of businesses: e.g., employees,

government, creditors, and environment, which emphasizes the idea of CSR. Meanwhile, the increased competition in businesses has arose the arguments that firms should maximize profits rather than spend profits, resulting in the need for organizations to search for ways to merge two major objectives: profit maximization and social responsibility. These situations around businesses have led to the shift from CSR to CSV (Porter & Kramer, 2011).

Even though both CSR and CSV focus on societal needs, there are significant differences between the two approaches. CSR fundamentally takes resources from a firm's business, and invests the resources in being a good corporate citizen: recycling, giving money to social causes, and engaging employees in community works. In contrast, CSV aims to change how a firms' core business operates – strategy, people, processes, and rewards – with remaining bottom-line returns (Porter & Kramer, 2011). The principal distinction lies in the fact that CSR initiative is separate from a firm's business, while CSV integrates social issues into the business itself and thus drives economic values (Moore, 2014). CSV, unlike CSR, approaches a social issue in a manner that generates economic profits to a firm (Porter & Kramer, 2011). Furthermore, CSV is not about doing good and not about charity. The fundamental idea of CSV is based on the business opportunities that are embedded in meeting societal needs and it is prerequisite that final product or service values are created for both the firm and society (Moore, 2014). Meanwhile, CSR activities are largely driven by external pressures in the sense that a firm's stakeholder group would have. Given the above comparisons, it can be summarized that CSV is about expanding and sharing the created value between the firm and the society, whereas CSR is about creating value for only society (Porter & Kramer, 2011; see Figure 2.2 for differences between CSR and CSV).

CSR (corporate social responsibility)	CSV (creating shared value)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Value: doing good • Citizenship, philanthropy, sustainability • Discretionary or in response to external pressure • Separate from profit maximization • Agenda is determined by external reporting and personal preferences • Impact limited by corporate footprint and CSR budget 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Value: economic and societal benefit relative to cost • Joint company and community value creation • Integral to competing • Integral to profit maximization • Agenda is company specific and internally generated • Realigns the entire company budget

Figure 2.2. Differences between CSR and CSV

CSR-linked Sport Sponsorship

Based on the definition of CSR, CSR-linked sport sponsorship (i.e., the linkage of sport sponsorship with CSR activity) can be defined as a sponsor's commitment to improve community well-being through discretionary business practices and contribution of corporate resources surrounding a sporting event. For instance, Sony, a former sponsor of FIFA, launched an educational football project for over 14,000 children in Latin America to leverage its sponsorship of the 2014 FIFA World Cup in Brazil (Sony, 2014). Adidas, an official sponsor of FIFA, supported the South African Department of Education during the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa (FIFA, 2010). Dow chemical announced to contribute to carbon savings through anti-corrosion steel coatings with The IOC (Dow, 2020). In the field of professional sports leagues, Meiji Yasuda Life initiated walking events for people in each hometown of the J. League clubs with the J. League (Meiji Yasuda Life Insurance Company, 2020).

Linking sponsorship to CSR initiative occurs in the field of sport sponsorship more often than others. Sport industry has advantages over others when incorporating CSR activity because professional sports have developed a history of socially responsible activities

(Babiak & Wolfe, 2006). In particular, CSR-linked sponsorship might help to regain focus on the benefits of hosting a mega sporting event to the society (Habitzeuter & Koenigstorfer, 2018). The commercialization of professional sports has led to shift in values associated with hosting mega sporting events and reduction in residents' support for the events (Chatziefstathiou, 2005; Coates & Wicker, 2015), resulting in distancing hosting mega sporting events from perceptions of them as beneficial societal activities (Coakley & Souza, 2013). As the attention to contribute to sustainable society has been increased (The United Nations, 2015), more and more stakeholders expect sponsors to engage in addressing social issues (McCullough, 2015). Support for a cause in sponsorship as a part of CSR linkage strategy can be particularly relevant and attractive to sponsors (Dora, Fletcher, Pfeiffer, & Adair-Rohan, 2015; Plewa & Quester, 2011). Such recent perceptions of relationships between sports and society have justified why sponsors are strategically linking their sponsorships to CSR initiative (Habitzeuter & Koenigstorfer, 2018; Uhrich et al., 2014).

Sponsorship Articulation

This section presents theoretical backgrounds for Study 1. Firstly, how sponsorship articulation affects an incongruent relationship is discussed. Secondly, the effect of noncommercially-oriented versus commercially-oriented purpose articulation on attitude toward the sponsor is reviewed. Thirdly, the effect of mission overlap articulation on sponsor-property fit is explained. Finally, dimensions underlying the fit construct are reviewed.

The Role of Articulation in Incongruent Sponsorship

Congruity theory explains the role of articulation in incongruent information (Mandler, 1982). Individuals desire cognitive consistency. When they are exposed to information that is congruent with their preexisting beliefs, they have positive thoughts on it. It is difficult for individuals to understand incongruent information, so they negatively

evaluate it. However, if dissonant information becomes understandable through an additional statement (i.e., articulation), they possibly have favorable thoughts on it (Mandler, 1982).

Drawing on the congruity theory, articulation can be an effective communication strategy for sponsors who have no natural fit with the sponsored properties. Consumers are confused and cannot understand incongruent sponsorships (Alonso Dos Santos & Calabuig Moreno, 2018; Jagre et al., 2001; Mazodier & Quester, 2014). They will have negative thoughts on incongruent sponsors if their confusion remains unsolved (Madrigan & King, 2017). Articulation helps create a sponsor-property association in consumers' memories (Cornwell et al., 2006; Madrigal & King, 2018; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Through such articulation, consumers can perceive an improved degree of sponsor-property fit (Becker-Olsen & Simmons, 2002; King & Madrigal, 2018; Olson & Thjømmøe, 2011; Pappu & Cornwell, 2014). Then, confusions are resolved and consumers eventually become favorable toward the sponsor (Madrigan & King, 2018; Skard & Thorbjørnsen, 2017).

The Effect of Sponsorship Purpose Articulation

Several studies have focused on the purpose of sponsorship as articulation (Coppetti et al., 2009; Na & Kim, 2013; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Weeks et al., 2008). According to attribution theory, which denotes an individual's tendency to seek a reason for why a firm associates itself with a cause to shape his or her attitude toward the firm (Kelley & Michela, 1980), consumers tend to perceive a sponsor's motives for sponsorship as public-serving or firm-serving (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Ellen et al., 2006). Drawing on such motive attributions for sponsorship, prior research has examined the effects of two sponsorship purpose articulations on attitude toward the sponsor. In noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation, public-serving motive was more salient in consumers' minds than firm-serving motive, thus creating more positive attitude toward the sponsor (Coppetti et al., 2009; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). The commercially-oriented purpose articulation

led to less positive attitude toward the sponsor because the firm-serving motive was attributed more to the sponsor (Na & Kim, 2013; Weeks et al., 2008). However, these findings do not show whether both sponsorship purpose articulations created a sponsor-property association in consumers' memories. The attributed motives are more likely to cause consumers' affective responses (i.e., attitude toward the sponsor; Kim et al., 2015) rather than cognitive ones (i.e., sponsor-property fit; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999). Thus, it is insufficient to apply the motive attribution theory to the mediating mechanism of sponsor-property fit between the sponsorship purpose articulations and attitude toward the sponsor.

The Effect of Mission Overlap Articulation

Mission refers to the purpose of an organization's existence (Monday et al., 2015). It represents what the organization is providing to society (Rayne, McDonald, & Leckie, 2019; Stevenson, 2012). Considering this definition, a mission overlap between a sponsor and a sponsored property can be defined as a situation in which the sponsor and the property share common contributions to society through their businesses (Macdougall et al., 2014; Rayne et al., 2019). When such an overlapped-mission is articulated, consumers become exposed to the shared contributions to society between a sponsor and a sponsored property. Such shared contributions enable non-salient associations between the two entities to be salient in consumers' minds, then improving sponsor-property fit (Bridges et al., 2000; Kim et al., 2015; Park, Milberg, & Lawson, 1991; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Zdravkovic et al., 2010). For this reason, there have been many actual articulation cases of the mission overlap in the sponsorship field (Macdougall et al., 2014; Zdravkovic et al., 2010).

Fit Dimensions

Because of the great importance of high fit in achieving sponsorship goals (Cornwell et al., 2006; Cornwell et al., 2005; Koo & Lee, 2019; Olson & Thjøømøe, 2011; Speed &

Thompson, 2000), scholars have focused on understanding what dimensions could influence consumer judgments of the fit. Previous studies have identified several dimensions underlying the fit construct. Gwinner and Eaton (1999) suggested two aspects: (1) image-based (i.e., images of a brand are related to those of a sponsored property) and (2) functional-based fits (i.e., a brand's product is used by participants during a game). Fleck and Quester (2007) evaluated the fit construct depending on relevance – ‘the degree to which the information contained in the stimulus favors the identification of the theme or message being communicated (p. 976)’ – and expectancy – ‘the degree to which an item or information falls into a predetermined schema or a structure evoked by the theme (p. 976).’ Zdravkovic et al. (2010) identified 10 facets: (1) visibility of relationship, (2) relationship explicitness, (3) slogan, (4) mission, (5) visuals/color, (6) target market, (7) promotional activities, (8) geographic compatibility, (9) local attributes, and (10) active involvement.

However, the above dimensions did not explain how they predicted the overall fit construct. To fill this gap, six dimensions were suggested: (1) use (i.e., athletes' use of athletic shoes or sports drink, spectators drink beer while watching a game), (2) prominence (i.e., an object and a brand are both prominent or not prominent), (3) geographic (i.e., national brand and national team), (4) audience (i.e., an object's audience is a brand's target segment), (5) image (i.e., similar meanings or images of both a brand and an object), and (6) attitude fits (i.e., equal liking of both a brand and an object) (Olson & Thjømmøe, 2011). Though still insufficient to predict the whole fit construct, these dimensions are considered the most explicit and frequently-used fit dimensions (Bruhn & Holzer, 2015; Charlton & Cornwell, 2019).

CSR-CSI Domain Overlap

This section explains theoretical backgrounds for Study 2. First, the effect of CSR activity on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor is reviewed. Second, it is discussed what CSI is and how CSR activity in the face of CSI affects consumer perceptions. Thirdly, associative network memory model that explains the effects of CSR-CSI domain overlap conditions is reviewed, lastly motive attribution for sponsorship is presented.

The Effect of CSR Activity

Sponsors engage in CSR activity due to its positive effects on brand images. CSR refers to ‘a commitment to improve community well-being through discretionary business practices and contribution of corporate resources (Kotler & Lee, 2004, p. 3).’ Consumers usually have a good image toward CSR initiatives (Babiak & Wolfe, 2006; Ellen et al., 2006). Such a good image is transferred to sponsors by linking sponsorships to CSR activities, creating positive attitude toward the sponsors (Lacey et al., 2010).

The transfer process can be explained by the theory of meaning transfer. Meaning refers to an overall assessment of what an object represents to consumers (McCracken, 1986). When an individual is exposed to an object, he or she attributes meaning to the object based on his or her cultural experiences. If an individual simultaneously experiences two objects, they are coupled in his or her mind, and the meaning of one object is transferred to the other object (McCracken, 1989). For example, celebrity endorsements are perceived as positive meanings because favorable meanings of celebrities are transferred to products being endorsed (McCracken, 1986). Applying this notion to a sponsor’s CSR engagement, when an individual is exposed to a sponsor’s CSR activity, a meaning of ‘doing good for society’ is transferred to the sponsor (Gwinner, 1997; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999). Through such transfer process, consumers have positive thoughts on the sponsor (Ellen et al., 2006; Lacey et al., 2010). The positive effect of CSR activity on attitude toward the sponsor has been

highlighted in prior studies (Flöter et al., 2016; Habitzreuter & Koenigstorfer, 2018; Plewa & Quester, 2011; Uhrich et al., 2014).

Corporate Social Irresponsibility

CSI (corporate social irresponsibility) – defined as ‘firm-induced incidents that appear to hurt the social good (Kang et al., 2016, p. 60)’ – is a phenomenon that is encountered time and again. For instance, price-fixing scandals have occurred frequently in the detergent market (e.g., P&G, Unilever; Wearden, 2011) and in the market for elevators and escalators (e.g., ThyssenKrupp, KONE, and Mitsubishi; European Commission, 2007). Moreover, corruption scandals surfaced repeatedly: e.g., Siemens (Schubert & Miller, 2008), Daimler (Clark, 2010). Further examples are accounting scandals (e.g., Enron, WorldCom, and Parmalat; Clarke, 2007) and large-scale environmental disasters (e.g., the BP oil spill in the Gulf of Mexico; Lin-Hi & Blumberg, 2011).

In general, CSI can be distinguished into two forms: intentional and unintentional CSI (Lin-Hi & Müller, 2013). The intentional CSI implies that corporations deliberately perform actions that harm others. For example, it includes bribery, issuing excessive bills, illegal industrial waste disposal, and tax evasion. The intentional CSI is usually caused by the aim to achieve a higher level of profits. It usually represents a means for realizing specific objectives. For instance, bribery facilitates the acquisition of lucrative contracts and disposing of waste illegally can be an effective way of reducing costs. The intentional CSI involves corporate efforts to conceal CSI (Lin-Hi & Müller, 2013). In contrast, a key characteristic of the unintentional CSI is that the harm to others is not inflicted deliberately by a firm. Hence, it is not employed to achieve a certain objective. Rather, it has a character of an unanticipated by-product of certain activities. A variety of different antecedents of the unintentional CSI exist. It can be driven by external factors, such as an earthquake which can lead to the explosion of a power plant. It can also be led by unforeseen contingencies when potentially

lethal side effects of a drug only appear after the market introduction. Further examples include the cases where children are employed or prohibited chemical substances without a firm's knowledge are used in the supply chain (Kreps, 1990).

Due to the complexity involved in corporate value creation, firms cannot entirely rule out the possibility that they may become embroiled in CSI. The more complex a firm's business, the more likely CSI will occur (Strike, Gao, & Bansal, 2006). However, this does not relieve the firms' responsibility to permanently strive to prevent their CSI. The unintentional damage to others does not even imply that they are not entirely innocent. They could fail to protect power plants against earthquakes or neglect to constantly pursue information about side effects of drugs (Lin-Hi & Müller, 2013).

Consumer Perception of CSR Activity in the Face of CSI

CSR activity in the face of CSI can be interpreted as insincere. According to stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984), firms are viewed as a nexus of implicit or explicit contracts with stakeholders who can affect or are affected by the achievement of firms. CSR initiatives help firms to establish their competitive advantages through trusting stakeholder relationships (Barnett, 2007). The trust can be described as confidence in someone's reliability and integrity (Morgan & Hunt, 1994). It also involves conviction that someone behaves with ethical rightness (Greenwood & Van Buren, 2010). CSR activities signal firms' trustworthiness among stakeholders due to their efforts to cherish social issues and stakeholders' welfares (Brown & Dacin, 1997; Homburg, Stierl, & Bornemann, 2013).

However, stakeholders perceive CSR activity in the face of CSI as less favorable (Mishra & Modi, 2016; Price & Sun, 2017; Strike et al., 2006). CSI is defined as 'firm-induced incidents that appear to hurt the social good (Kang et al., 2016, p. 60).' Examples of CSI include the violation of human rights, price-fixing, and large-scale environmental disasters (Lin-Hi & Müller, 2013). CSI represents a negative deviation from behavioral norm

that is diagnostic of true underlying characteristics of a target being evaluated (Mishina, Block, & Mannor, 2012). It implies counterevidence that hurts positive perceptions of CSR (Godfrey et al., 2009; Lin-Hi & Müller, 2013), damaging a firm's trustworthiness among stakeholders (Ahluwalia, Burnkrant, & Unnava, 2000; Groza, Pronschinske, & Walker, 2011; Stähler & Fischer, 2020). For such negative aspects of CSI, consumers are more likely to interpret CSR effort as opportunistic when a firm engages in CSR initiative as a form of offsetting its past CSI (Yoon et al., 2006). Consumers believe that firms should change their businesses if they really want to be responsible to their past CSI (Banerjee, 2008; Kang et al., 2016). Thus, such strategic CSR engagements are perceived as hypocritical attempts to greenwash their CSI (Janney & Gove, 2011). Firms with CSI need to be careful in engaging in CSR activity since such perceived hypocrisy can nullify good deeds (Arli, Grace, Palmer, & Pham, 2017; Shim & Yang, 2016; Wagner, Lutz, & Weitz, 2009).

Associative Network Memory Model

Associative network memory model can be used to understand how consumers interpret CSR activity that is strongly or weakly associated with CSI. The associative network memory model addresses that individuals' stored information relating to objects (i.e., nodes) is connected to one another in their memories (Anderson, 1983). The nodes represent stored information in individuals' memories. The information that can be stored in a memory network include things of a verbal, visual, abstract or contextual nature. The links between the nodes represent the strength of associations between the nodes (Keller, 2003). If a node is activated in consumers' memories, other associated nodes are simultaneously activated through the associative network (Anderson, 1983). For example, if product A is a node, its attributes, such as design, quality, and color, represent other nodes that are linked to it and form the associative network. When consumers are exposed to CSR activity, CSI and CSR domain can be connected to CSR activity as other nodes in their memories. The critical extent

of spreading activation is determined by the strength of associations between nodes (Keller, 1993). Thus, it is expected that the strength of associations between CSR domain and CSI domain decides the degree of such spreading activation.

Motive Attribution for Sponsorship

Attribution theory offers a theoretical foundation for understanding the effects of corporate motives that consumers attribute to CSR initiative (Lange & Washburn, 2012). The attribution theory posits that consumers make causal inferences given the context of events (Hastie, 1984). Such causal inferences are based on consumers' subjective assessments of the events. The perspective of the attribution theory states that consumers assign organizational motives to CSR activity when they are exposed to CSR information. Namely, consumers are interested in why a firm engages in CSR initiative, and they search for motives associated with such a prosocial behavior (Piliavin & Charng, 1990). With regard to such attributions of corporate motives for CSR activity, two prominent motives exist. Consumers usually attribute a firm's CSR engagement to either public-serving (i.e., intrinsic) or firm-serving (i.e., extrinsic) motives (Barone et al., 2000; Ellen et al., 2006; Forehand & Grier, 2003). Public-serving motives relate to the benefits of people outside the firm. When the motives behind it is perceived as serving public, a firm's genuine interest in social issues becomes prevalent, resulting in favorable thoughts on the firm (Baek et al., 2017; Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Groza et al., 2011; Plewa, Carrillat, Mazodier, & Quester, 2016). Meanwhile, consumers tend to interpret a firm's CSR engagement as a strategic activity to make profits by improving brand images (Forehand & Grier, 2003; Rifon et al., 2004; Walker, Heere, Parent, & Drane, 2010). In these cases, they attribute firm-serving motives to the firm (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006). Such perceived firm-serving motives arouse suspicion of the CSR effort, generating a great number of unfavorable thoughts on the firm (Barone, Norman, & Miyazaki, 2007; Campbell & Kirmani, 2000; Du, Bhattacharya, & Sen, 2010; Kim & Choi, 2018).

CHAPTER 3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Overview

First, this chapter suggests theoretical frameworks and hypotheses of Study 1. Then, those of Study 2 are developed. An overview of all the hypotheses is presented at the end of this chapter.

Study 1: Sponsorship Articulation

Based on six fit dimensions from Olson and Thjømmøe (2011), commercial purpose articulation may activate associations of fewer fit dimensions in consumers' memories than noncommercial purpose articulation. The commercial articulation highlights how a brand's target segments are congruent with a sponsored property's audiences (Cornwell et al., 2006; King & Madrigal, 2018; Olson & Thjømmøe, 2011). Thus, the commercial purpose articulation can facilitate an association among the audience fit in consumers' memories. The associated audience fit can then improve the overall degree of sponsor-property fit. In incongruent sponsorship, there are few associations of the fit dimensions between a sponsor and a sponsored property (Olson & Thjømmøe, 2011). Hence, consumers perceive the sponsor as poorly fitted with the property as they have very limited information that can be activated when they interpret the sponsorship link (Cornwell et al., 2006; Koo & Lee, 2019; Zdravkovic & Till, 2012). In cases where the commercial purpose is articulated, however, the associated audience fit between the two entities becomes linked to sponsorship, and consumers will view the higher degree of sponsor-property fit by the associated audience fit.

Noncommercial purpose articulation may activate associations of image and attitude fits. Consumers usually have a good image toward firms that initiate activities to serve society (Blake et al., 2019; Brown & Dacin, 1997; Cho, Kim, & Kaplanidou, 2020; D'Astous & Bitz, 1995; Eddy & Cork, 2019). Such a good image leads to favorable attitude toward the

firms (Irwin, Lachowetz, Cornwell, & Clark, 2003; Kim & Kim, 2009; Kim, Ko, Lee, & Kim, 2020; Speed & Thompson, 2000; Stipp & Schiavone, 1996). Hence, the noncommercial articulation helps consumers attribute a good image to the sponsor, which lead to their favorable attitude toward the sponsor. In sport sponsorships, consumers represent fans or those who are interested in sports teams, leagues, or events (Biscaia et al., 2017; Devlin & Billings, 2018; Kim, Trail, Woo, & Zhang, 2011). Their interest leads them to have favorable images and attitude toward sports properties (Baek et al., 2020; Madrigal, 2001; Meenaghan, 2001; Wann & Branscombe, 1993). Thus, they are more likely to perceive the image and attitude fits between the two entities when the noncommercial purpose is articulated. These two associated fit dimensions can then improve the overall degree of sponsor-property fit (Olson & Thjømmøe, 2011). On the contrary, the commercial articulation is expected to be difficult to activate such associations because consumers tend to have unfavorable thoughts for commercial purposes (Barone et al., 2007; Rifon et al., 2004).

Based on these arguments, it is expected that the noncommercial purpose articulation activates the associations of more fit dimensions than the commercial purpose articulation (i.e., two associated fit dimensions [image, attitude] vs. a single associated fit dimension [audience]). In incongruent sponsorships, use fit is rarely perceived by consumers (Olson & Thjømmøe, 2011). Prominence and geographic fits are based on firm or industry types (Jensen et al., 2020). The noncommercial purpose articulation that engages in more fit dimensions can improve the overall degree of sponsor-property fit more than the commercial purpose articulation that engages in less fit dimensions. Thus, consumers will have more favorable attitude toward the sponsor with the noncommercial purpose articulation based on congruity theory (Mandler, 1982). Hypotheses were proposed as follows (see Figure 3.1):

Hypothesis 1a: The noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation (vs. the commercially-oriented purpose articulation) more positively affects sponsor-property fit.

Hypothesis 1b: The noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation (vs. the commercially-oriented purpose articulation) more positively affects attitude toward the sponsor.

Hypothesis 1c: Sponsor-property fit mediates the relationship between sponsorship purpose articulation and attitude toward the sponsor.

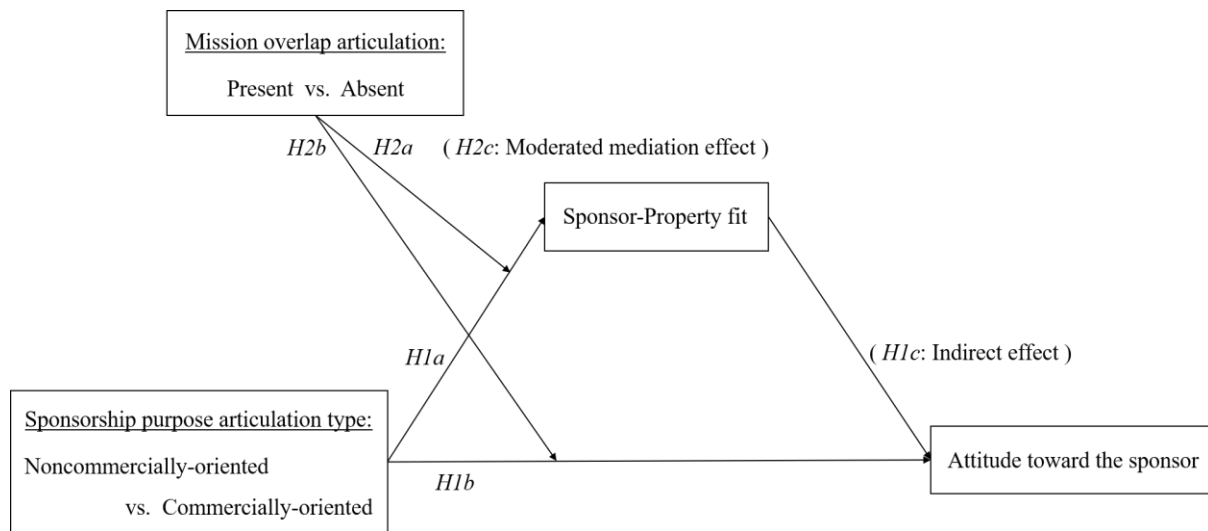


Figure 3.1. Hypotheses of Study 1

An overlapped-mission between a sponsor and a sponsored property that was simultaneously articulated with each sponsorship purpose message can facilitate associations of other fit dimensions that were uncovered by purpose articulation. Such effects may be more evident when articulated with a commercially-oriented purpose message than a noncommercially-oriented purpose message. The overlapped-mission does not show the direct intention to initiate a prosocial action. However, the prosocial aspects of the sponsor and those of the property can be conveyed as well-fitted, which possibly helps activate associations of the image and attitude fits, improving the overall degree of sponsor-property

fit (Olson & Thjømmøe, 2011). The commercially-oriented purpose message is unlikely to create such associations of the image and attitude fits. Hence, the effect of the mission overlap articulation is expected to be more prominent when articulated with the commercial purpose message. Such effects are more likely to attenuate the less positive effects of the commercially-oriented purpose articulation on sponsor-property fit and attitude toward the sponsor. Based on these arguments, the moderating effects were hypothesized (see Figure 3.1):

Hypothesis 2a: Mission overlap articulation negatively moderates the direct effect of sponsorship purpose articulation on sponsor-property fit, such that the less positive effect of the commercially-oriented purpose articulation is weaker when the mission overlap is simultaneously articulated.

Hypothesis 2b: Mission overlap articulation negatively moderates the direct effect of sponsorship purpose articulation on attitude toward the sponsor, such that the less positive effect of the commercially-oriented purpose articulation is weaker when the mission overlap is simultaneously articulated.

Hypothesis 2c: Mission overlap articulation negatively moderates the indirect effect of sponsorship purpose articulation on attitude toward the sponsor via sponsor-property fit, such that the less positive effect of the commercially-oriented purpose articulation is weaker when the mission overlap is simultaneously articulated.

Study 2: CSR-CSI Domain Overlap

In cases where CSR activity is strongly associated with CSI, positive perceptions of CSR can be damaged by the presence of CSI. Consumers evaluate CSR against knowledge of other socially relevant actions such as CSI (Barnett, 2007). Thus, they usually use CSI as a cue for interpreting CSR (Schuler & Cording, 2006). In particular, they categorize CSR and CSI into domains such as employee relations, human rights, and environment (Sen & Bhattacharya, 2001) on the basis of the higher order attributes that characterize these domains (Rosch & Mervis, 1975). Individuals, for example, perceive firm actions contributing to operational safety and health programs (i.e., CSR) and downsizing the workforce (i.e., CSI) as belonging to same category of employee relations (Lenz et al., 2017). If CSR and CSI share higher order attributes that are tied to same domain, CSI might become more accessible to consumers. This process can be explained by associative network memory model (Anderson, 1983). It addresses that individuals' stored information relating to objects (i.e., nodes) is connected to one another in their memories. Based on such associative network memory model, CSI and CSR domain are expected to be connected to CSR activity as other nodes when consumers are exposed to the CSR activity (Mishra & Modi, 2016; Schuler & Cording, 2006). If CSR and CSI share similar attributes that can be categorized into same domain, such overlapped-domains will facilitate the extent to which CSI is activated in consumers' memories through the associative network memory model. The activated CSI can cause a social responsibility dilemma because moral values conveyed by the CSR activity clash with bad deeds (Kang et al., 2016; Kotchen & Moon, 2012; Yoon et al., 2006). Hence, such perceived dilemma will restrict the process in which a good image of the CSR activity is transferred to a sponsoring firm (Lenz et al., 2017; Wagner et al., 2009), resulting in reducing consumers' CSR perceptions of the sponsor (Jahn & Brühl, 2019). It is then expected that consumers show less favorable attitude toward the sponsor since CSR perception of sponsor

functions as a crucial mediator to create favorable attitude toward the sponsor (Flöter et al., 2016; Uhrich et al., 2014). Based on these arguments, the current study hypothesized a mediation chain incorporating CSR perception of sponsor as well as a direct relationship between the CSR-CSI domain overlap and attitude toward the sponsor.

If CSR and CSI are categorized into different thematic domains, CSI is expected to be less accessible to consumers. For instance, an automobile company is irresponsible to huge CO₂ emissions, but engages in helping out children in poverty. In this case, it would be difficult to find a direct association between CSR and CSI (Lenz et al., 2017). Thus, CSI will be hard to be activated in consumers' memories, which possibly lead consumers to experience the explicit transfer process of a good image from CSR activity to a sponsor (Jahn & Brühl, 2019; Wagner et al., 2009). Consumers are more likely to show higher CSR perceptions of the sponsor, then more favorable attitude toward the sponsor (Flöter et al., 2016; Uhrich et al., 2014). Based on these theoretical backgrounds, CSR activity that is strongly associated with CSI (i.e., the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition) will lead to less positive attitude toward the sponsor than CSR activity that is weakly associated with CSI (i.e., the low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition). Furthermore, CSR perception of sponsor will mediate the relationship between the CSR-CSI domain overlap and attitude toward the sponsor. Hypotheses were proposed as the following (see Figure 3.2):

Hypothesis 3a: Consumers in the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition (vs. those in the low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition) show lower CSR perception of sponsor.

Hypothesis 3b: Consumers in the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition (vs. those in the low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition) show less favorable attitude toward the sponsor.

Hypothesis 3c: CSR perception of sponsor mediates the relationship between the CSR-CSI domain overlap and attitude toward the sponsor.

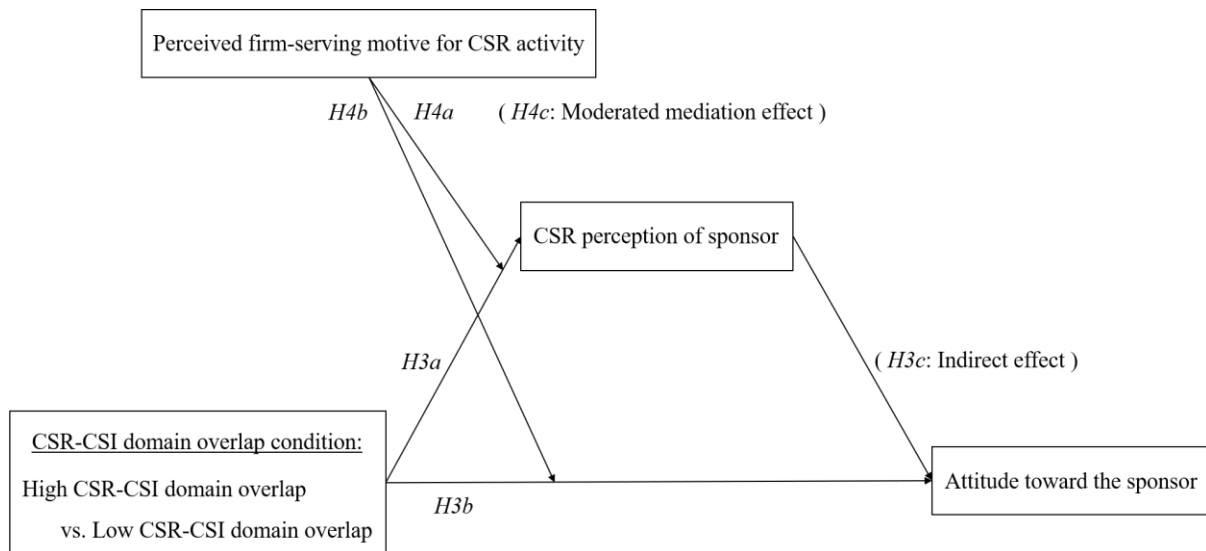


Figure 3.2. Hypotheses of Study 2

Once consumers attribute firm-serving to a sponsor's motive behind CSR activity rather than public-serving, the positive effect of CSR activity is more likely to be reduced regardless of the domain overlap conditions. In particular, such a firm-serving motive will attenuate the positive effect of the low CSR-CSI domain overlap. The low domain overlap restricts the activation of CSI in consumers' memories. However, if the sponsor is attributed as firm-serving, consumers must be suspicious that it is serious about solving social issues (Campbell & Kirmani, 2000; Ellen et al., 2006). Consumers are then expected to reduce their CSR perceptions, which result that the low CSR-CSI domain overlap strategy will be less effective in creating favorable attitude toward the sponsor. Hence, the moderating effects were hypothesized as follows (see Figure 3.2):

Hypothesis 4a: Perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity positively moderates the direct effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap on CSR perception of sponsor, such that the positive effect of the low CSR-CSI domain overlap is weaker when perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity is higher.

Hypothesis 4b: Perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity positively moderates the direct effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap on attitude toward the sponsor, such that the positive effect of the low CSR-CSI domain overlap is weaker when perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity is higher.

Hypothesis 4c: Perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity positively moderates the indirect effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor, such that the positive effect of the low CSR-CSI domain overlap is weaker when perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity is higher.

Overview of the Hypothesis

Through the literature review, this research proposed 12 hypotheses: six for Study 1 and six for Study 2. All the hypotheses are summarized in this section.

A total of six hypotheses for Study 1 are listed as follows:

- *H1a:* The noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation (vs. the commercially-oriented purpose articulation) more positively affects sponsor-property fit.
- *H1b:* The noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation (vs. the commercially-oriented purpose articulation) more positively affects attitude toward the sponsor.
- *H1c:* Sponsor-property fit mediates the relationship between sponsorship purpose articulation and attitude toward the sponsor.
- *H2a:* Mission overlap articulation negatively moderates the direct effect of sponsorship purpose articulation on sponsor-property fit, such that the less positive effect of the commercially-oriented purpose articulation is weaker when the mission overlap is simultaneously articulated.
- *H2b:* Mission overlap articulation negatively moderates the direct effect of sponsorship purpose articulation on attitude toward the sponsor, such that the less positive effect of the commercially-oriented purpose articulation is weaker when the mission overlap is simultaneously articulated.

- *H2c*: Mission overlap articulation negatively moderates the indirect effect of sponsorship purpose articulation on attitude toward the sponsor via sponsor-property fit, such that the less positive effect of the commercially-oriented purpose articulation is weaker when the mission overlap is simultaneously articulated.

A total of six hypotheses for Study 2 are presented as follows:

- *H3a*: Consumers in the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition (vs. those in the low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition) show lower CSR perception of sponsor.
- *H3b*: Consumers in the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition (vs. those in the low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition) show less favorable attitude toward the sponsor.
- *H3c*: CSR perception of sponsor mediates the relationship between the CSR-CSI domain overlap and attitude toward the sponsor.
- *H4a*: Perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity positively moderates the direct effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap on CSR perception of sponsor, such that the positive effect of the low CSR-CSI domain overlap is weaker when perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity is higher.
- *H4b*: Perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity positively moderates the direct effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap on attitude toward the sponsor, such that the positive effect of the low CSR-CSI domain overlap is weaker when perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity is higher.
- *H4c*: Perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity positively moderates the indirect effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor, such that the positive effect of the low CSR-CSI domain overlap is weaker when perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity is higher.

CHAPTER 4. STUDY 1: SPONSORSHIP ARTICULATION

Overview

This chapter presents the methods and results of Study 1. It conducts an experiment survey to test Hypothesis 1 and 2. Hence, in terms of the methods, the experiment design and stimuli developments are first explained; the pretest is executed; participants are introduced; measurements are presented; analyses are described. The results are presented as two parts: (1) descriptive statistics and (2) hypotheses testing.

Method

Experiment Design and Stimulus Development

This study employed a 2 (purpose articulation type: noncommercially-oriented vs. commercially-oriented) \times 2 (mission overlap articulation condition: present vs. absent) between-subjects experimental design with a control condition. The author developed two fictitious press releases, one emphasizing the sponsor's noncommercial purpose for sponsorship and the other highlighting the sponsor's commercial purpose for sponsorship, for the noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation and commercially-oriented purpose, respectively (see Table 4.1). The present condition of mission overlap articulation was designed as a fictitious release that explained the overlapped-mission between the sponsor and the property, whereas the absent condition had no explanation for the mission overlap in the fictitious release. For the control condition, the author used a fictitious press release without articulation.

A fictitious sponsorship was developed. The use of fictitious stimuli is beneficial for minimizing unintended influences of external factors (e.g., likeability, familiarity; Sato, Ko, Kaplanidou, & Connaughton, 2016). The author also considered external validity. A real sports property and a real firm were employed to develop the fictitious sponsorship. The

Japanese Professional Football League (J. League) was selected as the sports property. A group discussion was held to identify a sponsor that was poorly fitted with the J. League; five graduate students majoring in sport management participated and were asked to rank four Japanese firms based on the degree of fit between each firm and the J. League. The four firms were listed from four industries (i.e., financial, household product, IT, and electronic product industries) that were indicated as incongruent with football properties in previous studies (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Olson & Thjøømøe, 2011). The listed-firms have not sponsored the J. League or the teams. After ranking, the participants shared each rank and chose the firm that had the lowest fit with the J. League through the discussion. “The household product firm” was consequently identified as the lowest-fitted sponsor, and a sponsorship between this and the J. League was employed as a research context. A total of five sponsorship press releases were created (see Table 4.1).

Subjects were randomly assigned to one of the five scenarios, and subsequently answered a series of questionnaire items that measured sponsor-property fit (i.e., mediator) and attitude toward the sponsor (i.e., dependent variable). They were also queried about their behavioral identification with the J. League (Matsuoka, Chelladurai, & Harada, 2003) to check whether they were consumers of the same. Finally, they were explained that the scenarios were all fictional and then debriefed.

Table 4.1. *Fictitious sponsorship releases used in Study 1*

Control condition: No articulation
<i>A firm, a household product firm, announced that it signed an official sponsorship arrangement with the J. League commencing from the next season.</i>
Condition 1: Noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation
<i>A firm, a household product firm, announced that it signed an official sponsorship arrangement with the J. League commencing from the next season. The firm said that sponsoring the J. League would be the most ideal way to support the sustainable and healthy development of local communities because the J. League’s clubs are present all across the country. It is said that the firm plans to hold free soccer schools to develop healthy youths.</i>
Condition 2: Commercially-oriented purpose articulation
<i>A firm, a household product firm, announced that it signed an official sponsorship arrangement with the J. League commencing from the next season. The firm said that sponsoring the J. League would be the most ideal marketing strategy to achieve their future business expansion to new markets because the J. League has many fans all across the country. It is said that the firm plans to carry out promotional activities targeting the J. League’s fans.</i>
Condition 3: Noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation & Mission overlap articulation
<i>A firm, a household product firm, announced that it signed an official sponsorship arrangement with the J. League commencing from the next season. The firm said that sponsoring the J. League would be the most ideal way to support the sustainable and healthy development of local communities because the J. League’s clubs are present all across the country. It is said that the firm plans to hold free soccer schools to develop healthy youths. The firm also said that the shared-mission between its mission to “contribute to the realization of the enriching living culture for people nationwide in the fields of cleanliness and beauty” and the J. League’s mission to “foster the development of Japan’s sporting culture and assist in the healthy mental and physical growth of the Japanese” motivated this sponsorship arrangement.</i>
Condition 4: Commercially-oriented purpose articulation & Mission overlap articulation
<i>A firm, a household product firm, announced that it signed an official sponsorship arrangement with the J. League commencing from the next season. The firm said that sponsoring the J. League would be the most ideal marketing strategy to achieve their future business expansion to new markets because the J. League has many fans all across the country. It is said that the firm plans to carry out promotional activities targeting the J. League’s fans. The firm also said that the shared-mission between its mission to “contribute to the realization of the enriching living culture for people nationwide in the fields of cleanliness and beauty” and the J. League’s mission to “foster the development of Japan’s sporting culture and assist in the healthy mental and physical growth of the Japanese” motivated this sponsorship arrangement.</i>

Note. The sponsor’s name used in Study 1 was “A firm.”

Pretest

This study executed a pretest to perform a manipulation check of three articulation messages. Three scenarios with a noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation message, commercially-oriented purpose articulation message, or mission overlap articulation message were prepared to assess the perceptions of articulation messages. A total of 77 undergraduate students participated in the pretest based on a questionnaire survey (Male = 77.9%; $M_{age} =$

20.0) and were randomly assigned to one of the three scenarios. They subsequently read the scenario and answered three questions related to the perceived degrees of noncommercially-oriented purpose, commercially-oriented purpose, and overlapped-mission toward the assigned scenario. The degrees were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). The degrees were compared by analysis of variance (ANOVA) using IBM SPSS Statistics 26.0 between three groups.

The results of ANOVA indicated that, in terms of the degree of noncommercially-oriented purpose, participants perceived higher and significant degrees for the scenario with the noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation ($M = 5.85$, $SD = .93$) than the one with the commercially-oriented purpose articulation ($M = 4.59$, $SD = 1.31$; $F[2,74] = 7.86$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .18$, observed power = .95). However, they reported non-significant degrees toward the scenario with the noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation compared to the one with the mission overlap articulation ($M = 5.33$, $SD = 1.20$). Regarding the degree of commercially-oriented purpose, the scenario with commercially-oriented purpose articulation ($M = 5.81$, $SD = .92$) led to higher and significant degrees than the one with the noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation ($M = 4.81$, $SD = 1.58$), but non-significant degrees compared to the one with the mission overlap articulation ($M = 5.31$, $SD = 1.32$; $F[2,74] = 4.18$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .10$, observed power = .72). Finally, the scenario with the mission overlap articulation ($M = 5.75$, $SD = .94$) caused higher and significant degrees of overlapped-mission than the one with noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation ($M = 4.92$, $SD = 1.50$) and commercially-oriented purpose articulation ($M = 4.78$, $SD = .97$; $F[2,74] = 5.01$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .12$, observed power = .80). The results indicated that it was not successful to distinguish the degrees of noncommercially-oriented purpose between the scenario with the mission overlap articulation and the one with the noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation, nor the degree of commercially-oriented purpose between the scenario

with the mission overlap articulation and the one with the commercially-oriented purpose articulation. Given the small sample size, however, there is a possibility of generating significant differences in the aforementioned degrees as more samples are added. Moreover, the scenario with the mission overlap articulation led to significant and higher degrees of overlapped-mission compared to the other two scenarios. Hence, the author decided that the manipulation of three articulation messages was sufficient for testing the hypotheses.

Participants

Using five types of the J. League sponsorship press release, this study collected data from undergraduate students in a Japanese university in the metropolitan Tokyo area. Student samples have been employed for experimental and theoretical testing in previous sponsorship studies (Dick, 2019; Flöter et al., 2016; Kwon & Shin, 2020; Uhrich et al., 2014). The author conducted a questionnaire survey, prior to which students were informed that participation was voluntary. A total of 208 students participated in the survey experiment. They first read the release and then answered three items on behavioral identification with the J. League (e.g., *During the season, how frequently do you follow the J. League via television?*; Matsuoka et al., 2003). The items were measured on a 5-point ordinal scale (i.e., *always, usually, sometimes, rarely, and never*). Thirty-seven students who answered “*never*” to all three items were excluded because they were not interested in the J. League. As a result, 171 useful samples were employed for further analyses: $n_{\text{no articulation}} = 34$, $n_{\text{noncommercially-oriented purpose}} = 34$, $n_{\text{commercially-oriented purpose}} = 34$, $n_{\text{noncommercial purpose \& mission overlap}} = 33$, $n_{\text{commercial purpose \& mission overlap}} = 36$.

Measurements

A total of 171 samples answered two measurement scales. Sponsor-property fit was measured through four items using a 7-point Likert-type scale (Speed & Thompson, 2000;

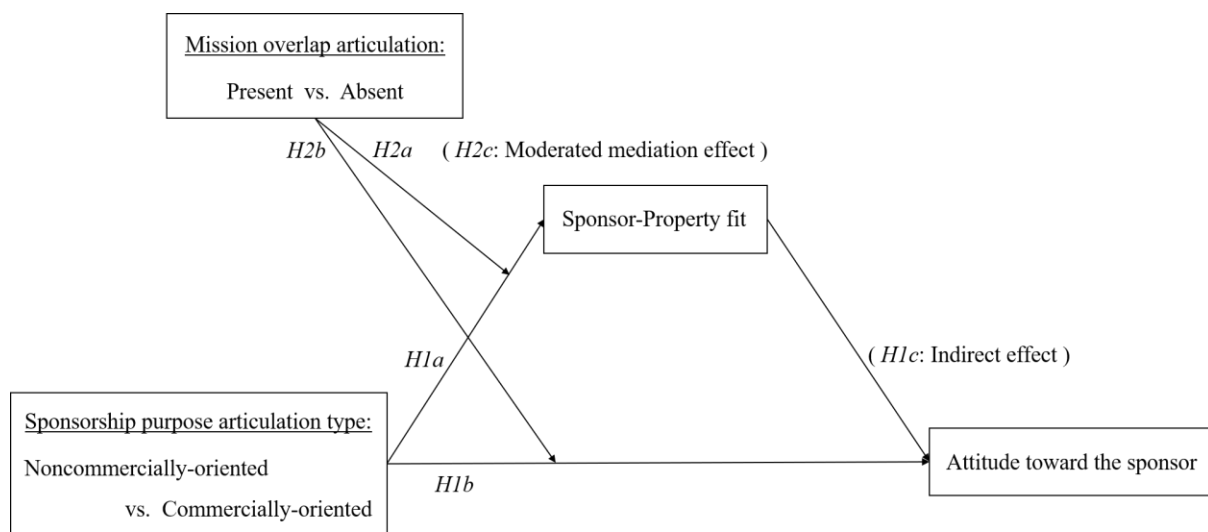
see Table 4.2), which demonstrated adequate reliability ($\alpha = .84$; Nunnally, 1978). Attitude toward the sponsor was assessed through four items using a 7-point semantic differential scale (Ruth & Simonin, 2003; Speed & Thompson, 2000), maintaining adequate reliability ($\alpha = .87$). Gender and age of the samples were employed as covariates. Gender was coded 0 for male and 1 for female. Figure 4.1 shows the final version of research model and hypotheses in Study 1.

Table 4.2. *Measurement scales used in Study 1*

Factors	Items
Sponsor-Property fit (Speed & Thompson, 2000)	There is a logical connection between <the sponsor> and the J. League. <The sponsor> and the J. League fit together well. <The sponsor> and the J. League stand for similar things. It makes sense to me that <the sponsor> sponsors the J. League.
Attitude toward the sponsor (Ruth & Simonin, 2003; Speed & Thompson, 2000)	Good – Bad Like – Dislike Positive – Negative Favorable – Unfavorable

Note 1. Sponsor-Property fit: A 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*).

Note 2. Attitude toward the sponsor: A 7-point semantic differential scale (1 = *Bad* to 7 = *Good*).



Covariates: (1) Gender, (2) Age

Figure 4.1. Final version of research model and hypotheses in Study 1

Analyses

Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was first conducted to check if two articulations of the sponsorship purpose led to the higher degree of sponsor-property fit than the no articulation condition. Then, hypotheses were tested by Hayes' PROCESS macro model 8 (Hayes, 2017). The data analyses were executed using IBM SPSS Statistics 26.0.

Results

Descriptive Statistics

The demographics of samples indicated that the proportion of males (66.7%) was higher than females (33.3%) and the average age was 19.4 years. The samples reported mean scores and standard deviations of two measurement variables as follows: $M_{\text{fit}} = 4.13$, $SD = .96$; $M_{\text{attitude}} = 4.83$, $SD = .75$. Table 4.3 exhibits mean scores and standard deviations of all items.

Table 4.3. *Descriptive statistics for measurement scales in Study 1*

Construct items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Sponsor-Property fit		
There is a logical connection between <the sponsor> and the J. League.	4.49	1.24
<The sponsor> and the J. League fit together well.	4.23	1.10
<The sponsor> and the J. League stand for similar things.	3.46	1.20
It makes sense to me that <the sponsor> sponsors the J. League.	4.35	1.13
Attitude toward the sponsor		
Good – Bad	5.01	.91
Like – Dislike	4.54	.82
Positive – Negative	4.95	.90
Favorable – Unfavorable	4.80	.91

Note 1. *M* = mean score; *SD* = standard deviation.

Note 2. Sponsor-Property fit: A 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*).

Note 3. Attitude toward the sponsor: A 7-point semantic differential scale (1 = *Bad* to 7 = *Good*).

Hypothesis Testing

Before testing hypotheses, the author assessed whether two articulations of the sponsorship purpose improved sponsor-property fit compared to the no articulation condition. Gender and age of the samples were employed as covariates. The results of ANCOVA indicated that participants reported a higher fit when the noncommercially-oriented or commercially-oriented purpose was articulated ($F[4,97] = 18.21, p < .001, \eta^2 = .27$, observed power = 1.00; $M_{\text{no articulation}} = 3.35, SD = .70$; $M_{\text{commercially-oriented purpose}} = 3.87, SD = .90$; $M_{\text{noncommercially-oriented purpose}} = 4.46, SD = .76$). These results indicated that the two purpose articulations successfully created associations between the sponsor and the property.

Hypotheses were tested using PROCESS Model 8 (Hayes, 2017). As an independent variable, the sponsorship purpose articulation type was coded 0 for the commercially-oriented purpose and 1 for the noncommercially-oriented purpose. In terms of the moderating variable, the mission overlap articulation was coded 0 for the absent condition and 1 for the present condition. Sponsor-property fit was used as a mediator; attitude toward the sponsor was measured as a dependent variable. Gender (coded 0 for male and 1 for female) and age were employed as control variables. A bootstrap analysis using 5,000 samples with a 95% confidence interval was employed to run the moderated mediation model. The results demonstrated that in terms of sponsor-property fit ($R^2 = .08, p < .01$), the direct effect of the sponsorship purpose articulation was significant ($\beta = .59, SE = .22, t[131] = 2.73, p < .01, CI[.16, 1.02]$; see Table 4.4), which supported Hypothesis 1a. The interaction effect between the purpose articulation and the mission overlap articulation was also significant ($\beta = -.62, SE = .31, t[131] = 2.04, p < .05, CI[-1.22, -.02]$). More specifically, the conditional effects at the moderator values showed that, in the absent condition of the mission overlap articulation, the more positive effect of the noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation on sponsor-property fit was significant ($\beta = .59, SE = .22, t[131] = 2.73, p < .01, CI[.16, 1.02]$; see Figure

4.2). However, it was not significant in the present condition ($\beta = -.03, SE = .21, t[131] = .14, CI[-.44, .40]$). Hence, Hypotheses 2a were supported.

Table 4.4. *The effect of sponsorship purpose articulation type \times mission overlap articulation condition on attitude toward the sponsor via sponsor-property fit*

	Sponsor-Property fit (Mediator)				Attitude toward the sponsor (Dependent variable)			
	β	SE	t-value	p	β	SE	t-value	p
Direct effects								
Purpose articulation: noncommercially vs. commercially	.59	.22	2.73	< .01	-.03	.18	.17	.86
Mission overlap articulation: present vs. absent	1.24	.48	2.57	< .05	-.63	.40	1.59	.12
Purpose articulation \times Mission overlap articulation	-.62	.31	2.04	< .05	.36	.25	1.43	.15
Sponsor-Property fit	-	-	-	-	.28	.07	3.94	< .001
Gender (Covariate)	.03	.16	.20	.85	.09	.13	.67	.50
Age (Covariate)	-.04	.08	.49	.63	.02	.06	.39	.69
Indirect effect of noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation (vs. commercially) on attitude toward the sponsor via sponsor-property fit								
Mission overlap articulation: present condition					$\beta = -.01, SE = .07, CI[-.13, .14]$			
Mission overlap articulation: absent condition					$\beta = .17, SE = .07, CI[.04, .33]$			
Index of moderated mediation					$\beta = -.17, SE = .09, CI[-.38, -.00]$			

Note. β = standardized beta coefficient; SE = standard error; CI = confidence interval.

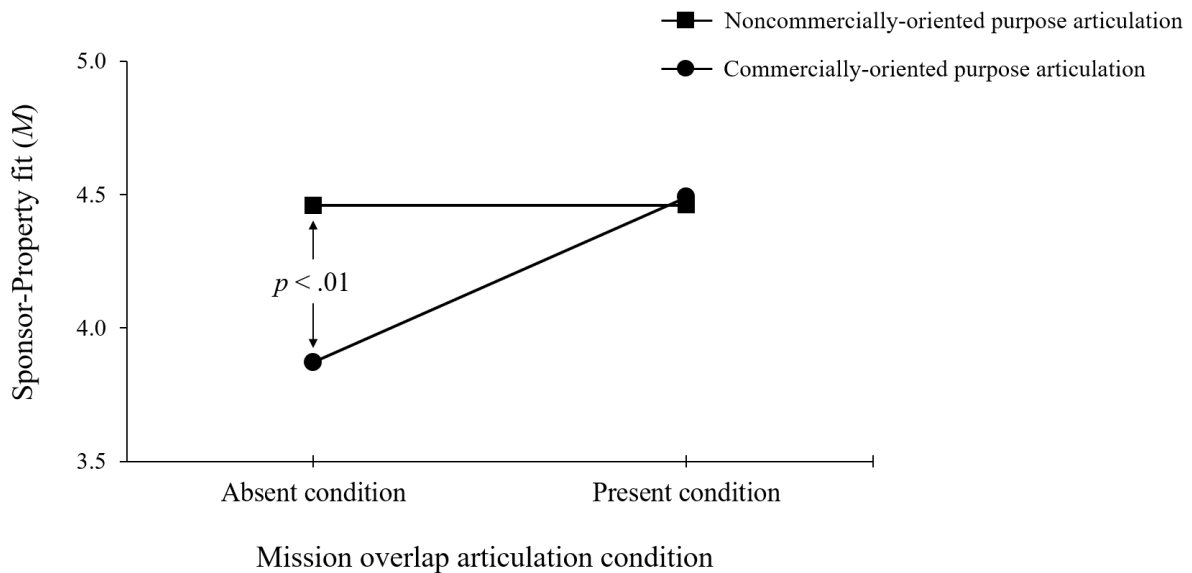


Figure 4.2. Conditional effects of sponsorship purpose articulation types at conditions of mission overlap articulation

Note. Sponsor-Property fit: A 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly disagree to 7 = Strongly agree).

Regarding attitude toward the sponsor ($R^2 = .13, p < .01$), sponsor-property fit only had a significant and direct effect ($\beta = .28, SE = .07, t[130] = 3.94, p < .001, CI[.14, .42]$). Thus, Hypothesis 1b was not supported. The interaction effect between purpose articulation and mission overlap articulation was also non-significant ($\beta = .36, SE = .25, t[130] = 1.43, CI[-.14, .86]$), which did not support Hypothesis 2b.

The index of moderated mediation was significant ($\beta = -.17, SE = .09, CI[-.38, -.00]$). Moreover, the indirect effect of the sponsorship purpose articulation on attitude toward the sponsor via sponsor-property fit differed at moderator values. In the absent condition of mission overlap articulation, the more positive indirect effect of the noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation was significant ($\beta = .17, SE = .07, CI[.04, .33]$). However, the indirect effect was not significant in the present condition ($\beta = -.01, SE = .07, CI[-.13, .14]$). These findings supported Hypotheses 1c and 2c. The results of Study 1 are summarized in Figure 4.3.

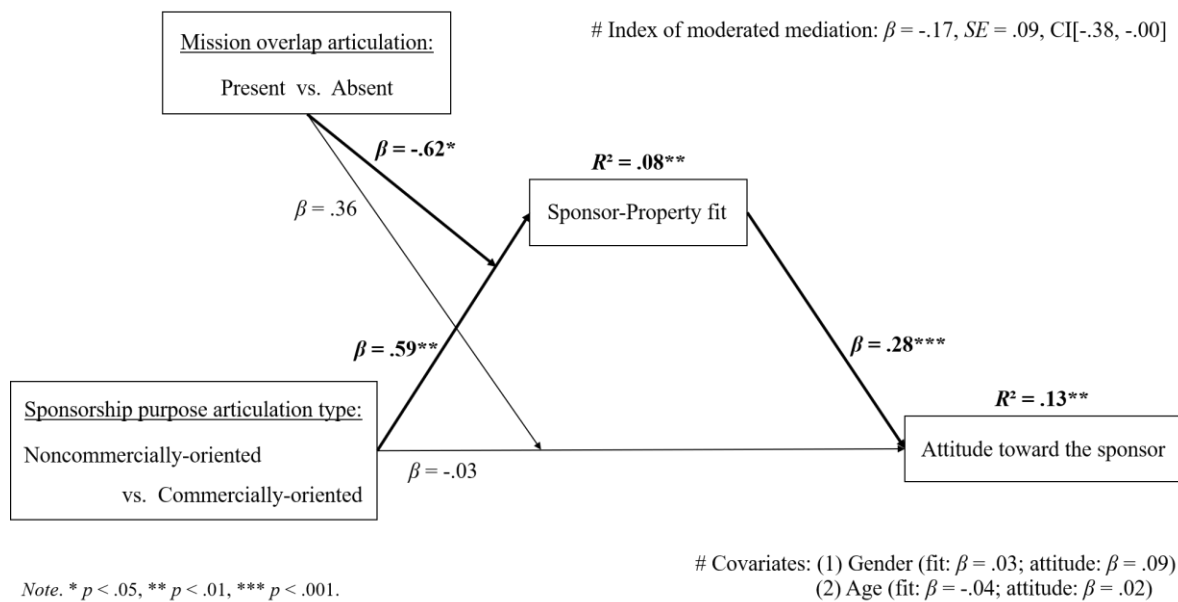


Figure 4.3. Overview of the results in Study 1

Summary

Study 1 aimed at examining the effects of two sponsorship purpose articulations on attitude toward the sponsor via sponsor-property fit, and the moderating effects of the mission overlap articulation. A 2 (purpose articulation type: noncommercially-oriented vs. commercially-oriented) \times 2 (mission overlap articulation condition: present vs. absent) between-subjects experimental design with a control condition was conducted with student samples. A fictitious J. League sponsorship with a household product firm, which had the lowest fit with the J. League, was created. A total of six hypotheses were tested using Hayes' PROCESS macro model 8. The results indicated that the noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation improved sponsor-property fit more than the commercially-oriented purpose articulation, resulting in more favorable attitude toward the sponsor. These supported Hypothesis 1a and Hypothesis 1c. Furthermore, when the mission overlap between the sponsor and the property was simultaneously articulated, the less positive effects of the commercially-oriented purpose articulation were weaker, which supported Hypothesis 2a and Hypothesis 2c. However, the direct effect of the noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation on attitude toward the sponsor and the moderating effect of the mission overlap articulation on such a direct relationship were not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 1b and Hypothesis 2b were not supported.

CHAPTER 5. STUDY 2: CSR-CSI DOMAIN OVERLAP

Overview

The methods and results of Study 2 are described in this chapter. Study 2 aims to test Hypothesis 3 and 4. It consists of two experiments: Experiment 1 tests the mediation model; Experiment 2 assesses the moderated mediation model. Each experiment includes the design and stimuli developments, participants, measurements, analyses, descriptive statistics, measurement models, and hypotheses testing.

Experiment 1

Design and Stimulus Development

The current study employed a between-subjects single factorial experiment that focused on CSR-CSI domain overlap as an independent variable. For the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition, the author developed a fictitious press release emphasizing CSR activity that was strongly associated with CSI (i.e., a sponsor, which can be irresponsible to environmental issues, engaging in pro-environmental activity). For the low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition, a fictitious release that highlighted CSR activity weakly associated with CSI was used (i.e., a sponsor, which can be irresponsible to environmental issues, engaging in CSR activity to solve poverty issues). The present study also investigated the mediating role of CSR perception between the CSR-CSI domain overlap and attitude toward the sponsor to enrich the process explanations.

The author executed a pretest to develop fictitious sponsorship releases that manipulated the CSR-CSI domain overlap. The pretest was conducted to assess the strength of associations between sponsors' industry types and social issues. Twenty-seven students from a Japanese university in the metropolitan Tokyo area participated in the pretest (Male = 59.3%; $M_{\text{age}} = 21.7$). The participants evaluated the extent to which various Olympic sponsor

categories (e.g., airline, automobile) were associated with social issues. This study focused on environmental and poverty issues which were critical social issues all over the world (The United Nations, 2018). As a result, the automobile industry was identified as the industry the most strongly associated with environmental issues (a 7-point Likert-type scale; $M = 5.07$, $SD = 1.33$) and the least associated with poverty issues ($M = 2.48$, $SD = .80$; see Table 5.1). Hence, the author operationalized the automobile sponsor with pro-environmental activity as the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition, whereas the automobile sponsor with CSR activity to solve poverty issues was treated as the low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition. Sponsoring Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games was employed as a research context. The name of the automobile sponsor was not present to minimize unintended influences of external factors (e.g., likeability, familiarity; Sato et al., 2016).

Table 5.1. *Results of pretest on the associations between eight industries' irresponsible behaviors and three types of social issue*

Irresponsible	Airline	Alcohol	Automobile	Chemical	Credit card	IT	Fast food	Soda
	$M(SD)$	$M(SD)$	$M(SD)$	$M(SD)$	$M(SD)$	$M(SD)$	$M(SD)$	$M(SD)$
Environment issue	4.59 (1.15)	3.48 (1.34)	5.07 (1.33)	4.67 (1.33)	2.07 (.96)	2.81 (1.21)	4.93 (1.57)	3.37 (1.62)
Poverty issue	2.85 (1.13)	3.04 (1.51)	2.48 (.80)	2.78 (1.25)	3.00 (1.73)	3.07 (1.62)	3.81 (1.47)	3.00 (1.39)
Obesity issue	2.37 (1.08)	3.19 (1.59)	3.89 (1.63)	2.70 (1.38)	2.19 (1.04)	3.33 (1.73)	6.00 (1.39)	5.70 (1.20)

Note 1. A 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*).

Note 2. M = mean score; SD = standard deviation.

Subjects were randomly assigned to one of the two scenarios (i.e., high CSR-CSI domain overlap vs. low CSR-CSI domain overlap; see Table 5.2). Subjects answered a series of questionnaire items that measured CSR perception of sponsor (i.e., mediator) and attitude toward the sponsor (i.e., dependent variable). They were also asked to answer a manipulation check item and two covariates (i.e., cause involvement and role identification with Olympics). Finally, they were explained that the scenarios were all fictional and debriefed.

The author controlled the relationships between the participants and CSR activity

that was included in the assigned scenario, and the Olympics. Consumers tend to interpret CSR activity based on relationships between themselves and a cause (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Du et al., 2010). Cause involvement – defined as ‘the degree to which consumers find a cause to be personally relevant to themselves (p. 20)’ – is a variable representing such relationships (Grau & Folse, 2007). Hence, it was employed as a covariate when hypotheses were tested. Role identification with Olympics is also considered a covariate. Drawing on the definition of role identification that refers to ‘a set of meanings applied to the self in a social role or situation, defining what it means to be who one is in that role or situation (Burke & Stets, 1999, p. 349),’ role identification with a sports property indicates the extent to which an individual perceives his or her role of being a fan of the sports property as meaningful for his or her life (Lock & Heere, 2017; Trail, Anderson, & Fink, 2005). Those who have strong identification with a sports property are more likely to show positive evaluations of sponsors (Madrigal, 2001; Parker & Fink, 2010). This implies that controlling the relationships between the participants and the Olympics results in more accurate testing of the hypotheses. Thus, these two variables were employed as covariates.

Table 5.2. *Fictitious sponsorship releases used in Experiment 1 for Study 2*

High CSR-CSI domain overlap condition: Pro-environmental CSR activity

Automobile firm ‘A’ announced it signed an official sponsorship arrangement with Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. The firm says that it will work on activities to reduce carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions all over the country to realize sustainable society through the delivery of Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. The world’s CO₂ emissions have reached the highest 32.9 billion tons ever recorded in 2015, causing severe global warming. During the Olympics, furthermore, it is assumed that more than 10 million people both within and outside of Japan will come to Tokyo in a short period of about one month, and many vehicles will be used to transport them between venues of the Olympics, resulting in a large increase in CO₂ emissions. Thus, the firm will actively work on ‘Forest creation’ to decrease CO₂. The firm will plant seedlings in the forests all over the country with the help of its domestic branches’ staff, their families, and local people. Moreover, the firm says, with the cooperation of athletes participating in the Olympics, it will hold educational programs for children to realize the environmental issues and learn the importance of forests to offset CO₂ emissions which cause global warming.

Low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition: CSR activity to solve poverty issue

Automobile firm ‘A’ announced it signed an official sponsorship arrangement with Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. The firm says that it will work on activities to solve poverty issue, especially among Japanese children, to realize sustainable society through the delivery of Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. Nowadays, one of every seven children in Japan is in poverty, which is the worst level among OECD countries. It has become clear that these children in poverty are placed in a very disadvantageous situation in terms of medical care, meals, and learning, and are eventually less likely to escape from poverty in the future. Thus, the firm will actively engage in activities to support these children in poverty in terms of the contribution to achieving the goal of the Olympics which everyone can enjoy the Olympics. The firm will provide them with free cafeteria, learning classes, and sports facilities in collaboration with a child poverty alleviation organization and with the help of its domestic branches’ staff, their families, and local people. Furthermore, the firm says, with the cooperation of athletes participating in the Olympics, it will hold events for them to enjoy sports and contribute to their healthy growth.

Participants

Using two types of the Olympic sponsorship press release, the author recruited subjects from a large-sized Japanese online panel company. Two hundred thirty-five subjects who were aware of the hosting date of Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games participated in the online survey experiment. They first read the release and then answered an attention check question and a question to confirm CSR domain. For the attention check, subjects were given a paragraph with a blank space. They were asked to choose one sentence from three choices, which could be the most suitable for the blank space. CSR domain was checked by asking them to select one from three CSR domain choices (i.e., environment, obesity, and poverty) into which CSR activity of the assigned release could be categorized. A

total of 173 participants who provided correct answers to the two questions were employed for further analyses: $n_{\text{high CSR-CSI domain overlap}} = 78$, $n_{\text{low CSR-CSI domain overlap}} = 95$.

Measurements

The manipulation was checked through an item asking the expected extent to which a sponsor’s business actions can be irresponsible to environmental or poverty issues using a 7-point Likert-type scale. CSR perception of sponsor was measured through three items using a 7-point Likert-type scale (Menon & Kahn, 2003; see Table 5.3). Attitude toward the sponsor was assessed through five items using a 7-point semantic differential scale (Ruth & Simonin, 2003; Speed & Thompson, 2000). Four items were used for cause involvement from Grau and Folse (2007), while three items that measured role identification with Olympics were adopted from Trail and James (2001). Figure 5.1 presents the final version of research model and hypotheses in Experiment 1.

Table 5.3. *Measurement scales used in Experiment 1 for Study 2*

Factors	Items
CSR perception of sponsor (Menon & Kahn, 2003)	Firm is highly concerned about social issues. Firm is highly involved in activities to solve social issues. Firm is genuinely concerned about social issues.
Attitude toward the sponsor (Ruth & Simonin, 2003; Speed & Thompson, 2000)	Good – Bad Like – Dislike Favorable – Unfavorable Positive – Negative Pleasant – Unpleasant
Cause involvement (Grau & Folse, 2007)	Cause is important to me. Cause is of great concern to me. Cause is relevant to me. Cause does not matter a great deal to me. (reversed item)
Role identification with Olympics (Trail & James, 2001)	I consider myself to be a real fan of Olympics. I would experience a loss if I had to stop being a fan of Olympics. Being a fan of Olympics is very important to me.

Note 1. CSR perception of sponsor, Cause involvement, and Role identification with Olympics: A 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*).

Note 2. Attitude toward the sponsor: A 7-point semantic differential scale (1 = *Bad* to 7 = *Good*).

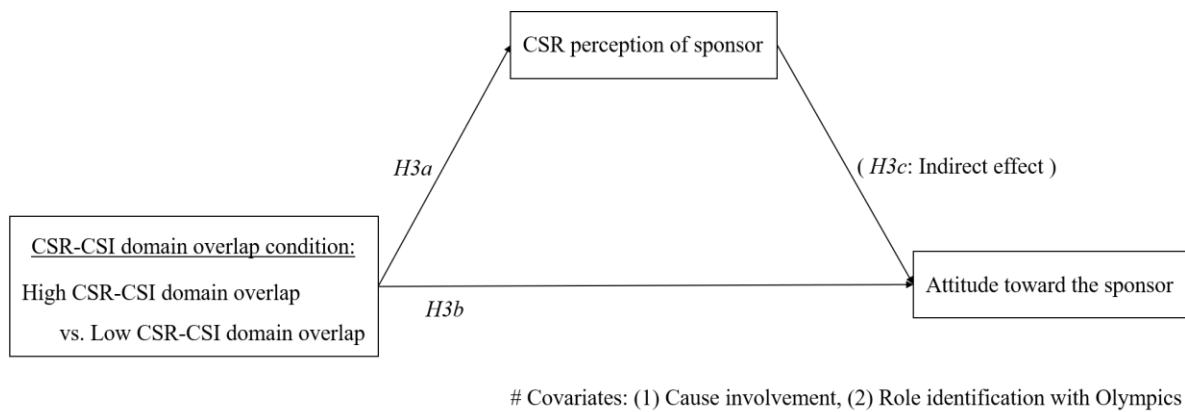


Figure 5.1. Final version of research model and hypotheses in Experiment 1 for Study 2

Analyses

Regarding data analyses, a confirmatory factor analysis using IBM SPSS AMOS 26.0 was first performed to check reliability and validity of the variables. Then, hypotheses were tested by Hayes' PROCESS macro model 4 (Hayes, 2017). It was performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 26.0.

Descriptive Statistics

The demographics of samples indicated that the proportion of females (57.2%) was higher than males (42.8%) and the average age was 44.1 years. These sample frames are similar to Japanese population in terms of gender and average age (Female = 51.3%; $M_{age} = 46.7$; Worldometer, 2019). The samples reported mean scores and standard deviations of four measurement variables as follows: $M_{CSR\ perception} = 5.47$, $SD = 1.10$; $M_{attitude} = 5.33$, $SD = .98$; $M_{cause\ involvement} = 4.43$, $SD = 1.13$; $M_{role\ identification} = 2.59$, $SD = 1.35$. Table 5.4 shows mean scores and standard deviations of all items.

Table 5.4. *Descriptive statistics for measurement scales and results of confirmatory factor analysis in Experiment 1 for Study 2*

Construct items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	λ	CR	AVE
CSR perception of sponsor				.93	.81
Firm is highly concerned about social issues.	5.48	1.19	.89		
Firm is highly involved in activities to solve social issues.	5.59	1.12	.92		
Firm is genuinely concerned about social issues.	5.34	1.22	.90		
Attitude toward the sponsor				.94	.77
Good — Bad	5.58	1.05	.86		
Like — Dislike	5.14	1.13	.84		
Favorable — Unfavorable	5.30	1.13	.92		
Positive — Negative	5.30	1.02	.87		
Pleasant — Unpleasant	5.31	1.09	.88		
Cause involvement				.88	.65
Cause is important to me.	4.55	1.31	.81		
Cause is of great concern to me.	4.38	1.27	.73		
Cause is relevant to me.	3.94	1.51	.85		
Cause does not matter a great deal to me. (reversed item)	4.83	1.19	.84		
Role identification with Olympics				.93	.81
I consider myself to be a real fan of Olympics.	2.67	1.46	.95		
I would experience a loss if I had to stop being a fan of Olympics.	2.47	1.43	.90		
Being a fan of Olympics is very important to me.	2.60	1.47	.85		

Note 1. λ = standardized factor loadings; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted.

Note 2. CSR perception of sponsor, Cause involvement, and Role identification with Olympics: A 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*).

Note 3. Attitude toward the sponsor: A 7-point semantic differential scale (1 = *Bad* to 7 = *Good*).

An independent-samples *t*-test was run to compare mean scores of a mediator and a dependent variable between two groups. The results indicated that participants in the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition reported lower CSR perception of sponsor than those in the low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition ($t[171] = 4.27, p < .001; M_{\text{high CSR-CSI domain overlap}} = 5.16, SD = 1.07; M_{\text{low CSR-CSI domain overlap}} = 5.85, SD = 1.02$; see Table 5.5). Those in the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition also showed less positive attitude toward the sponsor than those in the low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition ($t[171] = 4.53, p < .001; M_{\text{high CSR-CSI domain overlap}} = 5.04, SD = .89; M_{\text{low CSR-CSI domain overlap}} = 5.68, SD = .97$).

Table 5.5. *Descriptive statistics for CSR perception of sponsor and attitude toward the sponsor in Experiment 1 for Study 2*

	CSR-CSI domain overlap				<i>t</i> -value
	High domain overlap (<i>n</i> = 78)		Low domain overlap (<i>n</i> = 95)		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
CSR perception of sponsor	5.16	1.07	5.85	1.02	4.27***
Attitude toward the sponsor	5.04	.89	5.68	.97	4.53***

Note. *** *p* < .001.

Measurement Model

A series of confirmatory factor analysis was performed. The model fit showed acceptable levels for all indices ($\chi^2/df = 1.239$, GFI = .928; AGFI = .897; TLI = .988; CFI = .991; RMSEA = .037; Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2009; Hu & Bentler, 1999), indicating an acceptable model fit to the data. The standardized factor loading of all items was statistically significant and ranged from .73 to .95, surpassing the cut-off point of .50 (Hair et al., 2009; see Table 5.4). The internal consistency of variables was measured using composite reliability (CR). The CR values ranged from .88 to .94, indicating acceptable levels of reliability for the variables according to the recommended .60 threshold (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). Convergent validity was evaluated through the average variance extracted (AVE). The AVE values were greater than the .50 standard for convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), ranging from .65 to .81. The variables showed acceptable levels of convergent validity. To examine discriminant validity, the squared correlation between the variables was analyzed. The AVE for each variable was greater than the squared correlations between them (see Table 5.6), which supported the discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Considered together, the measurement model was successfully fitted to the data.

Table 5.6. Correlation matrix of the latent variables in Experiment 1 for Study 2

Variables	1	2	3	4
1. CSR perception of sponsor	.81	.52	.12	.00
2. Attitude toward the Sponsor	.72	.77	.05	.02
3. Cause involvement	.35	.21	.65	.01
4. Role identification with Olympics	.06	.13	.07	.81

Note 1. The diagonal (in bold and italics) shows the average variance extracted value for each variable.

Note 2. Correlations are under the diagonal, and squared correlations are above the diagonal.

Hypothesis Testing

The author first assessed the manipulation. The results of *t*-test revealed that participants perceived the automobile sponsor expected to be more irresponsible to environmental issues than to poverty issues ($t[171] = 10.38, p < .001; M_{\text{irresponsible to environment}} = 4.91, SD = 1.36; M_{\text{irresponsible to poverty}} = 2.91, SD = 1.12$). These indicated that the expected CSI of the automobile sponsor was categorized into environment domain rather than poverty domain. Moreover, the results of CSR domain check indicated that all participants answered the correct CSR domain to the assigned release (i.e., those with the release of pro-environmental activity chose environment domain, whereas those with the release of CSR activity to solve poverty issues chose poverty domain). Based on these results, the pro-environmental activity of the automobile sponsor was categorized into the domain that was highly overlapped with its expected CSI (i.e., environment), while its CSR activity to solve poverty issues was classified into the domain that was lowly overlapped with its expected CSI. Hence, the manipulation was successful.

Hypotheses were tested using PROCESS Model 4 (Hayes, 2017). The CSR-CSI domain overlap was coded 0 for the low domain overlap condition and 1 for the high domain overlap condition. CSR perception of sponsor was used as a mediator; attitude toward the sponsor was measured as a dependent variable; cause involvement and role identification

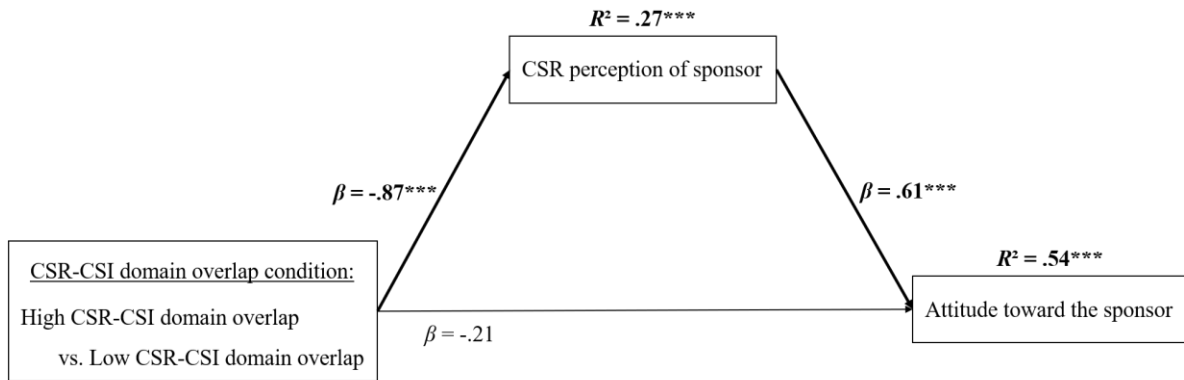
with Olympics were employed as covariates. A bootstrap analysis using 5,000 samples with a 95% confidence interval was employed. The results showed that regarding CSR perception of sponsor ($R^2 = .27, p < .001$), the direct effects of the CSR-CSI domain overlap ($\beta = -.87, SE = .15, t[169] = 5.89, p < .001, CI[-1.16, -.58]$) and cause involvement ($\beta = .42, SE = .07, t[169] = 6.40, p < .001, CI[.29, .55]$; see Table 5.7) were significant. Such negative effect of the high CSR-CSI domain overlap supported Hypothesis 3a. With regard to attitude toward the sponsor ($R^2 = .54, p < .001$), CSR perception of sponsor only had the significant and direct effect ($\beta = .61, SE = .05, t[168] = 11.18, p < .001, CI[.50, .72]$), which did not support Hypothesis 3b. The indirect effect of the CSR-CSI domain overlap on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor was negatively significant ($\beta = -.53, SE = .11, CI[-.75, -.34]$). These results demonstrated that CSR activity strongly associated with CSI led to lower CSR perception of sponsor, resulting in less positive attitude toward the sponsor. Thus, Hypothesis 3c was supported. Figure 5.2 shows an overview of the results in Experiment 1.

Table 5.7. *The effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor*

	CSR perception of sponsor (Mediator)				Attitude toward the sponsor (Dependent variable)			
	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>p</i>	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>t-value</i>	<i>p</i>
Direct effects								
High CSR-CSI domain overlap (vs. Low domain overlap)	-.87	.15	5.89	<.001	-.21	.12	1.83	.07
CSR perception of sponsor	-	-	-	-	.61	.05	11.18	<.001
Cause involvement (Covariate)	.42	.07	6.40	<.001	-.01	.05	.20	.84
Role identification with Olympics (Covariate)	.00	.05	.07	.95	.06	.04	1.55	.12
Indirect effect of high CSR-CSI domain overlap (vs. low domain overlap) on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor					$\beta = -.53, SE = .11, CI[-.75, -.34]$			

Note. β = standardized beta coefficient; *SE* = standard error; CI = confidence interval.

Indirect effect: $\beta = -.53$, $SE = .11$, $CI[-.75, -.34]$



Note. *** $p < .001$.

Covariates: (1) Cause involvement (CSR perception: $\beta = .42^{***}$; attitude: $\beta = -.01$)
(2) Role identification with Olympics (CSR perception: $\beta = .00$; attitude: $\beta = .06$)

Figure 5.2. Overview of the results in Experiment 1 for Study 2

Summary

Experiment 1 aimed to examine the effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor. A between-subjects single factorial experiment that focused on CSR-CSI domain overlap as an independent variable was designed. A sponsorship of Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games was employed as a research context. Through a series of pretest, an automobile sponsor with pro-environmental activity was operationalized as the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition, while the one with CSR activity to solve poverty issues was treated as the low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition. The sponsor name was not present. A total of three hypotheses were analyzed using Hayes' PROCESS macro model 4. The results showed that CSR activity strongly associated with CSI (i.e., high CSR-CSI domain overlap) led to lower CSR perception of sponsor, resulting in less positive attitude toward the sponsor than CSR activity weakly associated with CSI (i.e., low CSR-CSI domain overlap). Therefore, Hypothesis 3a and Hypothesis 3c were supported. On the contrary, the direct effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap on attitude toward the sponsor was not significant, which did not support Hypothesis 3b.

Experiment 2

Design and Stimulus Development

Experiment 2 was conducted to replicate the findings of Experiment 1 and test a moderated mediation model that incorporates perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity as a moderator. A between-subjects single factorial experiment was designed with CSR-CSI domain overlap as an independent variable. The author carefully selected a focal industry and social issues to manipulate the CSR-CSI domain overlap. The soda industry was indicated as the industry strongly associated with obesity issues, based on the results of the pretest ($M = 5.70$, $SD = 1.20$) and weakly associated with poverty issues ($M = 3.00$, $SD = 1.39$; see Table 5.1). Thus, the soda sponsor with CSR activity to solve obesity issues was operationalized as the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition. Meanwhile, the soda sponsor with CSR activity to solve poverty issues was treated as the low domain overlap condition. The design was identical to Experiment 1. Fictitious Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games sponsorship releases were developed. The name of the soda sponsor was not present.

Subjects were randomly assigned to one of the two scenarios (i.e., high CSR-CSI domain overlap vs. low CSR-CSI domain overlap; Table 5.8). They first read the release and then answered a series of questionnaire items that measured CSR perception of sponsor (i.e., mediator), perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity (i.e., moderator), and attitude toward sponsor (i.e., dependent variable). They were also asked to answer a manipulation check item and two covariates (i.e., cause involvement and role identification with Olympics). Finally, they were explained that the scenarios were all fictional and debriefed.

Table 5.8. *Fictitious sponsorship releases used in Experiment 2 for Study 2*

High CSR-CSI domain overlap condition: CSR activity to solve obesity issue

Soda firm 'A' announced it signed an official sponsorship arrangement with Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. The firm says that it will work on activities to solve obesity issue, especially among Japanese children, to realize sustainable society through the delivery of Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. Obesity among Japanese children has increased sharply over the past 20 years, with less than 5% of all obese children exceeding 10%. About 70% of the childhood obesity is said to shift to adult obesity, and there is a high possibility of complication of lifestyle-related diseases such as hypertension, diabetes and dyslipidemia. Thus, the firm will actively engage in activities to make obese children healthy in terms of the contribution to achieving the goal of the Olympics which everyone can enjoy the Olympics. The firm will provide them with free seminars for parents and children to learn how to improve their children's eating habits and the importance of exercise in collaboration with a child obesity prevention group and with the help of its domestic branches' staff, their families, and local people. Furthermore, the firm says, with the cooperation of athletes participating in the Olympics, it will hold events for them to enjoy sports and contribute to their healthy growth.

Low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition: CSR activity to solve poverty issue

Soda firm 'A' announced it signed an official sponsorship arrangement with Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. The firm says that it will work on activities to solve poverty issue, especially among Japanese children, to realize sustainable society through the delivery of Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. Nowadays, one of every seven children in Japan is in poverty, which is the worst level among OECD countries. It has become clear that these children in poverty are placed in a very disadvantageous situation in terms of medical care, meals, and learning, and are eventually less likely to escape from poverty in the future. Thus, the firm will actively engage in activities to support these children in poverty in terms of the contribution to achieving the goal of the Olympics which everyone can enjoy the Olympics. The firm will provide them with free cafeteria, learning classes, and sports facilities in collaboration with a child poverty alleviation organization and with the help of its domestic branches' staff, their families, and local people. Furthermore, the firm says, with the cooperation of athletes participating in the Olympics, it will hold events for them to enjoy sports and contribute to their healthy growth.

Participants

The author recruited subjects from the large-sized Japanese online panel company. In total, 362 subjects who were aware of the hosting date of Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games participated in the online survey. After reading experimental stimuli, subjects answered questions to check attention and CSR domain which were identical to Experiment 1. A total of 247 participants who successfully answered the two questions were employed for further analyses: $n_{\text{high CSR-CSI domain overlap}} = 127$, $n_{\text{low CSR-CSI domain overlap}} = 120$.

Measurements

This study used the identical scales to Experiment 1 for measuring CSR perception of sponsor, attitude toward the sponsor, cause involvement, and role identification with

Olympics. It additionally measured perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity through three items using a 7-point semantic differential scale (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; see Table 5.9). Figure 5.3 presents the final version of research model and hypotheses in Experiment 1.

Table 5.9. *Measurement scales used in Experiment 2 for Study 2*

Factors	Items
CSR perception of sponsor (Menon & Kahn, 2003)	Firm is highly concerned about social issues. Firm is highly involved in activities to solve social issues. Firm is genuinely concerned about social issues.
Attitude toward the sponsor (Ruth & Simonin, 2003; Speed & Thompson, 2000)	Good – Bad Like – Dislike Favorable – Unfavorable Positive – Negative Pleasant – Unpleasant
Cause involvement (Grau & Folse, 2007)	Cause is important to me. Cause is of great concern to me. Cause is relevant to me. Cause does not matter a great deal to me. (reversed item)
Role identification with Olympics (Trail & James, 2001)	I consider myself to be a real fan of Olympics. I would experience a loss if I had to stop being a fan of Olympics. Being a fan of Olympics is very important to me.
Perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity (Becker-Olsen, Cudmore, & Hill, 2006)	Self-interested – Community-interested Firm-focused – Customer-focused Profit-motivated – Socially-motivated

Note 1. CSR perception of sponsor, Cause involvement, and Role identification with Olympics: A 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*).

Note 2. Attitude toward the sponsor: A 7-point semantic differential scale (1 = *Bad* to 7 = *Good*).

Note 3. Perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity: A 7-point semantic differential scale (1 = *Community-interested* to 7 = *Self-interested*).

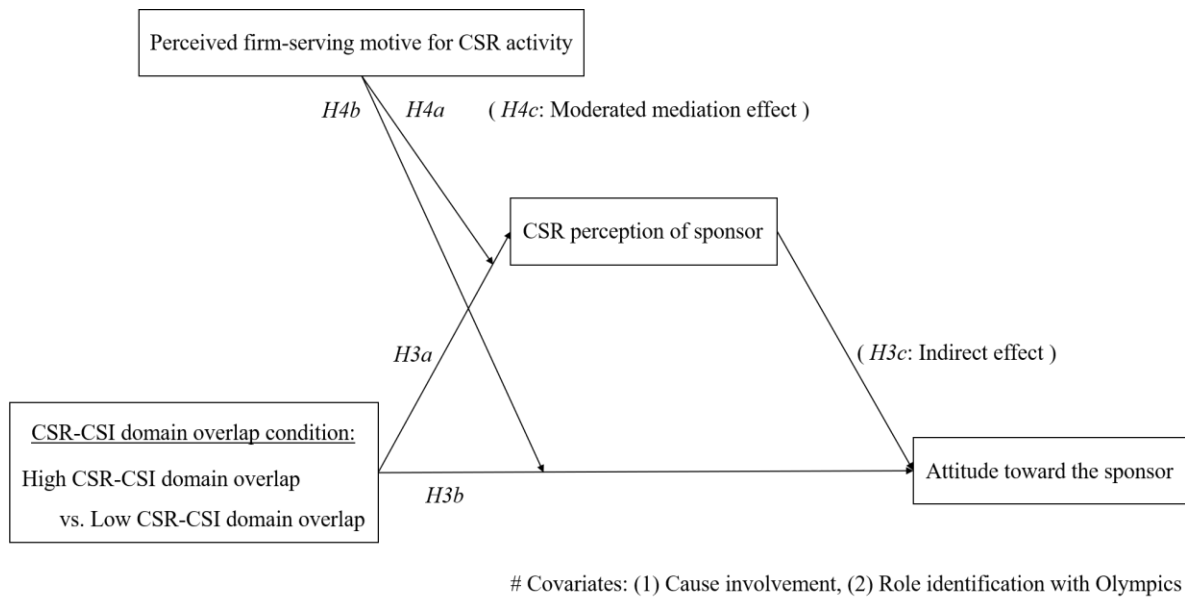


Figure 5.3. Final version of research model and hypotheses in Experiment 2 for Study 2

Analyses

A confirmatory factor analysis was executed to check reliability and validity of the variables using IBM SPSS AMOS 26.0. Hypotheses were then tested by Hayes' PROCESS macro model 8 (Hayes, 2017) using IBM SPSS Statistics 26.0.

Descriptive Statistics

The samples included females of 53.0% and males of 47.0%. The average age of samples was 48.9 years. These sample frames are similar to Japanese population with regard to gender and average age (Female = 51.3%; $M_{\text{age}} = 46.7$; Worldometer, 2019). They revealed mean scores and standard deviations of five measurement variables as follows: $M_{\text{CSR perception}} = 5.82$, $SD = .99$; $M_{\text{attitude}} = 5.22$, $SD = 1.02$; $M_{\text{cause involvement}} = 3.68$, $SD = 1.30$; $M_{\text{role identification}} = 2.89$, $SD = 1.35$; $M_{\text{firm-serving motive}} = 3.46$, $SD = 1.12$. The mean scores and standard deviations of all items were indicated in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10. *Descriptive statistics for measurement scales and results of confirmatory factor analysis in Experiment 2 for Study 2*

Construct items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	λ	CR	AVE
CSR perception of sponsor				.95	.87
Firm is highly concerned about social issues.	5.89	1.01	.91		
Firm is highly involved in activities to solve social issues.	5.84	1.03	.96		
Firm is genuinely concerned about social issues.	5.74	1.06	.92		
Attitude toward the sponsor				.96	.82
Good — Bad	5.38	1.04	.86		
Like — Dislike	5.03	1.11	.92		
Favorable — Unfavorable	5.20	1.12	.93		
Positive — Negative	5.20	1.12	.91		
Pleasant — Unpleasant	5.26	1.13	.90		
Cause involvement				.88	.66
Cause is important to me.	3.87	1.57	.88		
Cause is of great concern to me.	3.77	1.54	.94		
Cause is relevant to me.	3.01	1.52	.79		
Cause does not matter a great deal to me. (reversed item)	4.06	1.46	.58		
Role identification with Olympics				.93	.82
I consider myself to be a real fan of Olympics.	2.95	1.43	.88		
I would experience a loss if I had to stop being a fan of Olympics.	2.86	1.44	.91		
Being a fan of Olympics is very important to me.	2.86	1.45	.93		
Perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity				.73	.48
Self-interested — Community-interested	3.47	1.40	.59		
Firm-focused — Customer-focused	3.77	1.36	.64		
Profit-motivated — Socially-motivated	3.14	1.36	.83		

Note 1. λ = standardized factor loadings; CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted.

Note 2. CSR perception of sponsor, Cause involvement, and Role identification with Olympics: A 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = *Strongly disagree* to 7 = *Strongly agree*).

Note 3. Attitude toward the sponsor: A 7-point semantic differential scale (1 = *Bad* to 7 = *Good*).

Note 4. Perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity: A 7-point semantic differential scale (1 = *Community-interested* to 7 = *Self-interested*).

An independent-samples *t*-test was run to compare mean scores of a mediator and a dependent variable between two groups. As a result, participants in the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition indicated lower CSR perception of sponsor than those in the low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition ($t[245] = 3.21, p < .01; M_{\text{high CSR-CSI domain overlap}} = 5.63, SD = 1.07;$

$M_{\text{low CSR-CSI domain overlap}} = 6.03$, $SD = .85$; see Table 5.11). Furthermore, those in the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition reported less positive attitude toward the sponsor than those in the low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition ($t[245] = 3.69$, $p < .001$; $M_{\text{high CSR-CSI domain overlap}} = 4.99$, $SD = 1.00$; $M_{\text{low CSR-CSI domain overlap}} = 5.46$, $SD = .98$).

Table 5.11. *Descriptive statistics for CSR perception of sponsor and attitude toward the sponsor in Experiment 2 for Study 2*

	CSR-CSI domain overlap				t-value
	High domain overlap ($n = 127$)		Low domain overlap ($n = 120$)		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
CSR perception of sponsor	5.63	1.07	6.03	.85	3.21**
Attitude toward the sponsor	4.99	1.00	5.46	.98	3.69***

Note. ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Measurement Model

A series of confirmatory factor analysis was performed. The model fit showed acceptable levels for all indices ($\chi^2/df = 1.685$; GFI = .920; AGFI = .889; TLI = .973; CFI = .978; RMSEA = .053; Hair et al., 2009; Hu & Bentler, 1999), indicating an acceptable model fit to the data. The standardized factor loadings of all items were statistically significant and ranged from .58 to .96, surpassing the cut-off point of .50 (Hair et al., 2009; see Table 5.10). The CR values ranged from .73 to .96, indicating acceptable levels of reliability for the variables according to the recommended .60 threshold (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988). The AVE ranged from .48 to .87. The AVE for a factor (i.e., perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity) was lower than the .50 standard for convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). However, it was greater than the squared correlations between them (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; see Table 5.12), supporting the discriminant validity. Thus, it was concluded that the measurement model was successfully fitted to the data.

Table 5.12. *Correlation matrix of the latent variables in Experiment 2 for Study 2*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1. CSR perception of sponsor	.87	.39	.05	.01	.19
2. Attitude toward the Sponsor	.63	.82	.12	.08	.29
3. Cause involvement	.22	.35	.66	.19	.05
4. Role identification with Olympics	.11	.29	.44	.82	.05
5. Perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity	.44	.54	.22	.23	.48

Note 1. The diagonal (in bold and italics) shows the average variance extracted value for each variable.

Note 2. Correlations are under the diagonal, and squared correlations are above the diagonal.

Hypothesis Testing

The manipulation was checked. As a result of *t*-test, participants perceived the soda sponsor expected to be more irresponsible to obesity issues than to poverty issues ($t[245] = 6.37, p < .001; M_{\text{irresponsible to obesity}} = 4.02, SD = 1.77; M_{\text{irresponsible to poverty}} = 2.62, SD = 1.68$), indicating that the soda sponsor's expected CSI was categorized into obesity domain rather than poverty domain. The results of CSR domain check revealed that all the participants answered the correct CSR domain to the assigned release. Based on the results, the soda sponsor's CSR activity to solve obesity issues was categorized into the domain that was highly overlapped with its expected CSI (i.e., obesity), whereas its CSR activity to solve poverty issues was classified into the domain that was lowly overlapped with its expected CSI. Hence, the manipulation was successful.

Hypotheses were tested using PROCESS Model 8 (Hayes, 2017). The CSR-CSI domain overlap was coded 0 for the low domain overlap condition and 1 for the high domain overlap condition. CSR perception of sponsor was used as a mediator; perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity was employed as a moderator; attitude toward the sponsor was measured as a dependent variable; cause involvement and role identification with Olympics were employed as covariates. A bootstrap analysis using 5,000 samples with a 95% confidence interval was employed to run the moderated mediation model. The results

demonstrated that in terms of CSR perception of sponsor ($R^2 = .26, p < .001$), the direct effects of the CSR-CSI domain overlap ($\beta = -1.16, SE = .37, t[241] = 3.18, p < .01, CI[-1.88, -.44]$) and perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity ($\beta = -.48, SE = .07, t[241] = 7.22, p < .001, CI[-.60, -.35]$) were significant (see Table 5.13). Hypothesis 3a was supported by such negative effect of the high CSR-CSI domain overlap. The interaction effect between the domain and the motive was also significant ($\beta = .23, SE = .10, t[241] = 2.30, p < .05, CI[.03, .43]$). To specify the interaction effect, the author conducted a floodlight analysis using the Johnson–Neyman procedure. The results showed that the high CSR-CSI domain overlap significantly decreased CSR perception of sponsor for the values of firm-serving motive equal to 3.95 ($\beta = -.25, SE = .13, t[241] = 1.97, p = .05, CI[-.50, .00]$) or below ($p < .05$). Such negative effect was vanished when the value was above 3.95. More specifically, the negative effect of the high CSR-CSI domain overlap on CSR perception of sponsor was stronger at one standard deviation below the mean of the firm-serving motive ($\beta = -.62, SE = .16, t[241] = 3.86, p < .001, CI[-.93, -.30]$) than at the mean ($\beta = -.36, SE = .12, t[241] = 3.13, p < .01, CI[-.59, -.13]$; see Figure 5.4). Meanwhile, the negative effect of the high CSR-CSI domain overlap was weaker and non-significant at one standard deviation above the mean ($\beta = -.10, SE = .16, t[241] = .64, CI[-.42, .22]$). Therefore, Hypothesis 4a was supported.

Table 5.13. *The effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap × perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor*

	CSR perception of sponsor (Mediator)				Attitude toward the sponsor (Dependent variable)			
	β	SE	t-value	p	β	SE	t-value	p
Direct effects								
High CSR-CSI domain overlap (vs. Low domain overlap)	-1.16	.37	3.18	< .01	-.17	.30	.56	.57
Perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity	-.48	.07	7.22	< .001	-.26	.06	4.50	< .001
CSR-CSI domain overlap × Perceived firm-serving motive	.23	.10	2.30	< .05	-.01	.08	.08	.93
CSR perception of sponsor	-	-	-	-	.45	.05	8.66	< .001
Cause involvement (Covariate)	.07	.05	1.41	.16	.11	.04	2.65	< .01
Role identification with Olympics (Covariate)	-.04	.05	.85	.39	.08	.04	2.20	< .05
Indirect effect of high CSR-CSI domain overlap (vs. low domain overlap) on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor								
- 1 SD of perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity					$\beta = -.28, SE = .09, CI[-.49, -.12]$			
Mean of perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity					$\beta = -.16, SE = .05, CI[-.28, -.07]$			
+ 1 SD of perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity					$\beta = -.05, SE = .07, CI[-.18, .10]$			
Index of moderated mediation					$\beta = .10, SE = .06, CI[.01, .24]$			

Note. β = standardized beta coefficient; SE = standard error; CI = confidence interval; SD = standard deviation.

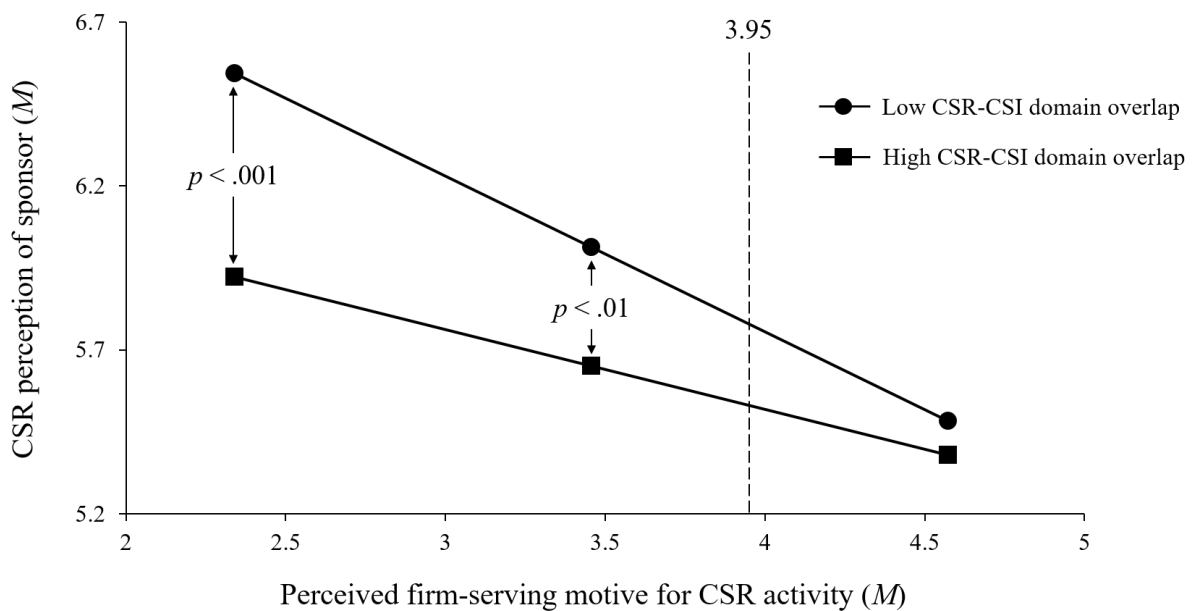


Figure 5.4. Conditional effects of the CSR-CSI domain overlap conditions at values of perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity

Note 1. CSR perception of sponsor: A 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = Strongly disagree to 7 = Strongly agree).

Note 2. Perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity: A 7-point semantic differential scale (1 = Community-interested to 7 = Self-interested).

Regarding attitude toward the sponsor ($R^2 = .54, p < .001$), CSR perception of sponsor ($\beta = .45, SE = .05, t[240] = 8.66, p < .001, CI[.35, .56]$), perceived firm-serving motive ($\beta = -.26, SE = .06, t[240] = 4.50, p < .001, CI[-.38, -.15]$), cause involvement ($\beta = .11, SE = .04, t[240] = 2.65, p < .01, CI[.03, .19]$), and role identification with Olympics ($\beta = .08, SE = .04, t[240] = 2.20, p < .05, CI[.01, .16]$) had the significant and direct effects. Thus, Hypothesis 3b was not supported. The interaction effect between the domain and the motive was not significant ($\beta = -.01, SE = .08, t[240] = .08, CI[-.17, .16]$), which indicated that Hypothesis 4b was not supported.

The index of moderated mediation was significant ($\beta = .10, SE = .06, CI[.01, .24]$). The indirect effect of the CSR-CSI domain overlap on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor was significant at one standard deviation below the mean of the firm-serving motive ($\beta = -.28, SE = .09, CI[-.49, -.12]$) and at the mean ($\beta = -.16, SE = .05, CI[-.28, -.07]$), whereas it was not significant at one standard deviation above the mean ($\beta = -.05, SE = .07, CI[-.18, .10]$). These findings supported Hypothesis 3c and 4c. Figure 5.5 summarizes the results of Experiment 2.

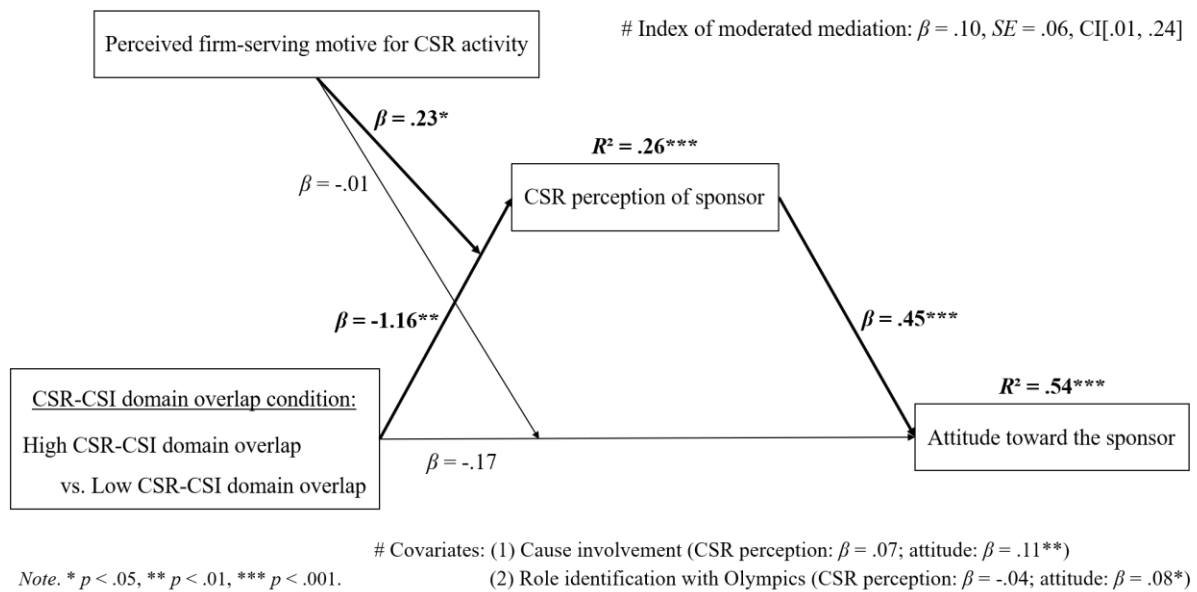


Figure 5.5. Overview of the results in Experiment 2 for Study 2

Summary

Experiment 2 aimed to replicate the findings of Experiment 1 and test a moderated mediation model that incorporates perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity as a moderator. A between-subjects single factorial experiment that focused on CSR-CSI domain overlap as an independent variable was designed using a fictitious sponsorship of Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. Based on the results of pretest that was conducted in Experiment 1, an unnamed soda sponsor with CSR activity to solve obesity issues was operationalized as the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition, while the one with CSR activity to solve poverty issues was treated as the low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition. Hayes' PROCESS macro model 8 was used to test a total of six hypotheses. The results exhibited that consumers in the high CSR-CSI domain overlap condition showed lower CSR perception of sponsor, then had less positive attitude toward the sponsor than those in the low CSR-CSI domain overlap condition. These findings supported Hypothesis 3a and Hypothesis 3c. Furthermore, when perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity was higher, the positive direct effect of the low CSR-CSI domain overlap on CSR perception of sponsor and the positive indirect effect of the low CSR-CSI domain overlap on attitude toward the sponsor were weaker. Thus, Hypothesis 4a and Hypothesis 4c were supported. However, the direct effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap on attitude toward the sponsor and the moderating effect of perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity on such a direct relationship were not significant. Hence, Hypothesis 3b and Hypothesis 4b were rejected.

CHAPTER 6. DISCUSSION

Overview

This chapter discusses the findings of Study 1 and Study 2. Both the results of Study 1 and Study 2 are discussed by separating into theoretical and practical aspects. Then, focusing on practical implications particularly, total discussions that are based on the two studies are executed.

Study 1: Sponsorship Articulation

Study 1 aimed to examine the effects of two sponsorship purpose articulations on attitude toward the sponsor via sponsor-property fit, and the moderating effects of the mission overlap articulation. An experimental study was conducted with student samples. The results showed that the noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation improved sponsor-property fit more than the commercially-oriented purpose articulation, resulting in more favorable attitude toward the sponsor. Furthermore, when the mission overlap between the sponsor and the property was simultaneously articulated, the less positive effects of the commercially-oriented purpose articulation were weaker. In what follows next, the author discusses theoretical and practical implications.

Theoretical Implications

The current study contributes to prior literature in three ways. First, it demonstrated that noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation had more positive effect on sponsor-property fit, leading to more favorable attitude toward the sponsor than the commercially-oriented purpose articulation. This suggests insights on how an improved sponsor-property fit is important for explaining the articulation effect. In the sponsorship articulation literature, an improved fit has been considered a prerequisite for generating favorable attitude toward the

sponsor (Cornwell et al., 2006; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Existing evidence has supported the crucial role of the improved fit (King & Madrigal, 2018; Madrigal & King, 2017; Olson & Thjømmøe, 2011; Skard & Thorbjørnsen, 2017). Nevertheless, prior studies that focused on sponsorship purpose articulations have not provided clear evidence on the processes in which attitude toward the sponsor was developed by the two sponsorship purpose articulations via the improved sponsor-property fit (e.g., Coppetti et al., 2009; Na & Kim, 2013; Weeks et al., 2008). Therefore, the findings of this study highlight the first understanding of the mediating processes regarding the two sponsorship purpose articulations.

Second, the findings implied the possibility of links between articulation messages and specific dimensions of the fit construct. Extensive efforts have been made to identify the fit dimensions because the fit has been considered one of the most important factors for inducing positive evaluations of sponsors (e.g., Fleck & Quester, 2007; Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Olson & Thjømmøe, 2011; Zdravkovic et al., 2010). Little research has explained how articulation messages activated an association of each fit dimension. Although this study did not investigate such specific processes, however, the author proposed hypotheses drawing on the fit dimensions, which were supported by the moderated mediation model. Hence, the findings of this study suggest the possibility of sponsorship articulation processes, based on such specific dimensions underlying the fit construct.

Third, the results showed the different impacts of the simultaneously-articulated mission overlap on increasing sponsor-property fit. Considering the situations in which sponsors usually communicate multiple messages to explain their links with sponsored properties (Dick, 2019; Madrigal & King, 2017), the findings can be meaningful. The overlapped-mission between a sponsor and a sponsored property has been considered one of the associations linking the sponsor to the property (Bridges et al., 2000; Park et al., 1991;

Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). The results of this study indicated that the mission overlap articulation apparently activated associations of other fit dimensions that were not covered by the commercially-oriented purpose articulation. Then, such activated associations seemed to attenuate the different effects of the two sponsorship purpose articulations on improving sponsor-property fit. These findings give sponsors incongruent with sponsored properties a significant indicator of articulation strategies with multiple messages.

Practical Implications

The findings can be advantageous for sponsors that are incongruent with sponsored properties. Many firms in industries that seem to have low natural fits with sports are sponsoring a wide range of sports properties, such as Barclays (c.f., a banking company; the Premier League), P&G (c.f., a household product company; the IOC), Intel (c.f., semiconductor company; NFL), VIVO (c.f., a consumer electronic firm; FIFA), and Meiji Yasuda (c.f., an insurance company; the J. League). These sponsors can utilize the results of this study while drawing up their articulation strategies. The commercial purpose articulation can create associations between them and the sponsored properties. This effect, however, would be less effective than the noncommercial purpose articulation. They need to be careful in articulating their sponsorship purposes. Moreover, the possibility of the sponsorship purpose articulations being differently engaged in the fit dimensions were implied in this research. Incongruent sponsors should consider not only the purpose they choose to articulate, but also the specific fit dimensions that can be associated with the articulated-purpose. Meiji Yasuda – a sponsor of the J. League – can be a good example for such articulation strategies. It announced its sponsorship purposes to support fans of the J. League all across the country and has been initiating walking events and soccer schools in all hometowns of the J. League clubs. It explained details of how its branches spreading the whole country would cooperate with local clubs of the J. League (Meiji Yasuda Life

Insurance Company, 2015). These articulations address not only its noncommercial purposes to contribute to the healthy development of local communities, but also its geographic fit with the J. League. Since they could engage in activating the associations of several fit dimensions (i.e., image, attitude, and geographic fits) between the two entities, sponsors that are incongruent with sponsored properties can utilize this case.

This study also highlighted the moderating role of the simultaneously-articulated mission overlap on linking associations between a sponsor and a sponsored property. Based on the results of the present study, sponsors would be more likely to articulate their noncommercial purposes rather than their commercial purposes. However, it was demonstrated that such a commercial purpose message can improve the sponsor-property associations as much as the noncommercial purpose message can when it was articulated with the overlapped-mission between two entities simultaneously. Many firms tend to consider mission overlap between themselves and sports properties while contracting their sponsorships (Macdougall et al., 2014; Rayne et al., 2019). The mission overlap can be one of the articulations that many sponsors utilize commonly. For instance, AEON – a retail company – announced its J. League sponsorship motivations indicating that its mission fitted in exactly with the J. League’s mission in terms of the contributions to local communities (AEON, 2015). P&G leveraged campaigns such as “Proud sponsor of moms” and “Thank you, Mom” to link its mission to the IOC’s mission regarding the sacrifices required for excellence (c.f., “Moms” are analogized as the sacrifices for athletes’ excellent performances). In particular, such an analogical articulation is a subtle form of explanation that communicates meanings of associations shared by a sponsor and a sponsored property (King & Madrigal, 2018; Madrigal & King, 2017). A good analogy enhances sponsor-property fit by demonstrating common relational structures shared by the two entities (Gentner & Markman, 1997; Holyoak, 2012). Thus, with the application of this analogy, the

findings of this study would provide insights on the mixed-articulation strategy in the sponsorship field.

Study 2: CSR-CSI Domain Overlap

Study 2 aimed to examine the effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor, and the moderating effects of perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity. Two experimental studies were conducted. Experiment 1 and 2 both showed that CSR activity strongly associated with CSI (i.e., high CSR-CSI domain overlap) led to lower CSR perception of sponsor, resulting in less positive attitude toward the sponsor than CSR activity weakly associated with CSI (i.e., low CSR-CSI domain overlap). Experiment 2 revealed that when perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity was higher, the positive direct effect of the low CSR-CSI domain overlap on CSR perception of sponsor and the positive indirect effect of the low CSR-CSI domain overlap on attitude toward the sponsor were weaker. The results are discussed, and theoretical and practical implications are suggested in the next section.

Theoretical Implications

This study demonstrated that CSR activity strongly associated with CSI can hurt favorable attitude toward the sponsor. In the context of CSR research, CSR and CSI have often displayed distinct patterns of firm action that might not be accounted for when assessing an overall measure (Mattingly & Berman 2006; Strike et al. 2006). Consumers can rather easily understand a firm's intention to initiate CSR activity focusing on its past CSI because such CSR effort is consistent with consumers' expectation (Barnett, 2007; Heal, 2005; Kotchen & Moon, 2012; Schuler & Cording, 2006). However, the findings of this research highlighted that drawing on associative network memory model (Anderson, 1983), the strong CSR-CSI associations can increase the activation of CSI in consumers' memories,

resulting in less favorable attitude toward the sponsor. These correspond with prior studies addressing the negative perceptions of good deeds that are faced with bad deeds (Arli et al., 2017; Janney & Gove, 2011; Kang et al., 2016; Shim & Yang, 2016; Wagner et al., 2009; Yoon et al., 2006). Therefore, this study represents insights into the application of CSR-CSI domain overlap strategy in the sponsorship field.

The current research highlighted that CSR perceptions of sponsor can be crucial to the extent to which attitude toward the sponsor is affected. The results showed that the strong CSR-CSI associations can decrease CSR perception of sponsor, leading to less positive attitude toward the sponsor. Such a mediating role adds to prior evidence on how increasing CSR perception of sponsor is important for inducing favorable attitude toward the sponsor (Flöter et al., 2016; Plewa & Quester, 2011; Uhrich et al., 2014). Firms with CSI largely engage in CSR activity as a form of penance to offset their past CSI (Kang et al., 2016). However, from the findings of this research, such CSR approach seemed to activate CSI in consumers' memories, thus reducing CSR perception of sponsor. This implies that sponsors with CSI need to be careful for engaging in CSR activity.

The present study revealed that when perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity was higher, the positive effects of the low CSR-CSI domain overlap were weaker. Prior literature has demonstrated the negative effect of perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity on attitude toward the firm (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Habitzreuter & Koenigstorfer, 2018; Rifon et al., 2004). This study contributes to such evidence by showing that the effects of CSR activity were decreased regardless of the CSR-CSI domain overlap conditions. The findings also highlighted the moderating effect of perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity on the indirect relationship between the CSR-CSI domain overlap and attitude toward the sponsor. These are consistent with previous research addressing the different evaluations of a firm depending on individuals' perceptions of its motive (Barone et

al., 2000; Barone et al., 2007; Du et al., 2010; Ellen et al., 2006). When individuals attributed firm-serving to a sponsor's motive for CSR activity rather than public-serving, they appeared to reduce their CSR perceptions of sponsor. Such perceptions are generally caused by the negative aspect of firm-serving motive that arouses suspicion of CSR efforts (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006; Campbell & Kirmani, 2000; Kim & Choi, 2018). Therefore, it was seemed that the low CSR-CSI domain overlap was much more damaged in creating favorable attitude toward the sponsor than the high CSR-CSI domain overlap. This represents the importance of communicating sponsors' sincere interest in solving social issues to consumers.

Finally, two covariates resulted in more accurate testing of the hypotheses, which can make valuable suggestions for future research. Previous studies have importantly considered the relationships between consumers and a sports property, and a cause when examining consumers' attitude toward the sponsoring firm (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Du et al., 2010; Grau & Folse, 2007; Madrigal, 2001; Parker & Fink, 2010). This study not only supported such existing evidence, but also extended the sponsorship literature by demonstrating how controlling these relationships led to more correct results in the context of CSR-linked sponsorship.

Practical Implications

The findings can be advantages for sponsors with CSI. According to the report of prior research, 77% of firms engaging in CSR activities were faced by their CSI (Lenz et al., 2017). These situations appear to be similar in the sponsorship field considering the more CSR engagements from sponsors in the industries with bad reputations (Danylchuk & MacIntosh, 2009; Peluso et al., 2019; Turco, 1999). For example, several Olympic sponsors engage in CSR activities that can be faced with their CSI: e.g., Coca-Cola (anti-obesity campaigns), Dow Chemical (carbon savings campaigns), Toyota (eco-friendly transportation vehicle provision). These sponsors seem to make their CSR efforts to counter balance the

damages caused by their business actions. Although such CSR intentions may be perceived as logical, their CSI would be more activated in consumers' memories due to the highly-overlapped CSR-CSI domains. Therefore, such sponsors need to be committed to avoiding the direct associations between their CSR intentions and CSI. A good example of well understanding such CSR-CSI relationship can be 'Japan Tobacco Inc.' company (JTI). JTI provides cigarettes, foods, drinks and so forth, and owns volleyball teams in Japan. However, it has bad reputations that are harmful to human health by their cigarette businesses (Japan Tobacco Inc., 2016). JTI has been launching campaigns, called "Think about the moment," to support precious moments of people and the relationships between people in order to be responsible to its CSI. It said that since every time in life could be a precious moment to people and feelings of when they think their precious someone encourage their life, it wanted to support such precious moments and relationships through CSR activity. These campaigns focused on 'human emotions, like nostalgia,' rather than on human health. Though partly overlapped with its CSI in terms of 'human,' such CSR engagements can be a way of avoiding the direct CSR-CSI association. McDonald's – a previous IOC sponsor – CSR campaigns that were launched to boost agriculture and raise awareness of the key role farms would play in providing produce for the Olympic Games, can be included in such strategies. McDonald's supported athletes, organizers, and spectators during the London 2012 Olympic Games by providing meals that were supplied from British farms. Through these campaigns, it aimed to contribute to further noticing the important role of British agriculture and improving the quality of farming production (Fernandez, 2010). McDonald's did not directly highlight how it was responsible for solving its CSI (i.e., obesity issues). However, such campaigns can help justify its CSR activities by showing its contributions to the importance of vegetable production. Hence, these strategies can be a good example for avoiding the direct CSR-CSI association.

Meanwhile, the findings highlighted the risk of the perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity that can attenuate the positive effects of low CSR-CSI domain overlap. This implies how communicating a sponsor's sincere CSR efforts to solve social issues is important to generate consumers' favorable evaluations of the sponsor. Namely, as long as a sponsor's motive for CSR activity is perceived as sincere, the sponsor can also initiate CSR activity in the domain where it is irresponsible. If Toyota's CSR activity that provides hydrogen-powered cars for Tokyo 2020 Olympic torch is interpreted as a sincere attempt to do something good, it can have the possibility of producing favorable attitude among consumers. Increasing the distinctiveness with a cause is an effective way of signaling the sincerity to consumers. The high distinctiveness, which represents an actor who is engaging in one entity in the different way from engaging in other entities, can lead to individuals' beliefs that the firm really cares about the cause (Folkes, 1988; Kelley, 1967). CSR studies have suggested several ways to communicate firms' sincerity by strengthening the distinctiveness: e.g., CSR commitment (i.e., the amount of inputs, durability over time, and consistency of inputs; Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh, 1987). For example, Meiji Yasuda Life Insurance Company has initiated soccer schools for children and walking events for people in all hometowns of the J. League clubs every year during its sponsorship contract. It explained how its branches spreading the whole country cooperated with local clubs of the J. League to contribute to the healthy development of local communities (Meiji Yasuda Life Insurance Company, 2020). These activities can well represent the three components of the CSR commitment. Consumers highly interpret that it really cares for the cause when such commitments are conveyed. The application of such ways would make public-serving motives more salient to consumers, eventually leading to more favorable evaluations of sponsors.

Total Discussion of Practical Implications

This research can totally be utilized to sponsors that might be incongruent with sponsored property and face their CSI. For example, they include many sponsors of mega sporting events: e.g., P&G (the IOC; environment issues), Coca-Cola (the IOC and FIFA; obesity issues), Dow Chemical (the IOC; environment issues), Toyota (the IOC; environment issues), McDonald's (FIFA; obesity issues). Those sponsors are not only facing their CSI, but also must be less congruent with the sponsored property than sports equipment brands, such as Adidas (FIFA) and Asics (the IOC). Based on the findings of the study, they need to initiate CSR strategies that can avoid the retrieval of CSI with improving the associations with the sponsored property. Namely, the logical explanations of why and how the two entities involve in a particular CSR activity can be more important for improving consumers' attitude than articulating the relationship between the sponsor and the CSR activity. Examples of Meiji Yasuda Life Insurance Company – discussed in the practical parts of both studies – represent the sponsor-property link well. A way to articulate its CSR activities that serve local fans of the J. League has the potential that makes the associations between the two entities in terms of geographic and commitment fits. This possibly justifies their engagements in the CSR activities, and can effectively signal their sincerity to consumers as well. The perceived sincerity – highlighted as an important factor in Study 2 – is one of the effective ways to overcome the potential damages that can be driven by the strong associations with CSI. Furthermore, as demonstrated in Study 1, connecting the shared missions between the two entities in terms of serving the society to their rationale that engages in CSR activities will be a subtle form in order to increase the sponsor-property associations. If consumers perceive a particular CSR activity as motivated by the shared missions, they would interpret it on the basis of the shared associations between the two entities rather than the association between the sponsor and its CSI. Although it is impossible to eliminate the CSI retrieval in their minds

entirely, this way of communicating would help the shift of their focuses on from the CSR-CSI association to the sponsor-property relationship. Therefore, in total, this study suggests communicating shared logics of why and how a sponsor and a sponsored property engage in CSR activity rather than the relationship between only the sponsor and the CSR activity.

CHAPTER 7. LIMITATION AND CONCLUSION

Overview

Chapter 7 points out limitations of this study and suggests possible future research that can fill the limitations. General aspects are discussed; those of Study 1 are indicated; those of Study 2 are introduced. Finally, there is a conclusion part that summarizes this study.

Limitation and Future Research

Although the current study gave sponsors that are incongruent with sports properties and those with CSI insights into effectively linking their sponsorships to CSR activities, it has some limitations that can serve as starting points for future research. The findings may not be generalizable to other sponsorship cases. Study 1 executed an experiment with a household product firm sponsoring the J. League, while Study 2 conducted multi studies with multi fictitious sponsors of Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games. The sponsored properties that were employed in this study are a major-leveled league or mega sporting event, which may be limited to applying to small-leveled sponsored properties. Future studies with other sponsorships can advance this research by focusing on minor sports properties. The research design may limit the external validity of the findings. This research employed experimental studies using fictitious sponsorships. Consumers are repeatedly exposed to sponsorship-related information in reality. Hence, field studies should be conducted to enhance the external validity. In particular, an ethical problem always exists in an experiment design using fake stimuli. Even though this study received ethical approval from Office of Research Ethics in Waseda University before starting and carefully conducted experiment surveys according to the ethical research policy set out by the institute, the existing ethical issue may weaken the contribution of this study. Moreover, long-term effects are required because sponsorship contracts usually last for multiple years (Mazodier & Quester, 2014). In particular,

considering the tendency that consumers' attitude toward an object is formed through accumulated experiences with the object (Albarracin et al., 2005; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993), the importance of examining the long-term effects will be increased in future research. Using a real sponsorship can be a more adequate approach than doing a fictitious one if it is possible to control other external influences. Although controlling other unintended factors is challenging, the long-term effects will provide significant contributions given few studies that have been examined. This research used press releases as experimental stimuli. Individuals may perceive sponsorships differently based on stimulus type (e.g., a press release, drawing, picture; Wolfsteiner et al., 2015). More studies using diverse tools are needed.

The limitation that must be pointed out the most importantly in Study 1 was a lack of manipulation check in the main study. The author conducted a pretest in an attempt to perform a manipulation check of the created fictitious releases. In addition, the main study was executed with reasonable time for participants to read and understand the assigned release (i.e., more than 90 seconds). However, these methods cannot entirely overcome the absence of manipulation check in the main study. Thus, as conducted in Study 2, future research needs to involve it. Study 1 used student samples. Although the author deemed this approach suitable considering the experimental and theoretical testing nature of this study, the sampling was driven by a convenient approach – easy to access them. Such sampling might pose a lack of understanding overall consumers' perceptions of the sponsorship articulations. The findings must be replicated by collecting heterogeneous samples, such as real-life sponsorship recipients. The effects of other messages that are simultaneously articulated are also needed to be investigated. Especially, given that the fit consists of several dimensions, future research examining the extent of which each sponsorship articulation message activates the specific fit dimensions can advance the results of Study 1. R^2 of sponsor-property fit (.08) and attitude toward the sponsor (.13) were low. Though both in significant level (p

< .01), such low R^2 may reduce the contribution of the findings.

Study 2 employed environmental and obesity issues as the high CSR-CSI domain overlap conditions. Focusing on other social issues can give more generalizable feedbacks to sponsors with CSI. The author focused on decreasing the CSR-CSI associations. However, CSR activity lowly associated with CSI might be perceived as unethical since such CSR engagement seems to be unrelated to past CSI (Banerjee, 2008; Freeman & Hasnaoui, 2011; Van Zanten & Van Tulder, 2018). Follow-up research need to add a variable indicating perceived ethics of firm to the research model. The sponsor name was not present (c.f., “Firm A” was indicated in the press releases). Holding back the sponsor name and asking questions might have raised doubts among participants. The author attempted to minimize the doubts from the participants by receiving their consensus on the experiment design before participating in the survey. Nevertheless, it must be a limitation of this research. In particular, since no brand was mentioned in this study, the activation of CSI related to the industry category (e.g., cars & environment), not the brand itself (e.g., Volkswagen & diesel cheating). More research focusing on a brand’s CSI can extend this study. The high CSR-CSI domain overlap would be more likely to influence perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity than the low CSR-CSI domain overlap because fast food restaurant chains’ CSR activities fighting obesity issues may be perceived as self-interested activities to increase their bad health images. Thus, the possibility of a different mediation model (i.e., from the high CSR-CSI domain overlap to less favorable attitude toward sponsor via more self-interested motive and then lower CSR perception of sponsor) can be suggested for future research. The results revealed the high correlations between a mediator and a dependent variable in Study 2. Even though the discriminant validity was supported, the high correlations may reduce the meaningfulness of the indirect effect. Future research should carefully consider these points when extending the findings of this study. Lastly, perceived firm-serving motive for CSR

activity might show the low levels of standard deviation that are insufficient to investigate its moderating effects. Manipulating the motive into two groups (i.e., those who perceived public-serving motive vs. those who perceived firm-serving motive) could supplement the above point. Hence, follow-up research needs to consider it.

Conclusion

Despite several limitations, the current study contributed to sponsorship research by answering research questions of two mediation chains to interpret the effect of CSR-linked sponsorship. CSR-linked sponsorship has attracted extensive attention from researchers. Nevertheless, it was unclear whether the noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation increases sponsor-property fit more than the commercially-oriented purpose articulation, then creating more favorable attitude toward the sponsor. Furthermore, no research examined the effects of CSR-CSI domain overlap conditions on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor. To fill these gaps, this study designed two types of research model in Chapter 1 and each model was tested using a single study: Study 1 examined the moderated mediation model of the articulation that incorporated a simultaneously-articulated message as a moderator; Study 2 tested the moderated mediation model of the CSR-CSI domain overlap that employed perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity as a moderator. Literature review was conducted in Chapter 2, and 12 hypotheses were proposed to test the research models in Chapter 3: six for Study 1 and six for Study 2.

Study 1 aimed to examine the effects of two sponsorship purpose articulations on attitude toward the sponsor via sponsor-property fit, and the moderating effect of the mission overlap articulation. An experimental study with student sample was conducted to test the moderated mediation model. The results indicated that the noncommercially-oriented purpose articulation improved sponsor-property fit more than the commercially-oriented purpose

articulation. Such improved sponsor-property fit led to more favorable attitude toward the sponsor. Meanwhile, when the mission overlap was simultaneously articulated, the less positive effects of the commercially-oriented purpose articulation were weaker. Through Study 1, the first understanding of the different processes in which two sponsorship purpose articulations developed attitude toward the sponsor via sponsor-property fit was provided. The moderating effects of the simultaneously-articulated mission overlap on the processes were also suggested. The findings have enriched insights on mixed-articulation strategies with sponsorship purposes and the overlapped-mission for sponsors that are incongruent with sponsored properties.

Study 2 aimed to investigate the effect of CSR-CSI domain overlap conditions on attitude toward the sponsor via CSR perception of sponsor, and the moderating effects of perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity. It was conducted through two experiment studies: Experiment 1 tested the mediation model; Experiment 2 assessed the moderated mediation model. The results demonstrated that the high CSR-CSI domain overlap led to lower CSR perception of sponsor, resulting in less positive attitude toward the sponsor the low CSR-CSI domain overlap. Such positive effects of the low CSR-CSI domain overlap were weaker when perceived firm-serving motive for CSR activity was higher. Study 2 highlighted insights into the application of CSR-CSI domain overlap strategy in the sponsorship field, and strengthened existing evidence on the mediation chain through CSR perception of sponsor. It also indicated the importance of communicating sponsors' sincere interest in solving social issues to consumer. The findings have provided scientific contributions to sponsors with CSI.

In conclusion, the current research further identified the effect of CSR-linked sponsorship on attitude toward the sponsor by investigating two forms of medication chain: (1) sponsor-property fit and (2) CSR perception of sponsor.

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APPENDICES

Questionnaire of the Pretest for Study 1

Jリーグのパートナーシップに関するアンケート調査へのご協力をお願い

このアンケートは、スポーツ組織と企業とのパートナーシップ締結に対する皆様のご意見をお伺いし、今後のスポーツ組織のパートナーシップ締結における基礎資料を得ることを目的としております。ご回答は匿名でいただき、すべて統計的に処理いたしますので、ご回答の内容によって皆様にご迷惑をおかけすることは絶対にございません。以上の主旨をご理解頂き、ご協力を頂きますようお願いいたします。

早稲田大学大学院スポーツ科学研究科 姜 泰安

※ 以下の記事をお読みください。

〇〇、20XX 年より「Jリーグトップパートナー契約」締結

(下記のように、架空の記事 1 編が挿入される。)

〇〇株式会社(以下、〇〇)は、20XX 年 X 月 X 日より日本プロサッカーリーグ(以下、Jリーグ)とトップパートナー契約を締結すると発表した。Jリーグトップパートナー契約は〇〇が 10 社目で、生活用品業としては初めてとなる。

来季からのトップパートナー契約に至った経緯について〇〇は、「清潔・美・健康の分野で、全国の人々の喜びと満足のあふ豊かな生活文化の実現に貢献する」という〇〇の理念と、「地域に根差したスポーツクラブを核として、豊かなスポーツ文化を醸成する」というJリーグの理念との間に相通じる部分があると考えたからだ。

※ 以下の各項目について、上の記事の内容と一致すると思われる番号に○をつけてください。

		非常に そう思う			どちらとも いえない			まったく そう思わない
〇〇がJリーグのパートナーになった理由は、 <u>自社の利益を上げるためだ</u> -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
〇〇がJリーグのパートナーになった理由は、 <u>地域社会に貢献するためだ</u> -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
〇〇がJリーグのパートナーになった理由は、 <u>自社の理念と相通じるからだ</u> ----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
Jリーグのファンは、〇〇の新しい顧客として適切である -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
〇〇の <u>評判</u> は良い -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
〇〇には、良い <u>イメージ</u> がある -----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	

※ あなた自身についてお答えください。

- 性別 1. 男性 2. 女性 ● 年齢 () 歳 ● 学年 () 年

質問は以上です。ご協力、誠にありがとうございました。

Questionnaire of the Main Test for Study 1

「Jリーグのパートナーシップに関するアンケート調査へのご協力をお願い」

このアンケートは、スポーツ組織と企業とのパートナーシップ締結に対する皆様のご意見をお伺いし、今後のスポーツ組織のパートナーシップ締結における基礎資料を得ることを目的としております。ご回答は匿名でいただき、すべて統計的に処理いたしますので、ご回答の内容によって皆様にご迷惑をおかけすることは絶対にございませぬ。以上の主旨をご理解頂き、ご協力を頂きますようお願いいたします。

早稲田大学大学院スポーツ科学研究科 姜 泰安

※ 以下の記事をお読みください。

〇〇、20XX年より「Jリーグトップパートナー契約」締結

(下記のように、架空の記事1編が挿入される。)

〇〇株式会社(以下、〇〇)は、20XX年X月X日より日本プロサッカーリーグ(以下、Jリーグ)とトップパートナー契約を締結すると発表した。Jリーグトップパートナー契約は〇〇が10社目で、生活用品業としては初めてとなる。

来季からのトップパートナー契約に至った経緯について〇〇は、「清潔・美・健康の分野で、全国の人々の喜びと満足のあふ豊かな生活文化の実現に貢献する」という〇〇の理念と、「地域に根差したスポーツクラブを核として、豊かなスポーツ文化を醸成する」というJリーグの理念との間に地域社会への貢献という相通じる部分があると考えたからだ。さらに、〇〇は「地域社会の持続可能な発展及び健全な地域づくりへの貢献という当社の使命を果たすため、51クラブが全国各地で地域に根差した活動をするJリーグとのパートナー契約は最も望ましい」と話し、今後特に青少年の健全育成を念頭において、Jリーグとともにサッカー教室及び講演会などを各地で開催していく方針だ。

※ 以下の設問にお答えください。

Q1. Jリーグと〇〇株式会社との適合度について、あなたはどのように考えますか？ 以下の項目それぞれについて、最もあてはまる番号に○をつけてください。

	非常に そう思う	そう思う	すこし そう思う	どちらとも いえない	あまりそう 思わない	そう 思わない	まったく そう思わない
〇〇とJリーグの間には、理論的に納得できる関係がある。-----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
〇〇とJリーグは、相性が良い。-----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
〇〇とJリーグは、似たものを表している。-----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
〇〇がJリーグのパートナーになっていることは、理にかなっている。-----	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Q2. 〇〇株式会社に対して、あなたはどのようなイメージや印象を持ちましたか？ 以下に示す「対語」それぞれについて、あなたの考えに最も近い□に✓をつけてください。

	非常に	かなり	すこし	どちらでも ない	すこし	かなり	非常に	
良い	<input type="checkbox"/>	-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	悪い
好き	<input type="checkbox"/>	-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	嫌い
肯定的	<input type="checkbox"/>	-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	否定的
好ましい	<input type="checkbox"/>	-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	好ましくない

Q3. あなたのJリーグに関わる以下の各活動の平均的な頻度について、最もあてはまる番号に○をつけてください。

Jリーグ試合のスタジアムでの観戦-----	1. いつも見る	2. よく見る	3. 時々見る	4. たまに見る	5. 見ない
Jリーグ試合のテレビでの観戦-----	1. いつも見る	2. よく見る	3. 時々見る	4. たまに見る	5. 見ない
新聞やインターネットなどでJリーグ関連記事を見ること-----	1. いつも見る	2. よく見る	3. 時々見る	4. たまに見る	5. 見ない
Jリーグに関する話題を人と共有すること-----	1. いつもする	2. よくする	3. 時々する	4. たまにする	5. しない

<あなた自身についてお答えください>

- 性別 1. 男性 2. 女性 ● 年齢 ()歳 ● 学年 ()年

質問は以上です。ご協力、誠にありがとうございました。

Questionnaire of the Pretest for Study 2

※以下の各問について、あなたの考えにあてはまるものを選択してください。

(7段階リッカート尺度：「全くそう思わない」、「そう思わない」、「あまりそう思わない」、「どちらともいえない」、「少しそう思う」、「そう思う」、「とてもそう思う」)

- ①自動車業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、環境に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ②自動車業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの貧困問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ③自動車業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの肥満問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。

- ④航空業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、環境に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ⑤航空業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの貧困問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ⑥航空業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの肥満問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。

- ⑦化学業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、環境に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ⑧化学業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの貧困問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ⑨化学業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの肥満問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。

- ⑩IT(情報通信技術)業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、環境に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ⑪IT(情報通信技術)業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの貧困問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ⑫IT(情報通信技術)業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの肥満問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。

- ⑬クレジットカード業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、環境に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ⑭クレジットカード業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの貧困問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ⑮クレジットカード業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの肥満問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。

- ⑯炭酸飲料業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、環境に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ⑰炭酸飲料業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの貧困問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ⑱炭酸飲料業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの肥満問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。

- ⑲ファーストフード業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、環境に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ⑳ファーストフード業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの貧困問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ㉑ファーストフード業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの肥満問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。

- ㉒ビール業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、環境に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ㉓ビール業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの貧困問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。
- ㉔ビール業界の会社はビジネス展開の際、子どもの肥満問題に悪影響を与える傾向がある。

Questionnaire of the Experiment 1 for Study 2

※「A 企業」という架空の自動車会社があります。この企業が、2020 年東京オリンピック・パラリンピックのスポンサー企業になりました。以下の記事をお読みください。

「A」自動車会社、東京 2020 オリンピック・パラリンピック競技大会のオフィシャルスポンサーに

(下記のように、架空の記事 1 編が挿入される。)

「A」自動車会社は、公益財団法人東京オリンピック・パラリンピック競技大会組織委員会（以下、東京 2020 大会）と東京 2020 オリンピック・パラリンピック競技大会のオフィシャルスポンサー契約を締結した。A 社は、支援の輪を広げる東京 2020 大会の実現に向けて、日本全国における子どもの貧困問題の解決に向けての活動を行うという。現在、日本の子どもの 7 人に 1 人が貧困状態にあり、OECD 加盟国の中で最悪の水準にある。こういった子どもたちは、医療や食事、学習、進学などの面で極めて不利な状況に置かれ、将来も貧困から抜け出しにくい傾向があることが明らかになっている。誰もがオリンピック・パラリンピックを楽しむことができるという東京 2020 大会の掲げる目標の達成に貢献するため、A 社は貧困状態にある子どもたちを支援する活動に積極的に取り組んでいく。子どもの貧困対策団体と連携し、全国各地の A 社の各支店の職員やその家族、そして地域の人々がボランティアとして参加し、子ども食堂や無料学習塾、スポーツ施設の整備など経済的に困窮している子どもたちを支援する。また、オリンピックに出場する選手の協力を得て、誰もが楽しくスポーツを体験できるイベントを開催し、子どもたちの健全な育成に貢献し、貧困状態にある子どもたちを支援していくそうだ。

※下記の記事のうち、()に最もあてはまるものを選択してください。

「A」自動車会社、東京2020オリンピック・パラリンピック競技大会のオフィシャルスポンサーに

(下記のように、架空の記事1編が挿入される。)

「A」自動車会社は、公益財団法人東京オリンピック・パラリンピック競技大会組織委員会（以下、東京2020大会）と東京2020オリンピック・パラリンピック競技大会のオフィシャルスポンサー契約を締結した。
()。

現在、日本の子どもの7人に1人が貧困状態にあり、OECD加盟国の中で最悪の水準にある。こういった子どもたちは、医療や食事、学習、進学などの面で極めて不利な状況に置かれ、将来も貧困から抜け出しにくい傾向があることが明らかになっている。誰もがオリンピック・パラリンピックを楽しむことができるという東京2020大会の掲げる目標の達成に貢献するため、A社は貧困状態にある子どもたちを支援する活動に積極的に取り組んでいく。子どもの貧困対策団体と連携し、全国各地のA社の各支店の職員やその家族、そして地域の人々がボランティアとして参加し、子ども食堂や無料学習塾、スポーツ施設の整備など経済的に困窮している子どもたちを支援する。また、オリンピックに出場する選手の協力を得て、誰もが楽しくスポーツを体験できるイベントを開催し、子どもたちの健全な育成に貢献し、貧困状態にある子どもたちを支援していくそうだ。

①A社は、環境に配慮した東京2020大会の実現に向けて、開催都市の東京のみならず日本全国において二酸化炭素（CO₂）排出量を減らすための活動を行うという

②A社は、支援の輪を広げる東京2020大会の実現に向けて、日本全国における子どもの貧困問題の解決に向けての活動を行うという

③A社は、支援の輪を広げる東京2020大会の実現に向けて、日本全国における子どもの肥満問題の解決に向けての活動を行うという。

※以下のうち、先程の記事で最も読み取れたものを選択してください。

- ①このスポンサー企業は、環境問題の解決に向けて取り組んでいる
- ②このスポンサー企業は、子どもの貧困問題の解決に向けて取り組んでいる
- ③このスポンサー企業は、子どもの肥満問題の解決に向けて取り組んでいる

※以下の各問について、あなたの考えにあてはまるものを選択してください。

(7段階リッカート尺度:「全くそう思わない」、「そう思わない」、「あまりそう思わない」、「どちらともいえない」、「少しそう思う」、「そう思う」、「とてもそう思う」)

- ①このスポンサー企業はビジネス展開の際、(環境/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)に悪影響を与える傾向がある
 - ②このスポンサー企業は、(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)が解決されることを望んでいる
 - ③このスポンサー企業は、(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)を解決する活動に積極的に取り組んでいる
 - ④このスポンサー企業は、(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)に真摯に向き合っている
 - ⑤このスポンサー企業が(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)の解決に取り組むことは、論理的に理解できる
 - ⑥このスポンサー企業が取り組む(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)は、このスポンサー企業と相性が良い
 - ⑦このスポンサー企業が(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)の解決に取り組むことは、理にかなっている
-

※このスポンサー企業に対して、あなたはどのようなイメージや印象を持ちましたか?

(7段階SD尺度)

- | | | |
|------------|---|-----------|
| ①良いイメージである | / | 悪いイメージである |
| ②好きである | / | 嫌いである |
| ③好意的である | / | 好意的でない |
| ④肯定的である | / | 否定的である |
| ⑤好ましい | / | 好ましくない |
-

※以下の各問について、あなた自身があてはまるものを選択してください。

(7段階リッカート尺度:「全くあてはまらない」、「あてはまらない」、「ややあてはまらない」、「どちらともいえない」、「ややあてはまる」、「あてはまる」、「大いにあてはまる」)

- ①(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)は私にとって重要である
- ②私は、(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)についてとても関心がある
- ③(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)は私と関係がある
- ④(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)は私にとって大した問題ではない
- ⑤あなたは自分のことを真の「オリンピック」のファンだと思う
- ⑥もし「オリンピック」のファンを止めなければならぬとしたら、あなたは喪失感を味わうだろう
- ⑦「オリンピック」のファンであることは、あなたにとってとても重要である

Questionnaire of the Experiment 2 for Study 2

※「A 企業」という架空の炭酸飲料企業があります。この企業が、2020 年東京オリンピック・パラリンピックのスポンサー企業になりました。以下の記事をお読みください。

「A」炭酸飲料企業、東京 2020 オリンピック・パラリンピック競技大会のオフィシャルスポンサーに

(下記のように、架空の記事 1 編が挿入される。)

「A」炭酸飲料企業は、公益財団法人東京オリンピック・パラリンピック競技大会組織委員会（以下、東京 2020 大会）と東京 2020 オリンピック・パラリンピック競技大会のオフィシャルスポンサー契約を締結した。A 社は、支援の輪を広げる東京 2020 大会の実現に向けて、日本全国における子どもの貧困問題の解決に向けての活動を行うという。現在、日本の子どもの 7 人に 1 人が貧困状態にあり、OECD 加盟国の中で最悪の水準にある。こういった子どもたちは、医療や食事、学習、進学などの面で極めて不利な状況に置かれ、将来も貧困から抜け出しにくい傾向があることが明らかになっている。誰もがオリンピック・パラリンピックを楽しむことができるという東京 2020 大会の掲げる目標の達成に貢献するため、A 社は貧困状態にある子どもたちを支援する活動に積極的に取り組んでいく。子どもの貧困対策団体と連携し、全国各地の A 社の各支店の職員やその家族、そして地域の人々がボランティアとして参加し、子ども食堂や無料学習塾、スポーツ施設の整備など経済的に困窮している子どもたちを支援する。また、オリンピックに出場する選手の協力を得て、誰もが楽しくスポーツを体験できるイベントを開催し、子どもたちの健全な育成に貢献し、貧困状態にある子どもたちを支援していくそうだ。

※下記の記事のうち、()に最もあてはまるものを選択してください。

「A」炭酸飲料企業、東京 2020 オリンピック・パラリンピック競技大会のオフィシャルスポンサーに

(下記のように、架空の記事 1 編が挿入される。)

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現在、日本の子どもの 7 人に 1 人が貧困状態にあり、OECD 加盟国の中で最悪の水準にある。こういった子どもたちは、医療や食事、学習、進学などの面で極めて不利な状況に置かれ、将来も貧困から抜け出しにくい傾向があることが明らかになっている。誰もがオリンピック・パラリンピックを楽しむことができるという東京 2020 大会の掲げる目標の達成に貢献するため、A 社は貧困状態にある子どもたちを支援する活動に積極的に取り組んでいく。子どもの貧困対策団体と連携し、全国各地の A 社の各支店の職員やその家族、そして地域の人々がボランティアとして参加し、子ども食堂や無料学習塾、スポーツ施設の整備など経済的に困窮している子どもたちを支援する。また、オリンピックに出場する選手の協力を得て、誰もが楽しくスポーツを体験できるイベントを開催し、子どもたちの健全な育成に貢献し、貧困状態にある子どもたちを支援していくそうだ。

①A 社は、環境に配慮した東京 2020 大会の実現に向けて、開催都市の東京のみならず日本全国において二酸化炭素 (CO₂) 排出量を減らすための活動を行うという

②A 社は、支援の輪を広げる東京 2020 大会の実現に向けて、日本全国における子どもの貧困問題の解決に向けての活動を行うという

③A 社は、支援の輪を広げる東京 2020 大会の実現に向けて、日本全国における子どもの肥満問題の解決に向けての活動を行うという。

※以下のうち、先程の記事で最も読み取れたものを選択してください。

- ①このスポンサー企業は、環境問題の解決に向けて取り組んでいる
- ②このスポンサー企業は、子どもの貧困問題の解決に向けて取り組んでいる
- ③このスポンサー企業は、子どもの肥満問題の解決に向けて取り組んでいる

※以下の各問について、あなたの考えにあてはまるものを選択してください。

(7段階リッカート尺度:「全くそう思わない」、「そう思わない」、「あまりそう思わない」、「どちらともいえない」、「少しそう思う」、「そう思う」、「とてもそう思う」)

- ①このスポンサー企業はビジネス展開の際、(環境/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)に悪影響を与える傾向がある
 - ②このスポンサー企業は、(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)が解決されることを望んでいる
 - ③このスポンサー企業は、(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)を解決する活動に積極的に取り組んでいる
 - ④このスポンサー企業は、(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)に真摯に向き合っている
 - ⑤このスポンサー企業が(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)の解決に取り組むことは、論理的に理解できる
 - ⑥このスポンサー企業が取り組む(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)は、このスポンサー企業と相性が良い
 - ⑦このスポンサー企業が(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)の解決に取り組むことは、理にかなっている
-

※このスポンサー企業が(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)の解決に取り組む動機について、あなたはどのように考えていますか？(7段階SD尺度)

- | | | |
|-----------|---|----------|
| ①社会の関心による | / | 企業の関心による |
| ②顧客中心の | / | 企業中心の |
| ③社会目的による | / | 営利目的による |
-

※このスポンサー企業に対して、あなたはどのようなイメージや印象を持ちましたか？(7段階SD尺度)

- | | | |
|------------|---|-----------|
| ①良いイメージである | / | 悪いイメージである |
| ②好きである | / | 嫌いである |
| ③好意的である | / | 好意的でない |
| ④肯定的である | / | 否定的である |
| ⑤好ましい | / | 好ましくない |
-

※以下の各問について、あなた自身があてはまるものを選択してください。

(7段階リッカート尺度:「全くあてはまらない」、「あてはまらない」、「ややあてはまらない」、「どちらともいえない」、「ややあてはまる」、「あてはまる」、「大いにあてはまる」)

- ①(環境問題/子どもの肥満問題/子どもの貧困問題)は私にとって重要である
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