

INFLUENCE OF PRODUCT-ENDORSER MATCH-UP ON
CONSUMER'S PURCHASE INTENTIONS OF
(NON-SPORT) ENDORSED PRODUCTS

By

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Jessica Robin Braunstein

This document is dedicated to my family.

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I want to thank my committee, the sport management faculty, my advisor/chairs, my classmates/colleagues, and especially my friends. Most importantly, I wish to acknowledge my family. I want to thank those by my side today and those that are no longer with us. They have all taught me more than they will ever realize. Their unwavering support has allowed me to take chances and let my heart to guide me along this crazy journey. Without their love, support, and encouragement this would not have been possible – or worth it! They are my rocks, my best friends, and my biggest cheerleaders. They have been my inspiration and my tour guides. Without them I would not be where I am or, more importantly, who I am today. I could not have accomplished this without any of the people in my life, and for that I am forever grateful.

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The practice of using athletes to endorse sport and non-sport products has increased drastically since Miller Lite's highly successful "Tastes Great, Less Filling" campaign in the 1970's. As a result of media coverage and increased social visibility, star athletes have embraced their celebrity status and benefited financially from endorsing products. Numerous studies have indicated that a star athlete's association with a brand may help to define and enhance the brand's image; however, negative characteristics of an endorser could also have a deleterious effect (Horror, 2002; Pitts & Stotlar, 2002). To a great extent, the success of an endorsement depends on product-endorser congruency. The purpose of this study was to develop a model to examine the relationships among identification with an athlete and his/her sport (Robinson & Trail, 2005), product-endorser congruency (Match-Up = Expertise, Trustworthiness, and Image; Aaker, 1997; Braunstein & Zhang, 2005a, 2005b; Tenser, 2004), perceived value of the product

(Emotion, Quality, Price, and Social; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001), and consumer purchase intentions. Participants ($N = 400$) were college students, who responded to an online questionnaire that measured their perception of product-endorser congruency, identification with the athlete and/or her sport, perceived value of the product, and purchase intentions after viewing an advertisement with Maria Sharapova endorsing a Canon PowerShot digital camera. A confirmatory factor analysis revealed a lack of discriminant validity among the first-order latent variables for Match-Up; thus, an adjustment was made to allow all items to load directly on the general Match-Up factor. One Perceived Value subscale (Emotion) was eliminated from further analyses because of a lack of discriminant validity with the Quality subscale. The structural model showed adequate fit of the model, with the largest amount of variance being explained by the relationships of Match-Up to Perceived Value (38%) and of Perceived Value to Purchase Intention (52%). Identification (both Athlete and Sport) was found to have a small influence on Match-Up, with only 7% of the variance explained. The final model provides preliminary information on socio-psychological factors that influence the purchase intentions of endorsed products, and can be used as a reference by corporations when choosing athlete endorsers.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Athlete Endorsers

As the sport market has grown, so have the various mediums that make it possible to be a sport spectator. Through various magazines, newspapers, video games, television shows, and the Internet, it is easy for individuals in different regions of the country, or the world, to become familiar with a variety of different sports and, in turn, a wide array of athletes. As a result of the high skill-level of professional athletes and the media attention that sport receives, consumers are aware of many athletes' abilities and achievements. However, when distinguishing one athlete from another, it is the athlete's individual characteristics that set him or her apart from the others (Brooks & Harris, 1998; Chalip, 1996; Howard, 1979; Stevens, Lathrop, & Bradish, 2003). Some athletes create a name for themselves based on athletic talent alone, while others make an impact on the industry, both positive (Cornwell, Roy, & Steinard, 2001; Javalgi, Traylor, Gross, & Lampman, 1994; McDonald, 1991) and negative (Horror, 2002), with their attitudes and actions on and off the playing field. Many athletes receive public attention, but some bridge the gap between sport star and general celebrity. A celebrity, or an individual whose name has the ability to attract attention and interest, has the potential to influence consumers as a result of an individual's response to that celebrity (Rein, Kotler, & Stoller, 1997). Athletes that have an elevated level of celebrity may also have star power, made up of a star athlete's overall characteristics, both ability and personality (Braunstein & Zhang, 2005a).

As a result of the metamorphosis of athletes into celebrities, the use of an identifiable and reliable athlete or coach to endorse a product may encourage a bond to form between the product and consumers. Advertisers take advantage of the loyalty that forms as a result of an individual's allegiance to the product (Wansink & Ray, 2000) and the athlete (Braunstein & Zhang, 2005a). James (2002) discussed the importance of matching a product and an endorser. Typically, the effectiveness of an endorser increases by matching the qualities of the athlete to those of the product (Brooks & Harris, 1998; Chalip, 1996; Howard, 1979). These characteristics would then be reinforced as traits of both the endorser and the product in the mind of the consumer. Choosing the right athlete for the product enforces this congruence. Well-known pairs include the groupings of Tiger Woods (golf) and Nike, Mia Hamm (soccer) and Gatorade, and Shaun White (skateboarding and snowboarding) with Mountain Dew. The traits of these athletes are widely viewed as similar with the traits of the products that they promote. This fit, or match-up, is the perceived congruency between the characteristics of the endorser and the product. Corporations are looking for a pair that fits in the eyes of the consumer. The consumers that organizations generally target with these relationships are typically the youngest generation with purchasing power (Holton, 2000). Presently, Generation Y, or individuals approximately 13-27 years-old, is the market segment that is influenced the most by the use of athletic stars in promotional campaigns (Rein et al., 1997; Stevens et al., 2003; Stotlar, Veltri, & Viswanthan, 1998). Since this is the age range within which people typically form lasting product preferences, corporations are trying to create endorser-product matches that solidify their product(s) as the product of choice(s) for the consumer in the future.

Marketers create endorser-product matches with the intention that consumers will understand this relationship when recalling their product(s). However, there are exceptions to this rule. There are instances in which an athlete acts in a manner that is not congruent with the product. This is an inherent risk when a corporation becomes involved with any celebrity as an endorser. Although the product may not be involved, if an athlete makes controversial decisions in his or her personal life, the bad publicity that the athlete receives may transfer to negative exposure for the product that he or she endorses (Pitts & Stotlar, 2002; Stevens et al., 2003). Such instances may affect the individual as well as any product(s) that he/she is associated with, becoming a liability to the product(s) (Till & Shimp, 1998). A controversial figure may create an initial impact on consumer purchase intentions; yet, some researchers believe that it is in the best interest of the marketer to align a product with an athlete that maintains the values of the company and, in turn, the product itself (Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990). It is important for marketers to be aware of the factors that influence a consumer's purchase intentions, including the potential influence of athlete endorsers.

Influence on Purchase Intentions

Marketers often use celebrity endorsers in advertising campaigns as a tool to influence consumer's purchase intentions (e.g., Kamins, 1990; Ohanian, 1991). Attitude, or an individual's feelings for or against the attributes of an object (Fishbein & Ajzen; 1975), is developed through a process comprised of three phases. The phases (cognition, affect, and conation; e.g., Lavidge & Steiner, 1961; Palda, 1966; Ray, 1973) follow an individual's unique process as he or she thinks about the product (cognition), develops feelings for or against the product (affect), and the behavior intentions that follow

(conation). Studies have shown that attitudes may be altered through the techniques used to market a product. Specifically, advertisements have been found to mediate a consumer's perception of a brand (e.g., Lutz, 1975; MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989; MacKenzie, Lutz, & Belch, 1986). In order to understand the influence of athlete endorsers, the consumer's level of identification toward both the athlete and the sport in which the athlete participates must be observed (Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2002; Kwon, Trail, & Anderson, 2005; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Robinson, Trail, & Kwon, 2004; Trail, Robinson, Dick, & Gillentine, 2003; Wann, 2002). Identification, stemming from identity theory, examines the "parts of a self composed of the meanings that persons attach to the multiple roles they typically play in highly differentiated contemporary societies" (Stryker & Burke, 2000, p. 284). Therefore, identity theory examines the individual's perception of his or her role in different social contexts, not the general social categorization that society places on specific roles. While this has not been studied on an individual level, or in the context of examining the influence of an individual athlete on a consumer's purchase intentions outside the realm of sport, it is an integral part of the relationship that may help to explain a consumer's purchasing rationale. Once the level of influence that these factors exert has been examined, how the individual will perceive the fit of the pair based on the characteristics of both can be observed (e.g., Aaker, 1997; Austin et al., 2003; Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003; Erdogan, Baker, & Tagg, 2001; Fink, Cunningham, & Kensicki, 2004; Goldsmith, Lafferty, & Newell, 2000; Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953; Ohanian, 1991). This fit, or congruency between the characteristics of the endorser and the product, has often been examined to evaluate the effectiveness of endorsers in advertising. Numerous researchers have found that this fit, when appropriate,

does influence a consumer's purchase intentions (e.g., Ohanian; Tripp, Jensen, & Carlson, 1994; Wansink & Ray; 2000).

In addition to understanding the influence of an individual's level of identification with the endorser/sport and perception of the endorser-product fit, the consumer's perception of the product must be examined. Ultimately, an individual must believe that there is some level of value in owning the product in order to purchase it. Perceived value has been defined as "consumers overall assessment of the utility of a product (or service) based on perceptions on what is received and what is given" (Zeithaml, 1988, p. 14). Examined in terms an individual's emotional attachment, its price, its quality, and/or a feeling of social acceptance received from obtaining the item (Lee, Trail, Kwon, & Anderson, 2005; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001), perceived value involves a consumer's overall perception of the product. If a consumer does not believe that the product holds any value, the individual will not purchase the product. Therefore, the perceived value of the product is an integral aspect of the relationship.

Theory Development

Through the course of studying the phenomenon of using endorsers in advertising, four main ideas have been developed. They include the Source Credibility Model (Hovland et al., 1953; Hovland & Weiss, 1951; McGuire, 1968), the Source Attractiveness Model (McGuire, 1985), the Meaning Transfer Model (Langmeyer & Walker, 1991a; 1991b; McCracken, 1989), and the Product Match-Up Hypothesis (Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990). When synthesized, these concepts define a specific set of factors that are deemed appropriate for use in the selection of the most effective endorser of a product. The selection criterion lies with the thought process

stemming from the first model, the Source Credibility Model (Hovland et al.; Hovland & Weiss; McGuire, 1968), which suggests that an individual's perception of an endorser's Expertise and Trustworthiness leads to an influential campaign. The Source Attractiveness Model (McGuire, 1985) expanded upon the Source Credibility Model (Hovland et al.; Hovland & Weiss; McGuire, 1968), claiming that an individual's acceptance of a message stems from his/her similarity to, familiarity with, and liking of the endorser that is relaying the message. In an effort to consolidate the findings of these studies, Ohanian (1990) determined that perceived Expertise, Trustworthiness, and Attractiveness were the most appropriate factors to use in examining the effectiveness of an endorser. These factors extended to the Match-Up Hypothesis (Kahle & Homer; Kamins, 1989, 1990), with researchers stating that the most effective campaign results from an appropriate fit between the endorser and the product. As an extension of the Match-Up Hypothesis (Kahle & Homer; Kamins, 1989, 1990), the Meaning Transfer Model (Langmeyer & Walker, 1991a; 1991b; McCracken) was developed in order to explain the process that is conducted when an endorser is used to promote a product. The model, focusing on Perceived Image, illustrates that the image of the endorser is first solidified in the mind of the consumer, the appropriate endorser is then chosen to pass the image on from the endorser to the product, and, finally, the image is transferred from the product to the consumer. These concepts have been synthesized into four main factors referent to the selection of an appropriate endorser: perception of the endorser's Attractiveness (e.g., McGuire, 1968; Ohanian), Expertise (e.g., McGuire, 1968; Ohanian), Trustworthiness (e.g., McGuire, 1985; Ohanian), and Likeability (e.g., McGuire, 1985).

Braunstein and Zhang (2005a) conducted a study to examine the aforementioned characteristics, specifying the use of athletes as endorsers, which resulted in the formation of the Scale of Athletic Star Power (SASP). This scale included five factors, characterizing athlete endorsers based on consumer perceptions: Professional Trustworthiness (e.g., genuineness and integrity), Likeable Personality (e.g., behavior), Athletic Expertise (e.g., knowledge, experience, and ability), Social Attractiveness (e.g., image and attractiveness), and Characteristic Style (e.g., controversial and flamboyant). Although Characteristic Style had not been distinguished as a unique factor in previous celebrity endorser studies, the attributes themselves had been identified throughout previous studies (e.g., Erdogan, 1999; Erdogan et al., 2001; Stevens et al., 2003). Development of the scale was based on previous endorser effectiveness research (e.g., Baker & Churchill, 1977; Boyd & Shank, 2004; Brooks & Harris, 1998; Erdogan; Hovland & Weiss, 1951; McGuire, 1968; McGuire, 1985; Miciak & Shanklin, 1994; Ohanian, 1991), and it expanded the literature to include characteristics that may be unique to athlete endorsers.

As a follow-up to their initial study, Braunstein and Zhang (2005b) reexamined the 5-factor SASP to look at the characteristics that consumers deemed important in athlete endorsers. The reevaluation concluded in the creation of the Scale of Athletic Star Power – Consumer Perspective (SASP – CP). The SASP – CP included many of the original factors, including the collapse of the Social Attractiveness and Characteristic Style into one factor: Public Image. An individual's overall image is often overlooked in the sport literature as a result of the focus on attractiveness and expertise (Brooks & Harris, 1998; Chalip, 1996; Fink et al., 2004). This may be an important factor when considering its

practical implications. For example, the influence of public image can be observed by looking at the endorsement contracts for athletes on the Professional Golf Association (PGA) Tour. Athletes on the PGA Tour, such as Tiger Woods, can have extensive endorsement deals based on the athletic star power factors. However, if overall image of the athlete endorser is not taken into account, a number of important factors could be deleted from the equation. An athlete, such as Vijay Singh, who is a highly-ranked golfer and performs on the same level as Woods, does not have the overall image necessary to create an athlete endorser who will influence a consumer's intention to purchase a product. Therefore, although Singh is an expert in his sport, corporations do not believe he will have a major impact in driving sales, leaving him behind in the race for endorsement dollars (Seligman, 2005).

As previously mentioned, studies on athlete endorsers tend to focus on the attractiveness and expertise of endorsers (Brooks & Harris, 1998; Chalip, 1996; Fink et al, 2004). These studies lack the integration of the other factors (e.g., Trustworthiness and Likeability) that previous researchers believed to be significant (Hovland et al., 1953; Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990; Langmeyer & Walker, 1991a; 1991b; McCracken, 1989; McGuire; 1968; 1985). Additionally, the characteristics deemed important to the fit have not often included the "personality traits" of the product itself (Aaker, 1997; Austin, Siguaw, & Mattila, 2003; Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003; Govers & Schoormans, 2005). These factors, including Trustworthiness, Expertise, and Image, of both the endorser and the product may provide a more complete overview of the influence of the fit between an athlete and a product on a consumer's purchase intentions.

Several researchers have indicated the importance of understanding the needs and wants of consumers in the selection of an athlete endorser (Greenstein & Marcum, 1981; Hansen & Gauthier, 1989; Schofield, 1983; Zhang, Lam, & Connaughton, 2003; Zhang, Pease, Hui, & Michaud, 1995). By choosing a star athlete or coach who appeals to a specific market segment, the effectiveness of the sport endorsement is enhanced (Brooks & Harris, 1998; Chalip, 1996; Howard, 1979). The consumer is a key factor to consider when distinguishing among ideas regarding marketing a new, modified, or previously established product. A company must understand the consumer group that will most likely purchase its product. Although this information is often considered, many key characteristics that pertain to athletes, the product, and the consumers have often been overlooked in studies involving athlete endorsers.

While previous studies have shed considerable light on the general perception of athlete endorsers and the reasons for their use, a number of limitations have been identified that are associated with the applicability of the proposed theories to the selection process of athlete endorsers. First, an integrated approach to studying the phenomenon of athlete endorsers has not been devised. Based on professional intuitions, many concepts (e.g., attractiveness, credibility, and meaning transfer) have been proposed and superficially investigated (Hovland et al., 1953; Hovland & Weiss, 1951; McCracken, 1989; McGuire, 1968, 1985). While Erdogan et al. (2001) stressed the importance of measuring the characteristics of endorsers, products, and consumers in order to reach a strategy, a theoretical framework that takes into consideration various proposed theoretical frameworks and systematically measures the influence of athlete endorsers has not been identified. It has often been stated that match-up is an integral part

of the process in determining the appropriate endorser of a product (e.g., Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990); however, while the concept itself is often assumed to be integral in influencing a consumer's purchase intentions, a framework has never been developed that fully examines the hypothesis. Second, most studies have been conducted in various business settings rather than in a sport context. According to Baumgartner, Jackson, Mahar, and Rowe (2003), Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), and Thomas and Nelson (2001), research findings are population and context specific. Therefore, generalizations may be problematic and it is uncertain if research findings derived from other business segments are applicable to sport endorsement. Third, the entire market environment, not merely the celebrity and the endorsement, has been inadequately taken into consideration. The impact of media value and the characteristics of the product and the consumers are integral to the relationship formed in the process of endorsement. The potential of endorsement is maximized through the understanding of specific elements that facilitate consumption. Therefore, it is essential to enhance the match between the product and the endorser in order to maximize the potential of an endorsement. Expertise is generally deemed an important factor in the fit between endorsers and products (Boyd & Shank, 2004; Brooks & Harris, 1998; Chalip, 1996; Erdogan, 1999; Fink et al., 2004; Goldsmith et al., 2000; Hovland et al., 1953; Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Langmeyer & Walker, 1991a; 1991b; McCracken, 1989; McGuire, 1968; Miciak & Shanklin, 1994; Stevens et al., 2003). While these findings remain fairly consistent and logical for the promotion of sport products, the practice of using athletes to endorse non-sport products must come into question. While an athlete might fit into the appropriate endorser category for a sneaker or a sports drink, the level of acceptance of an athlete endorsing a

car or a camera has not been extensively examined. Finally, those who have previously studied the role of celebrity endorsers in sport have focused their attention mainly on the opinions of advertising executives (e.g., Erdogan et al.; Miciak & Shanklin, 1994). These studies opted to focus on the opinion of the producers, and often overlooked the importance of the perspectives of the consumers (Kahle & Homer; Kamins, 1989, 1990; McCracken; McGuire, 1968, 1985).

Purpose

A celebrity of sport or non-sport is used in one out of four print or broadcast commercials (Howard, 1979; Shimp, 1979). As a result, it is important to have a framework that explains the factors that may lead to the success of a product's campaign. This study was designed to develop a model that included the factors that have been derived from previous studies on product-endorser match-up (Expertise, Trustworthiness, and Attractiveness/Image; e.g., Braunstein & Zhang, 2005a, 2005b; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990; McGuire, 1968, 1985; Ohanian, 1990), examining the influence of product-endorser match-up on a consumer's purchase intentions as a result of an individual's identification with a sport or athlete (Fink et al., 2002; Kwon et al., 2005; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Robinson et al., 2004; Trail et al., 2003; Wann, 2002) and perceived value of the endorsed product (Lee et al., 2005; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001).

To simultaneously test a variety of relationships among variables, the first step was to test a model (Figure 1) that examined the relationships of these factors together in the context of an athlete endorser promoting a non-sport product.

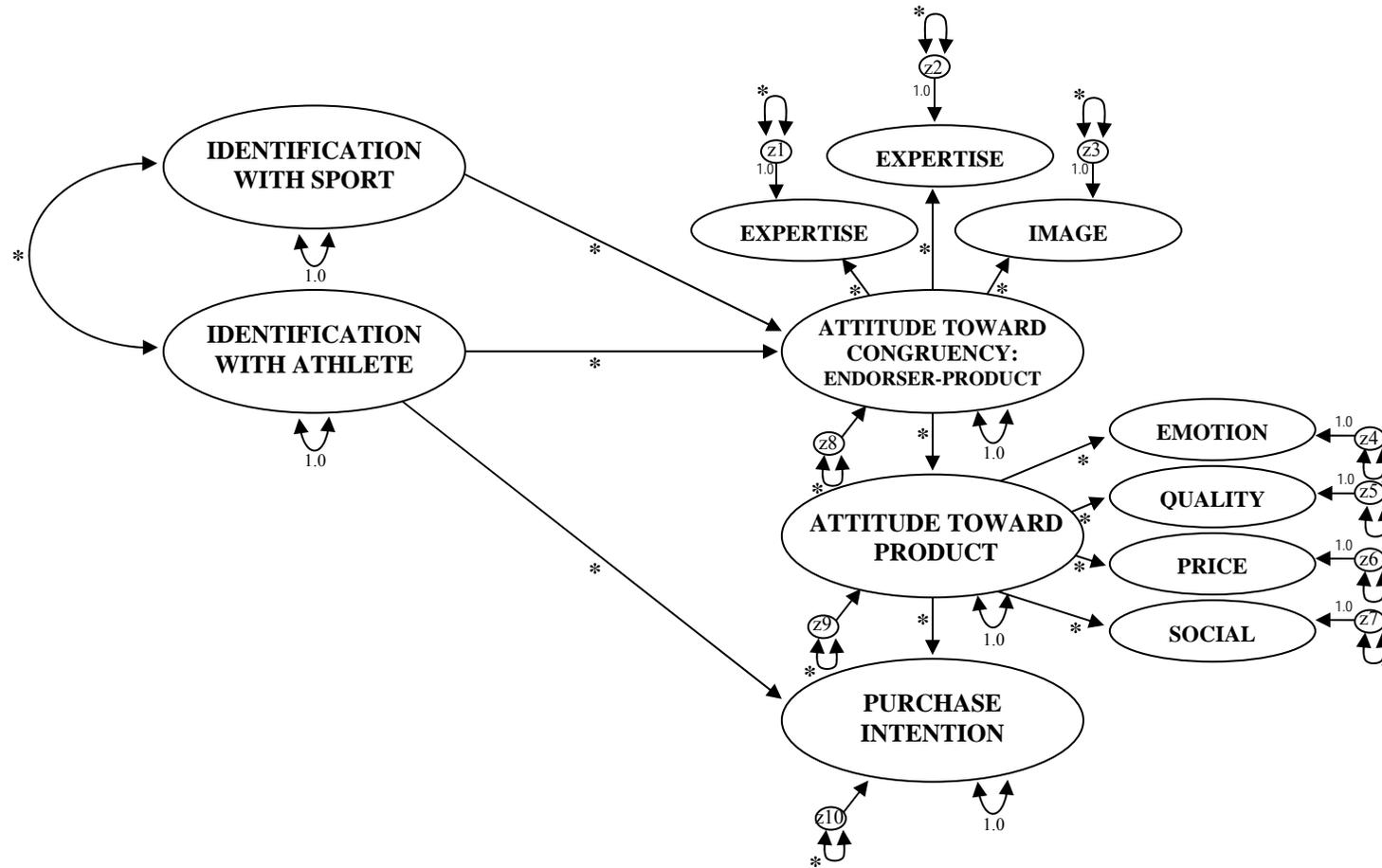


Figure 1. Influence of Product-Endorser Match-Up on Consumer's Purchase Intentions of (Non-Sport) Endorsed Products

This study tested the following research questions:

1. Did the model fit the data?
2. Which relationship explained the largest amount of variance in the model?
 - a. Direct Effects
 - i. Identification with Athlete/Sport → Purchase Intention
 - b. Indirect Effects
 - i. Identification with Athlete → Congruency: Athlete/Product → Attitude Toward Product → Purchase Intention
 - ii. Identification with Sport → Congruency: Athlete/Product → Attitude Toward Product → Purchase Intention

Significance of the Study

Previous studies focusing on the characteristics of endorsers have helped to determine the main qualities that marketers and consumers deem important for individuals that endorse products (e.g., Braunstein & Zhang, 2005a, 2005b; Erdogan, 1999; Erdogan et al., 2001; Hovland et al., 1953; Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Langmeyer & Walker, 1991a; 1991b; McCracken, 1989; McGuire, 1985; Shimp, 1979; Smith, 1973; Stevens et al., 2003). However, these studies have not fully analyzed the unique characteristics of athlete endorsers. The current study was intended to fill the void by reevaluating the factors deemed relevant in the match between an endorser and a product to determine if this match does influence a consumer's purchase intentions.

In this study, the inclusion of an individual's level of identification with the sport/athlete and perceived value of the product, allowed the model to examine match-up in a manner that resembled the reality of the marketing environment. In order to enhance the generalizability of the research findings, the model examined each of these relationships simultaneously in an effort to simulate and test the reality of the exposure. With the addition of these factors, the model provided a better understanding of the influence of athlete endorsers as promotional tools. The model may provide a helpful tool to use when developing interventions, promotional strategies, and procedures.

Additionally, the use of structural equation modeling allowed for the control of measurement and inferential errors, taking into account inaccuracy and compounding factors when testing inter-factor relationships.

As previously mentioned, match-up (e.g., Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990), or endorser-product fit, is often noted and deemed important in the selection and retention of endorsers in general, but has not been appropriately measured. Instead of testing congruency, researchers typically measure a consumer's level of identification with an athlete (e.g., Boyd & Shank, 2004; Fink et al., 2004). While organizations are investing a considerable amount of money on athletes to endorse their products (e.g., Tiger Woods' endorsement contracts are worth \$80 million per year and Michael Jordan's are worth \$33 million per year; Weil, 2005), a model has not been developed to examine this influence, or lack of influence, on an individual's purchase intentions. Both practitioners (e.g., Tenser, 2004) and academicians (e.g., Fink et al., 2004), who have examined the characteristics that they believe to be important in selecting an athlete endorser, often include expertise in the mix. If expertise is a selection criterion, how does this translate to the fit between a tennis player and a digital camera? Therefore, while this practice is still rampant, it would be prudent to examine this model for future use with both non-sport and sport products. The current research provides a model that may answer a number of other research questions in the future. Does star power itself make the difference and to what extent (e.g., high-profile athlete, average athlete, and non-athlete)? Do different types of advertisements (e.g., humor and informational) make a difference on the level of influence? Is there a difference in the effectiveness of the medium used (e.g., television, print, and radio)? Is match-up more effective when used

for a sport product than a non-sport product? These are questions that should be answered to better understand the influence of athlete endorsers. The model in the current study provides a foundation with which these questions can be explored in the future.

Delimitations

This study was confounded by a number of factors. Because this investigation focused on the initial testing of a model, the findings are limited to the present sample as well as those individuals in the sample that are currently aware of (a) the particular endorser, (b) the sport with which the endorser was associated with, and (c) the product included in the study. Therefore, the findings of this single study will not provide generalizable results that pertain to all situations involved in determining the effectiveness of a product-endorser match-up.

Limitations

There were a number of limitations associated with this study. This study was not exempt from limitations often found as a result of the use of a convenience sample. The sample consisted of only students from one region of the country. There were also a number of limitations stemming from the purpose of the study. Because the purpose was to test the model, only one athlete, one sport, and one (non-sport) product (therefore, one overall match) were included in the study. Therefore, level of star power associated with the individual athlete was not examined, nor was the impact of different athletes from different sports or different products from different product categories. As a result, path coefficients may be different in other studies for other pairings, yielding different findings regarding the most influential relationship in the model. However, the findings

may provide a model that can be used or adapted for a number of combinations in the future.

Definition of Terms

While key terms are defined in the context of the model in Chapter Two, a number of basic terms that used throughout the text must first be defined (Table 1; Merriam-Webster, 2004):

Table 1. Definition of Terms

Term	Definition
1. Athlete	A person who is trained or skilled in exercises, sports, or games requiring physical strength, agility, or stamina.
2. Attachment	The state of being personally attached, or to bind by personal ties (as of affection or sympathy).
3. Attitude	A feeling or emotion toward a fact or state.
4. Belief	A state or habit of mind in which trust or confidence is placed in some person or thing.
5. Congruent	Marked or enhanced by harmonious agreement among constituent elements.
6. Credible	Offering reasonable grounds for being believed.
7. Endorse	To approve openly or to express support or approval of publicly and definitely.
8. Expert	One with the special skill or knowledge representing mastery of a particular subject.
9. Identification	A largely unconscious process whereby an individual models thoughts, feelings, and actions after those attributed to an object that has been incorporated as a mental image.
10. Match	A pair suitably associated.
11. Perceived	To regard as being such.

Table 1 Continued

Term	Definition
12. Persuasion	The act or process or an instance of persuading (to move by argument, entreaty, or expostulation to a belief, position, or course of action).
13. Star	An outstandingly talented performer or a person who is preeminent in a particular field.
14. Transfer	To convey from one person, place, or situation to another.
15. Value	Something (as a principle or quality) intrinsically valuable or desirable.

Overview

In Chapter One, the purpose of the study and the model that was tested has been explained. The remaining chapters focus on the theoretical framework of the model, how the study was conducted, and the findings of the research project. Therefore, Chapter Two will provide an overview of the pertinent research regarding the theoretical framework that supports the model. Chapter Three will explain the research methods involved in the creation of the questionnaire and the steps that were taken to complete the study. Chapter Four will then provide the results of the study and, in conclusion, Chapter Five will expand upon the results provided in Chapter Four, presenting the discussion and conclusion of the study.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

According to the American Marketing Association, consumer behavior is “the dynamic interaction of affect and cognition, behavior, and the environment by which human beings conduct the exchange aspects of their lives” (Marketingpower.com, 2006). Therefore, in order to understand what influences a consumer’s behavioral intentions and ultimate behavior, the decision-making process concerning the purchase must be examined based on the specific decision that the individual is making.

In order for a consumer to ultimately make a purchase, the individual must first be aware of the product. After an individual is aware of the product, a marketer must then take the steps necessary to lead the consumer from awareness, to interest, then desire, and finally, action. In order to examine this phenomenon, Lavidge and Steiner (1961) developed the Hierarchy of Effects model to measure advertising effectiveness. This included six “steps” and three general processes, to be performed in order: (a) cognition (i.e., awareness-knowledge), (b) affect (i.e., liking-preference), and (c) conation (i.e., conviction-purchase). While the model was initially designed as a step-by-step process, the time that each individual spends at each phase may depend on the specific product. Additionally, the level of investment required to consume the product may alter the process. If less of an investment is required, steps may be skipped in the decision-making process. Palda (1966) questioned Lavidge and Steiner’s model, claiming that there was no empirical evidence to support its claims. Palda did not believe that the cognition-

affect-conation hierarchy was the only way to define decision-making. Ray (1973) supported Palda's assertion, suggesting that there was not one process, but three: the traditional hierarchy (cognition-affect-conation), the dissonance-attribution hierarchy (conation-affect-cognition), and the low involvement hierarchy (conation-cognition-affect). As a result of each individual's unique internal motives, or motivators, it is important for marketers to understand what drives an individual's attitude and, in turn, attitude change (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993).

The "awareness" that Lavidge and Steiner (1961) discussed can be accomplished through various promotional tactics (e.g., print, radio, television, Internet). Reis and Trout (1981) believed that these methods are used to position a product or entity in the minds of both current and potential consumers. Positioning, a tool used to communicate with consumers in a crowded marketplace, has often been used to set an organization apart from its competitors. One way of positioning a product is through an organization's promotional strategies (e.g., advertising campaigns). An organization can choose to use the type of advertisement that they believe will reach their target market. In order to set oneself apart, an organization may use a number of different positioning tactics, including the use of a celebrity endorser in their advertising (e.g., Javalgi, Traylor, Gross, & Lampman, 1994; McCracken, 1989).

In North America, the public maintains a steady interest in those deemed to have celebrity status. Therefore, the individuals that make up this population of celebrities remain a staple in the marketing strategies of executives in a wide array of industries, ranging from automobile manufacturers to the makers of sports equipment. Due to the extensive use of endorsers (including celebrities) in advertising and promotions,

numerous researchers have attempted to understand the impact that these tactics have on their markets (e.g., Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1990; Ohanian, 1990). The use of celebrity endorsers is believed to (a) generate a greater likelihood of a customer choosing the endorsed brand or product (e.g., Heath, McCarthy, & Mothersbaugh, 1994; Kamins; Ohanian, 1991), (b) enhance message recall (e.g., Friedman & Friedman), (c) aid in the recognition of brand names (e.g., Petty, Caciopo, & Schumann, 1983), and (d) create a distinct personality for the endorsed brand or product (e.g., Javalgi et al., 1994; McCracken, 1989).

Individuals in sport (e.g., athletes and coaches) are not exempt from the American public's obsession with celebrity. As a result of professional sport's evolution from newspaper to radio to television and the Internet, it has long held a place in the public spotlight (Schaaf, 2004). Athletes and coaches, particularly those with unique personalities, levels of talent, and/or longevity in the industry, have become celebrities in their own right. This level of celebrity has provided an opportunity for both athlete and manufacturer to work with one another to promote a variety of products. As the number of high-profile athletes has grown, so has the number of multi-million dollar endorsement contracts (King, 2005). Stemming from Miller Lite's "Lite All-Stars" and "Tastes Great, Less Filling" campaigns in the 1970's, both athletes and coaches have evolved into mainstream celebrities, endorsing everything from beer and sports equipment to beauty products. The use of athletes and coaches to endorse products gained credibility after the success of Miller Lite's initial campaign using "masculine" male-athletes to promote lower calorie beer (Miller, 2002). Because celebrity endorsements have the ability to help build a brand's image (Cornwell, Roy, & Steinard, 2001; Javalgi et al., 1994; McDonald,

1991), athletes such as John Madden and Bubba Smith were used in Miller's campaigns to change the image of a non-masculine product (Miller).

As this practice perpetuates, and athletes and coaches continue to sign large endorsement contracts, understanding the effectiveness of these tactics becomes extremely important. With contracts for current athletes (e.g., Tiger Woods - \$80 million per year; Weil, 2005) and retired athletes (e.g., Michael Jordan - \$33 million per year; Weil) on the rise, the organizations that invest large amounts of money want to leave as little to chance as possible in terms of return on investment (ROI). While recent studies have been conducted regarding the use of athlete endorsers in terms of expertise and attractiveness (e.g., Boyd & Shank, 2004; Fink, Cunningham, & Kensicki, 2004), the majority of the previous research regarding endorsers does not focus on sport and athletes as endorsers. Therefore, it is necessary to develop a model that includes the unique attributes of sport. A model that examines these relationships may help marketers to make a more educated decision regarding the selection of an endorser.

The relationship between an endorser and a product has been termed congruency, fit, and match-up. No matter the terminology, a match between the characteristics of the two entities is often deemed to be highly relevant when attempting to emit an effectively endorsed message (e.g., Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990; Kanungo & Pang, 1973; Lynch & Schuler, 1994; Peterson & Kerin, 1977). Typically, fit has been examined in terms of the endorser's Attractiveness (e.g., physical appearance; McGuire, 1968; Ohanian, 1990), Expertise (e.g., specialized knowledge; McGuire, 1968; Ohanian), Trustworthiness (e.g., believability; McGuire, 1985; Ohanian) and Liking (e.g., personal feelings about that individual; McGuire, 1985).

Although the congruency between endorsers and consumers has often been defined as an integral part of the match-up process, it has been measured in a variety of ways. Employing endorser-consumer match-up to define congruency, researchers have often used an individual's liking of, or identification with, a particular endorser to measure this construct (e.g., Aronson & Worchel, 1966; Berscheid, 1966; Kelman, 1961). While these findings do not provide a measurement model to fit the current study, they validate the characteristics used in the endorser-product studies (e.g., Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990; McGuire, 1968; McGuire, 1985; Ohanian, 1990).

An individual's identification with an endorser and/or an endorser's sport can be traced back to identity theory (e.g., James, 1890; Mead, 1934; Stryker & Burke, 2000). Based on the belief that each individual has multiple role identities, seven points of attachment have been proposed as motives for spectator attendance at sporting events (Kwon, Trail, & Anderson 2005; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Robinson, Trail, & Kwon, 2004; Trail, Robinson, Dick, & Gillentine, 2003). While these factors have yet to be examined in terms of the effectiveness of athlete endorsers, two of the seven points of attachment, or role identities (attachment to the sport and attachment to the player/athlete) may help to define the effectiveness of the match and, ultimately, the consumer's intent to purchase the endorsed product.

Both scholars and practitioners claim that celebrities (including athletes and coaches) help in the branding of a product (Brooks & Harris, 1998; Chalip, 1996; Howard, 1979). A number of concepts and theories have been developed to examine the use of endorsers in advertising, and the characteristics that work to create the most effective message (e.g., Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990; McGuire, 1968,

1985; Ohanian, 1990). Once these characteristics have been established, the next step is to use a method that will synthesize the important characteristics from each element of the consumption process (i.e., endorser, product, and consumer) and determine how they work together to increase an individual's intent to purchase endorsed products. As marketing executives rely on endorsers as promotional tools, it is important that they fully understand and appropriately use the information that may lead to a consumer's potential attitude change (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). In order to have a greater understanding of the actual influence of athlete endorsers on purchase intentions, an individual's level of identification with the athlete and the sport (e.g., Kwon et al., 2005; Robinson & Trail, 2002, 2005; Robinson et al., 2004; Trail et al., 2003) as well as their perceived value of the product (e.g., Lee, Trail, Kwon, & Anderson, 2005; Sweeney & Stoutar, 2001) must be examined. Once these factors have been discussed, the models and hypotheses that support the use of endorsers as persuasive tools in advertising must be examined. In order to determine which relationships have the greatest influence on a consumer's ultimate purchase decision, both direct and indirect effects of these factors must be considered. Refer to Figure 1.

There are a number of limitations with the existing literature that have led to this proposed model. No model has been proposed to examine the precedents and antecedents to congruency. According to the findings of this literature review, congruency theories do not typically measure fit. Instead they tend to examine the level of identification that an individual has with another individual or product. Thus, a model that examines congruency, based on attitude and identification theories, was proposed and tested. This was accomplished by examining the influence of an individual's level of identification

with the athlete and the sport (e.g., Kwon et al., 2005; Robinson & Trail, 2002, 2005; Robinson et al., 2004; Trail et al., 2003) on an individual's perception of endorser-product congruency and purchase intentions. When using endorsers, this relationship may include the influence of the congruency between the endorser and product (e.g., Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990; Kanungo & Pang, 1973; Lynch & Schuler, 1994; Peterson & Kerin, 1977), leading to an individual's final perceived value of the product (e.g., Lee et al., 2005; Sweeney & Stoutar, 2001). Refer to Figure 1.

Attitude Theory

As previously mentioned, an individual's attitude toward an object is developed through a process composed of three phases (cognition, affect, and conation; e.g., Lavidge & Steiner, 1961; Palda, 1966; Ray, 1973). According to Fishbein (1963), attitude itself is an individual's affect for or against an object. An individual's reaction, positive or negative, is the result of that individual's belief about the object and the evaluative aspects of the belief. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) developed the Expectancy-Value Model of attitudes based on a cognitive approach to attitude formation. The model stems from the belief that an individual takes an information-processing approach to developing an attitude. The "thinking" is based on that individual's belief about the attributes of the object. The individual, already having positive or negative beliefs about different attributes, then creates an attitude toward the object (positive or negative). Therefore, it is not merely the object or the information that is provided at the decision-making stage that influences the overall attitude or attitude change leading to a purchase decision. An individual's belief about the attributes of the object predisposes all responses (cognitive, affective, and conative) toward the object (Krebs & Schmidt, 1993).

Zimbardo and Ebbesen (1970) expanded upon Fishbein's (1963) theory, stating that an individual's perception of an attribute is learned, not innate, and therefore capable of change. Although attitudes are not easily altered, practices that are known to influence beliefs about attributes may be applicable in eliciting an altered response. Researchers have suggested that advertising is a tool that can be used to implement attitude change (e.g., Lutz, 1975; MacKenzie & Lutz, 1989; MacKenzie, Lutz, & Belch, 1986). Lutz (1975) hypothesized that (a) altering an individual's belief about a brand attribute leads to a change in that individual's attitude towards using the brand in question and (b) altering an individual's evaluation of a brand attribute leads to a change in that individual's attitude toward using the brand in question. Examining these hypotheses with a previously nonexistent brand, the experimental manipulations worked towards attitude formation as well as attitude change. Although the experiment did not provide an indication of the response to a preexisting brand, the study's findings supported the hypotheses (based on multiple attribute theories) that a cognitive stimulant can work to alter an individual's initial attitude with a new brand. Lutz (1985) provided a model to observe the phenomenon, examining four sets of conditions: (a) pure affect transfer, (b) message-based persuasion, (c) contextual evaluation transfer, and (d) dual mode persuasion. His findings suggested that an individual's attitude toward the advertisement in general was an important predictor of the individual's attitude toward the brand. Lutz also concluded that long-term effectiveness was enhanced when pertinent information about the brand was presented in an entertaining or distinctive fashion (dual mode persuasion). MacKenzie et al. expanded upon Lutz's (1985) framework, using a low-importance product (toothpaste) in a single-ad pretest exposure setting to observe the

influence of an advertisement as a causal antecedent of brand attitude. The findings supported Lutz's (1975; 1985) earlier work, with attitude toward the advertisement strongly influencing attitude toward the brand and moderately influencing brand perceptions. MacKenzie and Lutz reevaluated Lutz's (1985) framework in an empirical examination of the role that advertisements play in attitude change. The study strongly supported Mackenzie et al.'s findings regarding the influence of the advertisement on the individual's attitude toward the brand. However, that study did not align with the previous findings regarding the advertisement's influence on an individual's perception of the brand.

For marketers, it is important to understand a consumer's attitude regarding the product that is being promoted. A consumer's perceived value of the product is extremely relevant in the formulation of a product's marketing mix. An individual's attitude toward an object is based on the individual's beliefs about the attributes of the object (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Therefore, in order to alter a consumer's affect regarding a product, an organization should understand dimensions that lead to an individual's initial perception of a product. Sheth, Newman, and Gross's (1991) examination of consumption values led to a set of five constructs that influence consumer choice. The factors included: Functional Value (i.e., ability for functional, utilitarian, or physical performance), Social Value (i.e., association with one more specific social groups), Emotional Value (i.e., ability to arouse feelings or affective states), Epistemic Value (i.e., ability to arouse curiosity, provide novelty, and/or satisfy a desire for knowledge), and Conditional Value (i.e., result of a specific situation or set of circumstances facing the decision-maker).

Perceived Value

When analyzing an individual's motivation to purchase a product, the value that the individual perceives to be attached to the product itself must be examined. Therefore, an integral step in the process is operationalizing perceived value as it relates to the potential purchase intentions of a consumer. According to Lee et al. (2005), the critical distinction between personal values (Richins, 1994) and perceived value (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001) is often not distinguished appropriately. Accordingly, personal values are the general beliefs that guide an individual's behavior (Richins), and perceived value is the worth of an object to an individual in a specific situation (i.e., domain specific; Sweeney & Soutar). The importance in the distinction between the two concepts is that an individual's personal values are often a precursor to the perceived value of the object (Lee et al.). This distinction is necessary, and was not made by Sweeney and Soutar in the development of the Perceived Value (PERVAL) scale. The scale, stemming from Sheth et al.'s (1991) values study, was created to measure the perceived worth of consumer products to the purchaser. Sweeney and Soutar argued that previous research failed to capture all of the elements that a consumer values, focusing solely on the trade-off between Quality and Price, or what is given and what is received (Cravens, Holland, Lamb & Moncrieff, 1988; Monroe, 1990; Zeithaml, 1988). While the majority of perceived value research has focused on Quality and Price, researchers believe that focusing on these two factors does not provide a complete picture of the decision-making process (e.g., Porter, 1990). Sweeney and Soutar agreed with these sentiments, believing that individuals consumed products based on the way the product makes them feel, and not simply the cost and quality of the product itself. As a result, they added Emotional

and Social constructs to the previously studied dimensions of Quality and Price. Lee et al. argued that, while Price and Quality did fit Sweeney and Soutar's definition of perceived values, the factors of Emotional and Social should have been categorized as personal values.

In a reassessment of Sweeney and Soutar's (2001) PERVAL scale, Lee et al. (2005) conducted a study to examine consumers' decision-making processes regarding the purchasing of licensed sport merchandise. They found that the model did not fit the data well. The Price and Quality subscales did not show good construct reliability or internal consistency. However, the Emotion and Social subscales did. While the model did not fit the data well, there were a number of items within each factor that had high factor loadings. The model in Lee et al.'s study did not support the original constructs. As a result, the authors proposed revised dimensions, suggesting that the revised factors should be reevaluated in terms of face and content validity before being used in future studies.

Advertisers have also realized that using endorsers who have similar characteristics as the promoted product (endorser-product congruency) might increase the likelihood of the purchase (e.g., Ohanian, 1991; Tripp, Jensen, & Carlson, 1994; Wansink & Ray, 2000). Therefore, the theories and models used to examine endorser effectiveness provide a framework to determine which characteristics that are deemed most relevant in the relationship (e.g., Kahle & Homer, 1985; Langmeyer & Walker, 1991a; 1991b; McCracken, 1989; McGuire, 1968; 1985).

Endorser Effectiveness

McGuire's Source Credibility Model (1968) was the first approach used in the attempt to understand the characteristics that create an effective advertising/marketing campaign. Source credibility is a term commonly used to imply a communicator's positive characteristics that affect the receiver's acceptance of a message. The Model depicted the influence of perceived level of Expertise and perceived level of Trustworthiness on the effectiveness of the message. McGuire operationalized the first factor, Expertise, as the perceived level of knowledge, experience, or skills of an endorser and the second factor, Trustworthiness, as the intended audience's belief in the honesty, integrity, and believability of the endorser. He suggested that these factors be used in a five-step process to change the attitude of a consumer: attention, comprehension, yielding, retention, and action.

Building on the concepts from the Source Credibility Model (McGuire, 1968), McGuire (1985) developed the Source Attractiveness Model. The model depicted that an individual's acceptance of a message relies on the Similarity (resemblance between source and receiver), Familiarity (knowledge of the source through previous exposure), and Liking (affection of the source as a result of the physical appearance or behavior) of an endorser. McGuire (1985) theorized that the attractiveness of the source determined the overall acceptance of the message being conveyed.

Ohanian (1990) combined the Source Credibility Model (McGuire, 1968) and the Source Attractiveness Model (McGuire, 1985) to create a single scale to measure celebrity endorsers' perceived Expertise, Trustworthiness and Attractiveness. Ohanian defined Expertise as the characteristics that define an individual who is trained, informed,

educated, an authority, and competent. She suggested that Trustworthiness was the potential consumer's degree of confidence in, and level of acceptance of, the speaker and the message (i.e., a consumer's trust in a speaker). Ohanian added the Attractiveness dimension based on research that suggested that physical attractiveness is an important cue in an individual's initial judgment of another person. The findings supported the creation of a 15-item differential scale to measure the above traits (attractiveness, AVE = .63 - .65; trustworthiness, AVE = .63 - .63; expertise, AVE = .61-.62). With the development of a three-dimensional scale and further validation of the factors and items, researchers now had a more valid and reliable approach to use in assessing each component of celebrity endorsers' effectiveness and persuasiveness.

Kahle and Homer (1985) altered the original concepts to examine the use of endorsers to develop the Product Match-Up Hypothesis. The hypothesis highlighted the importance of the match between celebrity endorsers and products. Kahle and Homer examined the influence of Physical Attractiveness on the attitudes and purchase intentions of consumers by manipulating three independent variables: celebrity-source physical attractiveness, celebrity-source likeability and participant-product attractiveness. Results showed that physical attractiveness was more influential than likeability on a consumer's attitude toward the brand and purchase intentions.

McCracken (1989) suggested that the effectiveness of a celebrity endorser was derived from the cultural meanings associated with the individual rather than simply the endorser's physical attractiveness and credibility. Therefore, he designed the Meaning Transfer Model to further explain the endorsement process. He suggested that celebrity endorsement involves a general process of meaning transfer through three stages in which

a celebrity passes on a message regarding a product. In the first stage, the consumer forms an image of the celebrity. Second, to transfer the meaning or image of the celebrity to the product, the organization selects a celebrity that represents the intended image of the product. Finally, the meaning is then transferred from the product to the consumer (Langmeyer & Walker, 1991a; 1991b).

Although the Source Credibility Model (McGuire, 1968), Source Attractiveness Model (McGuire, 1968), Product Match-Up Hypothesis (Kahle & Homer, 1985), and Meaning Transfer Model (Langmeyer & Walker, 1991a; 1991b; McCracken, 1989) are all extremely relevant, the models are typically used to examine the perceptions of the producers rather than the consumers. Therefore, executives need additional knowledge of the factors that influence consumers in order to create a more successful marketing campaign.

As the above models and hypotheses state, the selection of a celebrity endorser is often based on the profile of the endorser. The advertising and marketing literature often define the selection of endorsers based on the consumer's perception of an endorser's Attractiveness (e.g., physical appearance; McGuire, 1968; Ohanian, 1990), Expertise (e.g., specialized knowledge; McGuire, 1968; Ohanian), Trustworthiness (e.g., believability; McGuire, 1985; Ohanian) and Liking (e.g., personal feelings about that individual; McGuire, 1985). As the public perceives athletes as celebrities, these characteristics translate to athlete endorsers as well. The need for an examination of these characteristics in the context of sport is necessary because athletes and coaches are currently endorsing both sport and non-sport products. Therefore, it is necessary, as numerous researchers have stated, to examine the importance of match-up between

product and endorser (e.g., Baker & Churchill, 1977; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1990; Lynch & Schuler, 1994; Till, 2000; Till & Shimp, 1998) and consumer and endorser (e.g., Aronson & Worchel, 1966; Berscheid, 1966; Boyd & Shank, 2004; Heider, 1958; Kelman, 1961; Mowen, Brown, & Schulman, 1979). Based on the above information, the Match-Up Hypothesis was chosen because it represents the most comprehensive approach to examining the effectiveness of the endorsement.

Match-Up Hypothesis

Numerous studies have examined the influence of an apparent match-up between endorser and product to determine if there is an influence on the consumer's purchase intentions (e.g., Ohanian, 1991; Tripp et al., 1994; Wansink & Ray, 2000). Kanungo and Pang (1973) used traditionally gender-specific advertising (men with stereos and women with sofas) to propose that "fittingness," or perceived congruence between characteristics, existed between the endorser in an advertisement and the type of product being advertised. Peterson and Kerin (1977) also suggested the need for product/endorser congruency within an advertisement, if the purpose of the advertisement was to enhance communication.

Many researchers have determined that the greater the congruence between the image of the endorser and the image of the product being promoted, the more effective the message (e.g., Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990; Kanungo & Pang, 1973; Lynch & Schuler, 1994; Peterson & Kerin, 1977). However, one area that has been disputed is how to measure effectiveness. Researchers have not agreed on a single approach, and a number of methods have been used, including purchase intentions (e.g., Ohanian, 1991; Tripp et al., 1994; Wansink & Ray, 2000), attitude toward the

advertisement or brand (e.g., Goldsmith, Lafferty, & Newell, 2000; Till & Busler, 2000; Tripp et al.), and increase in stock margins as the result of a contract announcement (Agrawal & Kamakura, 1995). While match-up has been emphasized, the approach has not been extensively examined in the realm of sport or with athlete endorsers. Therefore, there is a need to examine (a) the characteristics of those involved in the match and (b) the match itself, including the unique attributes of sport.

Match-Up: Characteristics

As the match-up hypothesis states, it is the fit between the characteristics of the product and the endorser that is most relevant in creating an effective campaign.

Although numerous characteristics have been defined for celebrity endorsers in general, for athlete endorsers, researchers tend to focus on Attractiveness and Expertise (e.g., Boyd & Shank, 2004; Fink et al., 2004). If athletes continue to be used as endorsers, sport studies need to expand beyond the realm of Attractiveness and Expertise in order to determine if other characteristics are relevant.

Product characteristics

As a result of advertising campaigns, brands are often portrayed as having human characteristics. Although this concept had been described, it had not been systematically studied until Aaker's (1997) creation of the Brand Personality Scale (BPS). After examining 309 candidate traits based on previous literature (psychology, marketing, and original qualitative research), the author ultimately looked at 114 traits over 37 brands. The final BPS included 42 items/traits under 5 factors: Sincerity (e.g., honest, genuine), Excitement (e.g., daring, spirited), Competence (e.g., reliable, responsible), Sophistication (e.g., glamorous, charming), and Ruggedness (e.g., tough, strong). Aaker

believed, as a result of the rigor of the study, that the scale and framework were generalizable across product categories. Govers and Schoormans (2005) confirmed Aaker's findings by conducting a longitudinal study examining the influence of product personality on a consumer's preference over time, finding that product-personality congruency ($\beta = .48$) had the greatest impact on consumer preference.

Although Aaker (1997) claimed that the findings were generalizable as a result of the breadth of the study, Austin, Siguaw, and Mattila (2003) argued that the BPS was not generalizable to individual brands, as a result of the method of the study. Agreeing that a measurement study was necessary to fully understand the yet unmeasured concept of brand personality, Austin et al. (2003) reexamined Aaker's BPS to determine the validity of those findings. The authors found that, while the constructs were internally reliable (Cronbach's alpha), they did not have construct validity (Average Variance Extracted $\geq .50$ or discriminant validity). Thus, the findings did not support Aaker's factor constructs. Azoulay and Kapferer (2003) also agreed that the purpose behind Aaker's study was relevant; however, it was conducted in an inappropriate manner. The authors believe that the study did not properly operationalize its concepts, measuring a number of different brand identity constructs and claiming that they are all brand personality measures. While the study was a review of current practices, and not an empirical investigation, Azoulay and Kapferer agreed with Austin et al. that the concept should be studied, but perhaps that the constructs should undergo a reexamination of both content and construct validity.

Endorser characteristics

While the characteristics of the product, human or not, are integral to the marketing mix, the endorser's traits are equally as relevant when deciding to use a celebrity

endorser as a promotional technique. Kamins (1990) conducted a study to further examine the Attractiveness aspect of the importance of congruency in an advertising campaign. Subjects were shown advertisements containing physically attractive (Tom Selleck) and physically unattractive (Telly Savalas) endorsers. Results indicated that when the physically attractive celebrity was shown with an attractiveness-related product, it enhanced measures of spokesperson credibility and attitude toward a brand, relative to the use of the physically unattractive celebrity. However, the use of the physically attractive celebrity had no effect on attractiveness-unrelated products. According to the Kamins, the advertisement was deemed a success if there was an appropriate match-up.

Miciak and Shanklin (1994) explored the ways in which veteran celebrity evaluators select effective endorsers based on certain criteria. Gathered from the 43 advertising agencies and companies that were surveyed, the most important criteria were that the endorsers were trustworthy, readily recognizable by the target audience, affordable, at little risk for negative publicity, and appropriately matched with the intended audience. Five universal categories were also evaluated and ranked by significance. These categories included Celebrity Credibility, Celebrity-Audience Match, Celebrity-Product Match, Celebrity Attractiveness and Other Considerations.

Expanding upon the endorser characteristic research, Erdogan, Baker, and Tagg (2001) investigated the importance of certain celebrity characteristics based on the product type, from the point of view of the practitioner who is selecting the celebrity. Erdogan et al.'s study examined British advertising agencies by first using exploratory interviews and then progressing to mail surveys. The findings confirmed the hypothesis that the importance of the measure used to choose an endorser for a product depended on

the type of product. Practitioners considered a set of criteria when choosing a celebrity and that the importance of said criteria depended on the type of product being endorsed. The researchers found that the most important characteristics included Trustworthiness, Expertise, Familiarity, Likeability, and Physical Attractiveness, aligning with Miciak and Shanklin's findings as well as those of other previous researchers (e.g., Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990; McGuire, 1968, 1985; Ohanian, 1990).

Javalgi et al. (1994) also examined the relationship between sponsorship and corporate image. Their findings showed that sponsorship can improve the image of a corporation, but it is not an automatic response. It can have either a positive or negative impact, depending on the company's image prior to the sponsorship. If an organization began with a positive image, the positive aura can increase. However, if a company's image was negative prior to a sponsorship, its image may not benefit from the affiliation. Therefore, as previously mentioned, the image of the product as well as the endorser plays an integral role in determining the effectiveness of the match and, in turn, the campaign.

Effective endorser characteristics have been confirmed from a practical perspective as well. *Advertising Age* (Tenser, 2004) examined the importance of specific endorser characteristics from both the consumer and practitioner's perspective. They found a number of characteristics that consumers deemed important in an endorser. Participants did not believe that an endorser had to mirror the age, gender, or background characteristics of a consumer. However, the constructs that were characterized as pertinent in the selection of athlete endorsers relied heavily on the sport played and the character of the individual. Some of the characteristics revealed as extremely important

included: “is same gender as me,” “is good looking/stylish,” “is hottest new star in his/her sport,” “has been playing or played the sport for a long time,” “plays/played for one of my favorite teams,” “plays/played sport I follow,” and “is someone I would like to be like.” While a number of the characteristics do overlap from those selected by consumers, there are a few that are unique. These traits include: the right sport (sport your target market likes), a winner (success on the field and post-sports career), clean living (not too clean if product needs an “edge”), articulateness (endorser can speak in sentences and is coachable), likes your brand (must be believable), personality (winning attitude, outgoing, humility – likeable), good looks (attractive), marketing savvy (understands marketing goals), right portfolio (does not sign with competing brands), and right price (based on budget). While practitioners may not have placed these characteristics in categories, or factors, there is a distinct overlap between these findings and scholarly research in the same domain.

Tripp et al. (1994) also conducted a study examining the effect that the number of products endorsed by a celebrity had on consumer’s attitudes and purchase intentions. Through two experiments it was determined that as the number of products a celebrity endorses increases, celebrity likeability and advertisement likeability both decrease. Tripp et al.’s findings were in accordance with Hovland, Janis, and Kelley’s (1953) study regarding source credibility. The authors found both Expertise (the extent to which a communicator is perceived to be a source of valid assertions) and Trustworthiness (the degree of confidence in the communicator’s intent to communicate the assertions he or she considers most valid) to be highly beneficial when choosing an endorser to influence a consumer’s attitude change.

Although previous studies had been conducted regarding athlete endorsers, they typically focused on the attractiveness and expertise of the endorser (e.g., Boyd & Shank, 2004; Fink et al., 2004) or the heroism aspect of an athlete (e.g., Chalip, 1996; Stevens, Lathrop, & Bradish, 2003), limiting the potential breadth of the findings. In order to adapt the factors used in previous studies for use in sport studies, Braunstein and Zhang (2005a) created the Scale of Athletic Star Power (SASP). Braunstein and Zhang believed that it was crucial to understand the influence of additional characteristics that have been used in the evaluation of endorsers in other disciplines. The purpose of the study was to determine the characteristics that athlete endorsers encompass. The development of the SASP was guided by celebrity endorser research findings that focused on Trustworthiness, Likeability, Expertise, and Attractiveness. The first factor, Professional Trustworthiness was defined as the genuineness and integrity of the endorser (Erdogan, 1999; Erdogan et al., 2001; Langmeyer & Walker, 1991a; 1991b; McCracken, 1989; McGuire, 1985; Shimp, 1979; Smith, 1973; Stevens et al., 2003). It has been noted that if an endorser is deemed untrustworthy, regardless of his or her characteristics, consumers view the endorser's message as questionable (Smith, 1973). Second, Likeable Personality, or the fondness for an endorser as a result of his or her behavior, pertains to a consumer's perception of the endorser as a genuine individual (Erdogan; Erdogan et al.; McGuire, 1985; Stevens et al.). The third factor, Athletic Expertise, the perception that the endorser is a credible source, refers to the perception that the individual chosen to endorse a product has a base of knowledge, experience, and ability in his or her chosen field (Boyd & Shank; Brooks & Harris, 1998; Chalip; Erdogan; Fink et al.; Goldsmith et al., 2000; Hovland et al., 1953; Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Langmeyer & Walker, 1991a;

1991b; McCracken; McGuire, 1968; Miciak & Shanklin, 1994; Stevens et al.). The next factor, Social Attractiveness, or the perceived image of an individual, does not necessarily pertain to the physical attractiveness of an endorser. Instead, it is comprised of personality, exposure, and an individual's public image (Baker & Churchill, 1977; Boyd & Shank; Brooks & Harris; Chalip; Erdogan et al.; Fink et al.; McCracken; McGuire, 1968, 1985; Ohanian, 1991). An additional factor, characteristic style, is the distinctive characteristics of an individual. Although Social Attractiveness had not been introduced in previous celebrity endorser research, it was included to further define the unique characteristics of athlete endorsers (Erdogan; Erdogan et al.; Stevens et al.). The SASP expanded the literature to include characteristics that may be unique to athlete endorsers. The findings of the exploratory study resulted in a scale that included 5 factors (Professional Trustworthiness, Likeable Personality, Athletic Expertise, Social Attractiveness, and Characteristic Style) with a total of 40 items. The study showed that all five factors influenced direct consumption of endorsed products, and when gender differences were taken into consideration, the influence of athlete endorsers was greater with female participants in terms of attractiveness and expertise.

In order to further validate the SASP, Braunstein and Zhang (2005b) reexamined the scale in order to examine the characteristics of athlete endorsers that consumers deemed important rather than the characteristics that consumers believe that athlete endorsers possessed. The factor structure differed from the original SASP, combining Social Attractiveness and Characteristic Style, renamed as Perceived Image, to create the Scale of Athletic Star Power – Consumer Perspective (SASP – CP). When reassessing the initial factors, and the content of the final factors, it was apparent that Perceived Image

examined the characteristics that pertained to both the athlete endorser's attractive and unique characteristics. Although an endorser's perceived image had been examined in other areas of academic literature, the sport literature primarily focused on expertise and attractiveness of athlete endorsers. When this was studied, attractiveness was typically characterized as physical attributes (Boyd & Shank, 2004; Fink et al., 2004), not necessarily public image (Baker & Churchill, 1977; Brooks & Harris, 1998; Chalip, 1996; Erdogan et al., 2001; McCracken, 1989; McGuire, 1968, 1985; Ohanian, 1991). The addition of a factor that examined the overall image of an athlete endorser could be beneficial to the sport literature in terms of its potential practical implications. Consequently, Braunstein and Zhang (2005b) retained a total of 34 items representing four factors (Professional Trustworthiness, Likeable Personality, Athletic Expertise, and Perceived Image). While previous studies examined the fit of endorser characteristics based on the practitioner's perspective (e.g., Erdogan et al.), Braunstein and Zhang's (2005b) study confirmed that consumers also believe that these traits are relevant for athlete endorsers.

Endorser-Product Congruency/Match-Up

The congruency between the product and the endorser is an integral aspect of the match-up relationship. Baker and Churchill (1977) were at the forefront of the match-up phenomenon. They stated that the interaction between product and spokesperson characteristics was most important in creating the most influential relationship. Friedman and Friedman (1979) investigated the effects of matching endorser type and product type by examining the characteristics of endorsers of products based on the level of risk associated with the product being endorsed. Three types of endorsers (celebrity, expert,

and consumer) as well as three products defined by risk (low financial, performance, and physical risk; high in financial, performance, and physical risk / low in psychological and social risk; no risk) were included in the study. While examining trustworthiness, awareness, attractiveness, and likeability, the researchers found that an effective match was not limited to the physical characteristics of a spokesperson.

Till and Busler (1990) conducted two studies to examine the importance of two match-up factors: Attractiveness and Expertise. The first study examined the influence of attractiveness on brand attitude, purchase intention, and key brand beliefs. In the second study, the authors examined the influence of expertise on the same dimensions by manipulating the product and the type of endorser. The study found that expertise was more important than attractiveness, as perceived expertise was found to have an interaction with the endorser (e.g., athletes and energy bars versus actors and energy bars or candy bars). Overall, results showed that expertise was a more important factor than physical attractiveness when it came to brand attitude, purchase intent, and endorser-fit with the product.

Lynch and Schuler (1994) used the schema theory to interpret the results of previous inquiries into the match-up hypothesis and designed two experiments to provide additional insight into how schema might be changed by a spokesperson/product match. The first experiment addressed the effect of match-up between a spokesperson characteristic and a product attribute on spokesperson credibility. The second considered the effect of a match-up between a spokesperson characteristic and a product attribute on the schema of the product. Both studies supported the match-up hypothesis between a

spokesperson's characteristics and a product's attributes in that they could both initiate a change in the spokesperson and product schemas.

It is often assumed that an endorser's image often influences the image of the product he or she is helping to promote. Till and Shimp (1998) used an associative network model of memory to examine the influence of negative information about a celebrity on the product that they endorsed. Three studies were conducted to examine the relationship. In the first two studies, fictitious, but realistic, celebrity endorsers were used. In the third study, an actual celebrity was used. Findings showed that negative information about a celebrity resulted in a decline in attitude towards the endorsed brand only for the fictitious celebrity. Overall, Till and Shimp's results differed from Kamins' (1990) study in that there was no match-up interaction between endorser attractiveness and products that enhance attractiveness. As a follow-up to Till and Shimp's study, Till (2000) examined the effect of the product that an individual is endorsing on the overall image of the endorser him or herself. Till found that both athlete and non-athlete endorsers' images were negatively affected when they represented unsuitable products. Furthermore, when an athlete endorsed a product that was viewed as unhealthy, the result was an even stronger negative image.

In sport, the event is often the product that the individual is endorsing. Fink et al. (2004) used two fictitious athletes to examine the use of endorsers in promoting attendance at a sporting event on a university campus. The model used in the study included the constructs of Attractiveness and Expertise, converging into a second-order latent variable of overall fit. The relationship of fit with attitudes and intentions to purchase a ticket to the event was then explored. The researchers found that expertise was

more important for athlete endorsers in predicting an individual's intention to attend a sporting event. Their findings supported the concept that fit is key, stating that "attractiveness has little to do with the event itself...level of expertise has a significant impact on an event" (p. 363). Jones and Schumann (2000) used these theories to examine trends, congruence, and type of promotional strategies used in advertising campaigns involving athlete endorsers. The authors used a sport-oriented medium over the course of its entire publication (1955-1998). The overall findings showed that although the popularity of athlete endorsers was continually growing (more in sports-related medium), congruency was only found in approximately half of the advertisements, and most advertisements were "thinking" type ads.

In sum, attitude theory and its extension to the congruency hypothesis has provided the framework for the proposed model. According to Lutz (1985), attitude toward the brand is mediated by attitude toward the advertisement, or in the present case, the perceived congruency between the endorser and the product. Additional support for the influence of endorser/product congruency on attitude toward the product comes from Baker and Churchill (1977), Caballero, Lumpkin, and Madden (1989), and Caballero and Solomon (1984). Furthermore, research has also shown that aspects that make up endorser/product congruency consistently have been linked to positive attitude changes as well as increased purchase intentions (e.g., Braunstein & Zhang, 2005a; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Ohanian, 1991; Simon, Berkowitz, & Moyer, 1970).

As noted above, an individual typically develops an attitude toward the product. This may translate into an individual's initial intention to purchase or not purchase the product. However, advertisers have realized that an advertising campaign may modify an

individual's initial attitude toward the product, thus potentially increasing the likelihood of purchase (e.g., Heath, McCarthy, & Mothersbaugh, 1994; Kamins, 1990; Ohanian, 1991). Moreover, when including an athlete endorser in an advertising campaign, a consumer's identification with the sport and the athlete become an additional consideration (Kwon et al., 2005; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Robinson et al., 2004). In order to further understand the influence that these factors have on an individual's decision-making process, identity theory must be examined (e.g., James, 1890; Mead, 1934; Stryker & Burke, 2000).

Identity Theory

According to James (1890), individuals have different identities for each of their networks of relationships. In each relationship, an individual plays a different role based on the mutually reinforcing and conflicting aspects of oneself (Mead, 1934). Both identity theory and social identity theory have been used to examine this phenomenon. Identity theory, as a model, is made up of "four central components: (a) the identity standard, or set of (culturally prescribed) meanings held by the individual which defined his or her role identity in a situation, (b) the person's perceptions of meanings within the situation match to the dimensions of meaning in the identity standard, (c) the comparator or the mechanism that compares the perceived situational meanings with those held in the identity standard, and (d) the individual's behavior or identity which is a function of the difference between perceptions and standards" (Stryker & Burke, 2000, p. 287). In contrast, social identity theory states that the social categories to which individuals are members of are all part of a structured society, existing only in relation to other contrasting categories (e.g., student versus faculty, Black/African-American versus

Caucasian, male versus female). An individual is born into a society that has already been structured. Therefore, social categories have been determined before the individual identifies this role as part of his or her life. Each individual, belonging to a unique set of social categories, has his or her own set of social identities that work to create an individual's unique self concept (Stets & Burke, 2000). Both traditions (identity theory and social identity theory) recognize that individuals view themselves in terms of meanings imparted by a structured society. However, while both theories involve the roles that an individual plays in society, identity theory is an individual's own perception of the role that he or she plays in a specific situation while social identity theory is based on an individual's role as determined by others.

Stryker (1980) built on the original concept of identity theory, using it to explain the influence that social structures have on an individual and how, in turn, social structures influence that individual's social behavior. While Stryker examined the external motivators of identity theory, Burke (1991) explored the internal motivators of identity theory. These two strands of identity theory research were brought together in order to create a greater understanding of how both internal and external motivators influence an individual's belief of the roles that self and social structure play in creating an individual's identity (Stryker & Burke, 2000). In an examination of the past, present, and future of identity theory, Stryker and Burke conceptualized identity theory to encompass each of these critical components, claiming that an individual's cognitive comparisons, which ultimately lead to the individual's final behavior, are influenced by that person's identity standard and perceived situational meanings.

Identity Theory and Sport Consumption

Trail, Anderson, and Fink (2005) used identity theory to explain that an individual's identification with a sports team may lead to a change in behavior. They used the Team Identification Index (TII; Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2002; Trail & James, 2001) to measure an individual's identification with the team. Trail, Anderson and Fink (2000) defined identification as "an orientation of the self in regard to other objects including a person or group that results in feelings or sentiments of close attachment" (p. 165-166). This concept, and specifically this index, has been used extensively. Several studies (e.g. Fink et al., 2002; Robinson et al., 2004; Trail, Fink & Anderson, 2003; Trail et al., 2003) found that team identification was significantly related to motives for following teams (e.g., Drama, Aesthetics, and Social Interaction) and Trail et al. (2003) showed that team identification was related to expectancies about game outcome. Trail et al. (2005) determined that it was related to basking in reflected glory (BIRGing) and cutting off reflected failure (CORFing) behavior and also conative loyalty. However, the above authors have not been alone in showing that team identification has an influence on cognitive, affective, conative, and behavioral responses.

While others who have examined this phenomenon (e.g., Mahony, Madrigal, & Howard, 2000; Milne, & McDonald, 1999; Wann, 2002) have not specifically used identity theory, they have used measures that were representative of identity theory. For example, Wann, in a preliminary attempt to validate a measure for assessing an individual's identification as a sport fan, examined a fan's identification with his or her role as a sport fan. This involved an individual's awareness and perception of themselves as a sport fan. The creation of that instrument provided sport marketers with the ability to

assess the level of their fan's identification and, in turn, become more aware of their consumer's wants and needs.

Funk, Mahony, and Ridinger (2002) found that factors that pertain specifically to the sport were the most influential regarding spectator support level. In a separate application of the Sport Interest Inventory (SII), Funk, Ridinger, and Moorman (2003) examined 18 factors regarding the aspects that lead to consumer support of the team. In their study, 10 of the 18 factors explained 48% of the variance in consumer support for the team, with Interest in the Team (team identification, $\beta = .31$) as the most influential factor. In some of the earlier work that included variables that were similar to team identification, findings showed that highly identified individuals differed from lowly identified individuals on several behavior and affective factors (e.g., Branscombe & Wann, 1991; Lever, 1983; Madrigal, 1995; Wann & Branscombe, 1993).

Identity Theory and Points of Attachment

Although most of the previous research has focused on an individual's identification with the team (Fink et al., 2002; Funk et al., 2002; Funk et al., 2003; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Trail et al., 2005), a number of other studies have looked at other points of attachment, such as identification with the athlete/player or identification with the sport. Trail et al. (2003) suggested that an individual's level of identification in sport may not lie solely with a team, and that there are seven potential points of attachment (Player, Team, Coach, University, Community, Sport, and Level), creating the Points of Attachment Index (PAI) from the original research with the TII (Fink et al., 2002). This builds on James (1890) and Mead's (1934) assumptions that individuals have multiple role identities. The PAI has been retested numerous times (Kwon et al., 2005;

Robinson & Trail; Robinson et al., 2004) with the model showing at least adequate fit each time. While the PAI has typically been tested on sport consumption, two of the subscales may prove beneficial in the assessment of the effectiveness of athlete endorsers: identification with the athlete/player and identification with the sport that the athlete plays.

While the current study analyzed the relationship between the endorser and the consumer in terms of identification and identity theory (e.g., James, 1890; Mead, 1934; Stryker & Burke, 2000), others have examined this relationship in terms of congruency, match-up, or hero-worship. As athlete endorsers have become commonplace in advertising, understanding the athlete's characteristics that consumers deem important becomes extremely relevant. In order to understand the characteristics of athlete endorsers that consumers identify with, the unique attributes of sport and athletes must be taken into consideration.

Hero Worship

There has always been the phenomenon of the sport hero. As sport moves into a new era, individual athletes are garnering the attention that teams once boasted. Wann, Melnick, Russell, and Pease (2001) discussed the pastime of placing athletes on pedestals in the public spotlight. Through the creation of entities like Halls of Fame, where hero worship reigns supreme, sport heroes can live on through the years. Generations can pass down the knowledge of their favorite athletes, linking them with the next, and keeping the hero worship mentality alive. As identification with these heroes allows the athlete or coach to have an elevated level of power, it is in the best interest of the public to understand the means by which they attain their status.

It may be more difficult to worship an athlete today than in the past. As demand for athlete salaries increase to outlandish levels, labor disputes are constantly pending, franchises threaten to relocate, and many individual athletes extracurricular activities do not fit those that put them in contention for hero worship (Stevens et al., 2003). If an organization is attempting to utilize an athlete to endorse its new product, the executives should realize that fan identification still runs strong (Milne & McDonald, 1999). Through all of the ups-and-downs in sport, fans still identify with athletes and teams. Therefore, as endorsement deals grow and brands vie for the affection of elite athletes, it may be assumed that fans are identifying more with their heroes.

Endorser-Consumer Congruency/Match-Up

While, according to the Match-up Hypothesis (Kahle & Homer, 1985), it is extremely important to recognize the congruency between the product and the endorser, it is also integral to the match to understand the match-up between the consumer and the endorser. If a particular endorser does not influence an organization's target market, the money spent on the endorsement may not be worth the investment. Therefore, it is crucial to the match to be aware of the characteristics that a specific market deems important in an endorser in order to maximize the match's effect. While this area of match-up has not been as widely studied as the product-endorser match-up, a number of studies have been conducted to examine this relationship. For example, Mowen et al. (1979) used Heider's (1958) balance theory to describe the relationships that exist among target audience and endorser, product and endorser, and consumer and product. The authors found that when a strong affective relationship exists between each of the pairs, an endorser will be maximally effective. Mowen et al. concluded that the match itself is what led to a

maximum effect. Boyd and Shank (2004) took this concept one step further by exploring gender differences. The authors examined gender and expertise match-up as the most effective use of athlete endorsers. When observing influence on male and female participants, the results showed that women were more sensitive to the match between endorser and product. In general, the findings state that a greater level of trust exists between men and male endorsers and women and female endorsers. Additionally, the authors found that the most effective campaign targeted male viewers, included a male athlete, and involved a sport-related product. A study conducted by Peetz, Parks, and Spencer (2004) also examined the role of gender in the meaning-transfer process. The findings of the study coincided with Boyd and Shank's findings, stating that male endorsers led to a greater increase of purchase intentions. More specifically, a greater increase of purchase intentions was seen for male participants in response to male endorsers. These findings support a number of similar studies that found that both similarity and likeability have been used as determinants of identification and interpersonal attraction between the source and the message recipient (Aronson & Worchel, 1966; Berscheid, 1966; Kelman, 1961). As match-up between the consumer and endorser can be roughly defined through identification and attraction (Kahle & Homer; Kamins, 1989, 1990; McGuire, 1968; McGuire, 1985; Ohanian, 1990), these findings are extremely relevant in the match-up process.

In order for level of celebrity and fan recognition to be effective in marketing, an individual's perception of an athlete must be elevated above their view of others. This means that a consumer must believe that an individual has a particular talent or trait that makes them unique (Braunstein & Zhang, 2005a). They must then wish to identify with

that athlete. As a result of identification, a marketer believes that if the “identified” athlete endorses a certain product, the consumer will react to this association, and purchase that product over one that is not endorsed by an individual he or she feels connected to.

People can typically relate well to others that they believe to have the same values and interests as themselves (i.e., other individuals in their social structure). For example, as Generation Y (Gen Y; age 10-27) begins to form their views on the world, they will identify with those that they relate to, which will be an important concept for marketers (Rein, Kotler, & Stoller, 1997; Stevens et al., 2003; Stotlar, Veltri, & Viswanthan, 1998). This is one of the reasons that action sports have become mainstream for Gen-Y consumers. This generation is looking for extreme ways to live, in part because individuality is one of their defining qualities (Bennett, Henson, & Zhang, 2003). For these reasons, marketers are feeding on the individual athlete that will have the ability to relate to Generation Y (Marlatt, 1999). This generation is not looking to football or baseball the way that previous generations have. As the sport marketer begins to understand this, star power moves from the team as one entity to the individual athlete, whether extreme or mainstream.

Application of the TII established that an individual’s identification with the team might influence consumption behavior (Trail et al., 2005). Trail et al. (2003) also found that an individual’s level of identification may expand beyond identification with just the team, including the player/athlete and sport as well. This level of identification may influence the consumer’s belief regarding his or her role identity regarding both the athlete and the sport. Therefore, an individual’s role in a social structure (e.g., Generation

Y) may influence an individual's belief regarding the congruency between an endorser and a product (e.g., Shaun White and Mountain Dew). If congruency is found, this may influence the individual's consumption behavior regarding the endorsed product (e.g., Heider, 1958; Mowen et al., 1979; Peetz et al., 2004).

No research has examined the relationship from identification with a specific athlete or sport to perceived congruency between an endorser (the athlete) and the product. Therefore, when examining the affect of endorsers on a consumer's purchase intentions, it is important to also examine that individual's level of identification with certain factors, as they may influence behavior (e.g., Burke, 1991; Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Burke, 2000). In the case of an athlete endorsing a product, it is vital that the level of identification with both the sport and the endorser are taken into account in the overall effect.

Summary

Previous researchers have examined the importance of fit when including a celebrity in an advertising campaign (e.g., Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990; Kanungo & Pang, 1973; Lynch & Schuler, 1994; Peterson & Kerin, 1977). According to the Product Match-Up Hypothesis (Kahle & Homer), it is the fit between the characteristics of the endorser and the product that is the most relevant in creating an effective advertising campaign. Therefore, it is important to understand the characteristics of the endorser and product that must first be measured to examine the fit in order to create the most effective campaign. Although numerous characteristics have been defined for celebrity endorsers in general, researchers tend to focus on the attractiveness and expertise of athlete endorsers (e.g., Boyd & Shank, 2004; Fink et al., 2004). Sport studies

need to expand beyond these two factors in order to determine if other characteristics are relevant for athlete endorsers. In order to achieve a greater understanding of the actual influence of the match, other factors that influence the relationship must be taken into consideration. While match-up studies have primarily focused on the influence of the match itself, they often lack the influence of other factors. Both identification (sport and athlete; e.g., Kwon et al., 2005; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Robinson et al., 2004; Trail et al., 2003) and perceived value (e.g., Cravens et al., 1988; Monroe, 1990; Porter, 1990; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Zeithaml, 1988) influence an individual's purchase intentions. Additionally, the overall influence of these factors may affect a consumer's perception of the endorser-product match-up (e.g., Baker & Churchill, 1977; Friedman & Friedman, 1979, Till & Busler, 1990; Till & Shimp, 1998). Therefore, in order to fully understand the influence of an athlete endorser, each of these factors (i.e., identification with the endorser or the sport, perception of endorser-product congruency, and perceived value of the product) must be examined to understand the role that they play in a consumer's decision-making process. See Figure 1.

CHAPTER 3 METHOD

Participants

Based on the number of effective parameters in the model ($N = 145$), a total of 850 participants were recruited for this study (minimum $N = 132$ to achieve power of .80 with $df = 1130$; MacCallum, Browne, & Sugawara, 1996). The participants ($N = 400$) were a convenience sample of undergraduate and graduate students at a large southeastern university. The majority of the participants were male (61%), 20-23 years old (75%), White/Non-Hispanic (64%), and upper-level university students (junior/senior – 70%).

Marketers use athlete endorsers in campaigns in order to target those that are most highly influenced by this practice (the youngest generation with purchasing power, or, presently, Generation Y; Holton, 2000). As the older segment of Generation Y, university students are an appropriate population for this study. At this time in their lives, these individuals may not have a solidified brand preference, but they may have a loyalty to a particular athlete that can be transferred to the brand that the athlete is endorsing (Holton). This, coupled with the ability to purchase middle to high-end products, is what marketing and advertising executives hope to capitalize on with athlete endorsements. The sample fit the demographic characteristics of the Generation Y population (Table 2).

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for the Demographic Variables

Variable	Category	N	%
Gender	Male	245	61.1
	Female	156	38.9
Age	18-19	72	18.0
	20-21	212	52.9
	22-23	92	22.9
	24 or Older	25	6.2
Ethnicity	African-American/Black	42	10.5
	Asian	23	5.7
	Hispanic/Non-White	25	6.2
	White/Hispanic	46	11.5
	White/Non-Hispanic	258	64.3
	Other	7	1.7
Current Student Status	Freshman	25	6.2
	Sophomore	78	19.5
	Junior	163	40.6
	Senior	122	30.4
	Graduate Student	13	3.2

Questionnaire Development

For this study, the questionnaire was split into two segments (Observation #1 and Observation #2). On both segments of the questionnaire, all items were measured using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = slightly disagree; 4 = neutral; 5 = slightly agree; 6 = agree; 7 = strongly agree). The first segment used two dimensions of the Points of Attachment Index (PAI; Trail, Robinson, Dick, & Gillentine, 2003) to examine the participant's level of identification with both the athlete endorser and the athlete's sport. The second segment of the questionnaire included two additional scales. First, the participants were asked questions to examine the congruency between the athlete and the endorser, including elements of the Scale of Athletic Star Power – Consumer Perspective (SASP – CP; Braunstein & Zhang, 2005b). The second part of the

second segment included the Perceived Value (PERVAL) scale (Sweeney & Stoutar, 2001) to examine the subject's perceived value of the product once he/she has seen the advertisement. The survey included questions regarding the participant's purchase intentions of the product that was used in the study (I believe that this product...is one that I definitely will purchase, is one that I would consider buying, is one that there is a high probability that I would purchase, and is one that I intend to purchase). Additionally, for the purpose of sample description, questions on five sociodemographic variables (gender, age, ethnicity, current student status, and country of citizenship) were included in a multiple-choice format. Prior to the administration of the questionnaire, the University's Institutional Review Board approved the research methods.

Points of Attachment Index

The PAI has been used in numerous studies to examine the influence a consumer's level of identification on his or her consumption intentions (Kwon, Trail, & Anderson, 2005; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Robinson, Trail, & Kwon, 2004; Trail, Robinson, Dick, & Gillentine, 2003). Originally developed to determine the factors that influence consumers to attend sporting events, the PAI has tested various dimensions (Player, Team, Coach, University, Community, Sport, and Level) in a variety of settings. While the PAI factors have remained consistent in previous studies, the scale has not been examined in terms of its influence on an individual's consumption intentions regarding endorsed products or the belief of the congruency between an athlete endorser and a product. Although attachment to an athlete has often been referred to as an influential factor in the selection of an endorser and ultimately the purchase intentions of a consumer (e.g., Tenser, 2004), these factors have not often been controlled for in athlete endorser studies. Therefore, it would have been careless to further explore this relationship without examining these

factors to better understand their role in the attitude change process (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Consequently, it was necessary to include them in the first stage of the model.

As a result of the content of the current study, it was deemed that two dimensions (Sport and Player/Athlete) of the original seven (Player, Team, Coach, University, Community, Sport, and Level) PAI factors (Trail et al., 2003) were to be included in the model. After evaluating the items in terms of the context of the study, eight items were retained. The Sport sub-scale included four items: “first and foremost, I consider myself a (sport) fan,” “being a fan of (sport) is very important to me,” “(sport) is my favorite sport,” and “I am a (sport) fan at all levels and tours.” The Player/Athlete sub-scale also included four items: “I identify with (athlete),” “when (athlete) loses a match, it feels like a personal failure,” “I am a big fan of (athlete),” and “I follow (sport) because I am a big fan of (athlete).”

Scale of Athletic Star Power – Consumer’s Perspective

In Braunstein and Zhang’s (2005b) study to examine the Scale of Athletic Star Power (SASP) with a unique focus, the SASP – CP focused on consumer’s beliefs regarding the characteristics that they believed athlete endorsers should possess, instead of the characteristics that they did possess. The original scale was constructed to examine characteristics exhibited by athlete endorsers that potentially influence consumer purchases of endorsed products and included 40 items under five factors (Professional Trustworthiness, Likeable Personality, Athletic Expertise, Social Attractiveness, and Characteristic Style). As a reevaluation of the original scale, the SASP – CP was decreased to 34 items under four factors (Professional Trustworthiness, Likeable Personality, Athletic Expertise, and Perceived Image).

It was important that the factors, both the SASP and SASP – CP (Braunstein & Zhang, 2005a, 2005b), were reevaluated to examine their relevance in terms of athlete endorsers and the use of these individuals in promoting non-sport products. For use in this study, items were evaluated and included or removed based on three criteria. Items were removed if they had low factor loadings in both of the previous studies (SASP and SASP – CP; Braunstein & Zhang, 2005a, 2005b), did not load on the same factors for the two analyses, or if they did not have face validity with the newly established 4-factor model. Once these factors had been established, items were modified based on newly acquired research regarding athlete endorsers (e.g., Tenser, 2004) and brand personalities (e.g., Aaker, 1997). The scale then had 33 items under 4 factors.

In order to further reduce the number of items, a test of construct validity was conducted with 40 university students. The students were provided with two lists: one list of the factors and one list of the items. They were then instructed to match the items with the factor that they believed worked best to define the overriding construct. As a result of these findings and the addition of the congruency between athlete and endorser to the model, likeability was eliminated as a factor.

After the initial construct validity check, the scale was decreased to three factors with 18 items. These factors included Trustworthiness (sincerity, hard-working, quality, consistency, dependability, and reliability), Expertise (competence, performance over time, accomplishments, ability to perform, superiority, and success), and Image (appearance, style, attractiveness, trendy, recognizability, and distinctiveness). As previous research has consistently linked these three factors (Expertise, Trustworthiness, and Image/Attractiveness) to both positive attitude changes and increased purchase

intentions (e.g., Kahle & Homer, 1985; Simon, Berkowitz, & Moyer, 1970), they fit the criteria used to test the model. The scale was preceded by the phrase “I believe that both the endorser and the product match up well in terms of...” in order to examine the congruency of the attributes between the athlete endorser and the product.

Perceived Value Scale

The PERVAL was originally developed to expand the previous literature that examined consumer’s perceptions of the value of products (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). Originally, perceived value was operationalized as the trade-off between Quality and Price (Cravens, Holland, Lamb, & Moncrieff, 1988; Monroe, 1990; Zeithaml, 1988). The introduction of the PERVAL scale was intended to add the dimensions of Emotion and Social to the two original factors (Sweeney & Stoutar). Lee, Trail, Kwon, and Anderson (2005) reexamined the PERVAL scale in terms of the convergent and divergent characteristics of the factors. While the results did not reveal high factor loadings for many of the items or high average variance extracted (AVE) values for many of the factors, there were a number of items that did load well and were reevaluated for use in this study. Therefore, the PERVAL factors that were used in the study included Emotion (is one that I would enjoy, is one that I would want to use, is exciting, is one that I would feel comfortable using, is one that would make me happy, would make me feel good, and would be fun), Quality (would perform consistently well, is high-quality, is well-made, has an acceptable standard of quality, and would last a long time), Price (is reasonably priced, is a good product for the price, is fairly priced, and is affordable), and Social (would give its owner social approval, would make a good impression on other people, would help me to feel accepted by others, and would improve the way I am perceived by others). All factors retained from Lee et al.’s study had factor loadings of .63 or higher, of

which only one item was below .70 (Lee et al.). The items were preceded by the following statement: “Regarding (product) I believe that this product is...”

Validity Screening

Following its preliminary formulation, the questionnaire was submitted to a panel of experts (n = 16) for a test of content validity. The panel included eight university professors in sport management, tourism, and/or marketing and eight graduate students majoring in sport management. Based on 80% agreement among the panel members, the items were evaluated on whether the format and content were: (a) appropriate, (b) adequate/representative, and (c) accurate/clear (Lam, Zhang, & Jensen, 2005; Zhang, Pease, Hui, & Michaud, 1995).

After the initial items were determined, a test of internal consistency was conducted on the SASP – CP, PERVAL, and purchase intention subscales (N = 49). The test was not conducted on the PAI, as the subscales (identification with sport and identification with player/athlete) have proven to have high alpha values in previous studies (Kwon et al., 2005; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Robinson et al., 2004; Trail et al., 2003). The items were retained based on Nunally and Bernstein’s (1994) criterion that alpha reliability coefficient’s should be equal to or greater than .70. The alpha coefficients for the SASP – CP were .76 (Expertise), .83 (Trustworthiness), and .44 (Image). If the item “controversy” was eliminated from the Image dimension, the alpha coefficient increased to .69. Therefore, the item was dropped and “appearance” was added to the Image factor. The final scale included three factors with six items representing each factor.

For the PERVAL scale, the alpha coefficients were .56 (Emotion), .83 (Quality), .82 (Price), and .83 (Social). As a result of the low alpha coefficient for Emotion, the items were reexamined. In order to improve Emotion, “would make me want to use it,”

the most problematic item, was dropped (after, $\alpha = .61$) and a number of additional items were added (“is exciting,” “is one I would want to use,” “is one that would make me happy,” and “would be fun”). The final scale included 4 factors with a total of 20 items. The purchase intention subscale had a sufficient alpha coefficient of .87, retaining all four items. The final questionnaire included four subscales (PAI, SASP – CP, PERVAL, and purchase intentions) with 50 total items.

Athlete and Product Selection

In order to identify the athletes for the study, the same students used to test the content validity of the scale were asked to list all of the athletes that they could think of in three minutes. The celebrities were later ranked based on the number of times their names were mentioned. Two of the athletes that were mentioned most often were Dale Earnhardt Junior and Maria Sharapova. As these two athletes currently promote middle-to high-end products, they were chosen as potential endorsers to use to test the model. The final pairings of endorsers and products include Dale Earnhardt Junior with Wrangler jeans and Maria Sharapova with Canon cameras. Once the final pairings were determined and advertisements were selected, the same set of students was asked if they would purchase either of these products. After an overwhelming response that they would purchase a Canon camera and they would not purchase Wrangler jeans, the Maria Sharapova/Canon advertisement was chosen for the study.



Figure 2. Product-Endorser Advertisement

Procedures

Subjects were asked to participate in the study, designed to examine the affect of athlete endorsers on consumer's purchase intentions for non-sport products. Online testing procedures were uniform for all research participants. Data collection procedures included: (a) an e-mail to all potential participants, including an introduction of the researcher, the purpose of the study, and a link to the questionnaire (serving as the consent form); (b) an explanation that participation is voluntary, anonymous, and there would be no penalty for not participating or not completing the questionnaire; (c) a welcome statement; (d) two screening questions in order to be included as a research participant in this study ("I know who Maria Sharapova is by reading her name" and "I know what the Canon PowerShot digital camera is by reading the name of the product"); (e) the first part of the questionnaire; (f) the advertisement with the athlete and the product (Figure 2); and (g) the second part of the questionnaire. Once the questionnaire was finished, the data was submitted via the survey service and the final screen thanked

the individual for his/her time and support for the study. The questionnaire was administered in an online format and took approximately 10 minutes to complete.

Data Analyses

Of the 850 e-mails distributed, 400 completed (555 total) submissions were made, constituting an overall response rate of 47%. Descriptive statistics for the sociodemographic variables were calculated using SPSS 13.0 (Norusis, 2004). The RAMONA (SYSTAT, 1997) program was used to test the overall model fit of the measurement model (a confirmatory factor analysis – CFA). In the CFA, the latent variables were allowed to correlate, while the error terms were not. Model fit was determined by examining the root-mean-square-error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1989), a confidence interval (CI) for the RMSEA, the ratio of the chi-square to its degrees of freedom, and the percent of residuals greater than .10 (Browne & Cudeck, 1992). Researchers often indicate the importance of additional goodness-of-fit indices (e.g., Root Mean Square Residual and the Non-Normed Fit Index; Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2002); however, RAMONA does not provide additional indices. Browne and Cudeck believed that the RMSEA is the least influenced by the sample size and number of parameters included in the model. Therefore, additional indices were not deemed necessary and, as a result, not included in the RAMONA program. The RMSEA, bound by zero on the lower end and only equal to zero when there is perfect fit, was the first measure of model fit. According to Hu and Bentler (1999), the following criteria regarding RMSEA values should be used to determine the fit of the model: less than .060 indicates a close fitting model, .061 – .080 indicates reasonable fit, .081 – .100 indicates mediocre fit, and $> .100$ is unacceptable. While it has often been suggested that chi-square per degree of freedom values should range from 2.0 to 3.0, there is no consensus

on this figure, with Bollen (1989) also stating that “acceptable values can reach as high as 5.0” (p. 278). According to Bagozzi and Yi (1988), when less than 10% of the residuals are greater than .10, this is another indicator of adequate model fit.

Factor loadings equal to or greater than .707 show that there is more common variance than unique variance (Hair et al., 2002), thus indicating that the item represents the construct well. In addition, the factors were tested for internal consistency against the standard of $\alpha > .70$ (Nunally & Bernstein, 1994) and tested for construct reliability against the standard of AVE values $> .50$ (Hair et al.). Discriminant validity was assessed to determine if the factors were distinct from one another. This was accomplished by squaring the correlations of the two referent factors. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), if the findings are greater than the AVE score of either factor, then the factors are not distinct.

After the fit of the measurement model had been examined, RAMONA was then used to examine the fit of the structural model. The same criteria were used to examine the structural model as were used with the measurement model. Path coefficients were used to determine the most influential direct or indirect relationship on an individual's intent to purchase the product.

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

Measurement Model Analysis

After reviewing the skewness and kurtosis coefficients, one item (“When Maria Sharapova loses a match, it feels like a personal failure”) did not meet the criteria of approximately ± 2.00 (Stevens, 1996; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). As a result, the item was eliminated from the remainder of the analysis. The balance of the items did meet the criterion, suggesting that the data did not deviate from normality for any given variable (Table 3). Therefore, it was appropriate to test the measurement model. The analysis indicated that the data fit the model adequately. The RMSEA was .078 (CI = .075 to .082) and the chi-square per degree of freedom value (2750/798) was 3.45. While the chi-square per degree of freedom value may be slightly higher than the typically accepted value, as previously stated, Bollen (1989) suggested that a value as high as 5.0 may be deemed acceptable. The number of residuals greater than .10 in the current analysis, 150 (12.76%), was an indicator that the model could be improved. The majority of the AVE coefficients were above the acceptance criterion (.53 for Athlete, .69 for Sport, .45 for Expertise, .49 for Trustworthiness, .50 for Image, .54 for Emotion, .65 for Quality, .70 for Price, .57 for Social, and .68 for Purchase Intention). Alpha coefficients of internal consistency for the factors were all above the acceptance criterion of .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). AVE values, alpha coefficients, and factor loadings can be found in

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics for the Measurement Model

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
Identification				
<u>Athlete (4items)</u>				
1 – I follow tennis because I am a big fan of Maria Sharapova.	2.39	1.37	0.95	0.03
2 – I identify with Maria Sharapova.	3.02	1.65	0.38	0.91
3 – When Maria Sharapova loses, it feels like a personal failure.	1.64	1.13	2.28	5.57
4 – I am a big fan of Maria Sharapova	3.34	1.76	0.18	-1.11
<u>Sport (4items)</u>				
1 – First and foremost, I consider myself a tennis fan.	3.35	1.80	0.34	1.03
2 – Being a fan of tennis is very important to me.	2.65	1.54	0.83	-0.06
3 – Tennis is my favorite sport.	2.20	1.61	1.45	1.19
4 – I am a tennis fan at all levels and tours.	2.78	1.65	0.61	-0.76
Attitude Toward Endorser-Product Congruency				
<u>Expertise (6 items)</u>				
1 – Competence.	4.72	1.22	-0.74	0.38
2 – Performance over time.	4.98	1.16	-0.70	0.55
3 – Accomplishments.	4.68	1.31	-0.61	0.28
4 – Ability to perform.	5.38	1.11	-0.86	1.01
5 – Superiority.	4.71	1.28	-0.55	0.13
6 – Success.	5.36	1.12	-0.99	1.50
<u>Trustworthiness (6 items)</u>				
1 – Sincerity.	4.41	1.17	-0.60	0.46
2 – Hard-working.	5.19	1.22	-0.88	0.63
3 – Quality.	5.28	1.07	-0.87	1.00
4 – Consistency.	4.91	1.09	-0.52	0.41
5 – Dependability.	4.77	1.17	-0.66	0.53
6 – Reliability.	4.93	1.16	-0.62	0.28

Table 3. Continued

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
<u>Image (6 items)</u>				
1 – Appearance.	5.49	1.06	-1.09	1.92
2 – Style.	5.54	1.04	-0.97	1.23
3 – Attractiveness.	5.76	1.07	-1.15	1.99
4 – Trendy.	5.59	1.07	-0.89	1.14
5 – Recognizability.	5.62	1.11	-1.20	2.21
6 – Distinctiveness.	5.22	1.13	-0.70	0.51
Attitude Toward the Product				
<u>Emotion (7 items)</u>				
1– Is one that I would enjoy.	5.19	1.16	-1.03	1.88
2 – Is one that I would want to use.	5.01	1.25	-0.86	0.89
3 – Is exciting.	4.89	1.23	-0.60	0.53
4 – Is one that I would feel comfortable using.	5.28	1.04	-0.90	1.55
5 – Is one that would make me happy.	4.45	1.44	-0.62	0.14
6 – Would make me feel good.	4.11	1.42	-0.47	-0.22
7 – Would be fun.	5.20	1.17	-1.07	2.10
<u>Quality (5 items)</u>				
1 – Would perform consistently well.	5.25	1.10	-1.04	1.87
2 – Is high-quality.	5.30	1.09	-0.73	1.03
3 – Is well-made.	5.18	1.04	-0.45	0.30
4 – Has an acceptable standard of quality.	5.10	1.12	-0.94	1.35
5 – Would last a long time.	4.82	1.15	-0.39	0.42
<u>Price (4 items)</u>				
1 – Is reasonably priced.	4.29	1.13	-0.15	0.18
2 – Is a good product for the price.	4.45	1.07	-0.14	0.33
3 – Is fairly priced.	4.44	1.10	-0.35	0.41
4 – Is affordable.	4.30	1.07	-0.32	1.15
<u>Social (4 items)</u>				
1 – Would give its owner social approval.	4.44	1.39	-0.46	-0.12
2 – Would make a good impression on other people.	4.60	1.29	-0.71	0.48
3 – Would help me to feel accepted by others.	3.14	1.59	0.07	-0.98
4 – Would improve the way I am perceived by others.	3.40	1.55	0.08	-0.90

Table 3. Continued

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
Purchase Intention				
1 – Is one that I definitely will purchase.	3.60	1.50	0.05	-0.58
2 – Is one that I would consider buying.	4.74	1.35	-1.01	0.88
3 – Is one that there is a high probability that I would purchase.	3.99	1.49	-0.21	-0.73
4 – Is one that I intend to purchase.	3.58	1.46	0.04	-0.53

Table 4. Factor Loadings for the Measurement Model

Variable	Pt. Est.	CI (L)	CI (H)	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	α	<i>AVE</i>	
Identification								
<u>Athlete (3 items)</u>							.75	.53
1 – I follow tennis because I am a big fan Of Maria Sharapova.	0.719	0.666	0.773	0.033	22.13			
2 – I identify with Maria Sharapova.	0.621	0.559	0.683	0.037	16.59			
3 – I am a big fan of Maria Sharapova.	0.825	0.778	0.872	0.028	29.00			
<u>Sport (4 items)</u>							.90	.69
1 – First and foremost, I consider myself a tennis fan.	0.803	0.769	0.837	0.021	38.68			
2 – Being a fan of tennis is very important to me.	0.906	0.883	0.928	0.014	66.05			
3 – Tennis is my favorite sport.	0.746	0.706	0.787	0.025	30.05			
4 – I am a tennis fan at all levels and tours.	0.861	0.834	0.888	0.017	51.94			
Attitude Toward Endorser-Product Congruency								
<u>Expertise (6 items)</u>							.84	.45
1 – Competence.	0.541	0.481	0.601	0.037	14.80			
2 – Performance over time.	0.586	0.531	0.642	0.034	17.25			
3 – Ability.	0.722	0.681	0.764	0.025	28.68			
4 – Superiority.	0.781	0.747	0.816	0.021	37.45			
5 – Success.	0.695	0.651	0.740	0.027	25.68			
6 – Accomplishments.	0.774	0.739	0.809	0.021	36.18			
<u>Trustworthiness (6 items)</u>							.86	.49
1 – Sincerity.	0.540	0.479	0.601	0.037	14.51			
2 – Hard-working.	0.625	0.572	0.678	0.032	19.36			
3 – Quality.	0.758	0.720	0.796	0.023	32.60			
4 – Consistency.	0.745	0.706	0.785	0.024	30.84			
5 – Dependability.	0.796	0.762	0.829	0.020	39.03			
6 – Reliability.	0.809	0.777	0.841	0.019	41.86			

Table 4. Continued

Variable	Pt. Est.	CI (L)	CI (H)	SE	t	α	AVE
<u>Image (6 items)</u>						.85	.50
1 – Style.	0.726	0.681	0.771	0.028	26.34		
2 – Attractiveness.	0.728	0.683	0.773	0.027	26.52		
3 – Trendy.	0.791	0.753	0.829	0.023	34.19		
4 – Recognizability.	0.624	0.568	0.681	0.034	18.33		
5 – Distinctiveness.	0.650	0.597	0.704	0.032	20.01		
6 – Appearance.	0.637	0.582	0.692	0.033	19.11		
Attitude Toward the Product							
<u>Emotion (7 items)</u>						.89	.54
1 – Is one that I would enjoy.	0.804	0.772	0.837	0.020	40.92		
2 – Is one that I would want to use.	0.795	0.761	0.828	0.020	38.97		
3 – Is exciting.	0.751	0.712	0.790	0.024	31.64		
4 – Is one that I would feel comfortable using.	0.692	0.646	0.738	0.028	24.84		
5 – Is one that would make me happy.	0.691	0.645	0.737	0.028	24.69		
6 – Is one that would make me feel good.	0.660	0.611	0.710	0.030	22.01		
7 – Would be fun.	0.783	0.748	0.818	0.021	36.79		
<u>Quality (5 items)</u>						.90	.65
1 – Would perform consistently.	0.809	0.777	0.841	0.019	41.71		
2 – Is high-quality.	0.824	0.794	0.854	0.018	45.23		
3 – Is well-made.	0.782	0.747	0.817	0.021	36.46		
4 – Has an acceptable standard of quality.	0.797	0.764	0.831	0.020	39.26		
5 – Would last a long time.	0.792	0.758	0.826	0.021	38.20		
<u>Price (4 items)</u>						.90	.70
1 – Is reasonably priced.	0.772	0.734	0.809	0.023	33.72		
2 – Is a good product for the price.	0.837	0.807	0.867	0.018	46.50		
3 – Is fairly priced.	0.894	0.871	0.917	0.014	64.26		
4 – Is affordable.	0.851	0.824	0.879	0.017	50.31		
<u>Social (4 items)</u>						.83	.57
1 – Would give its owner social approval.	0.577	0.518	0.637	0.036	15.95		
2 – Would make a good impression on other people.	0.596	0.539	0.654	0.035	16.99		
3 – Would help me to feel accepted by others.	0.900	0.872	0.927	0.017	53.86		
4 – Would improve the way I am perceived by others.	0.883	0.855	0.912	0.017	50.59		

Table 4. Continued

Variable	Pt. Est.	CI (L)	CI (H)	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>α</i>	AVE
Purchase Intention							
<u>Purchase Intentions (4 items)</u>						.89	.68
1 – Is one that I definitely will purchase.	0.849	0.821	0.877	0.017	49.97		
2 – Is one that I would consider buying.	0.681	0.633	0.729	0.029	23.32		
3 – Is one that there is a high probability that I would purchase.	0.866	0.841	0.892	0.016	55.15		
4 – Is one that I intent to purchase.	0.892	0.870	0.915	0.014	64.23		

The three Match-Up subscales (Expertise, Trustworthiness, and Image) did not evidence discriminant validity as per Fornell and Larcker (1981). Thus, the first-order latent variables were eliminated and all items were forced to load directly on the latent variable “Match-Up” for the remainder of the analysis. After collapsing the factors into one (Match-Up), the new AVE value was .49 and the new alpha coefficient was .93. While the balance of the factors showed adequate discriminant validity, Quality was not distinct from Emotion. Based on theory, the factors were supposed to be unique constructs in the examination of Perceived Value (i.e., attitude toward the product; e.g., Lee, Trail, Kwon, & Anderson, 2005; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). However, in this data set, Quality and Emotion were not distinct. It is suspected that a “Quality” product may result in positive emotions. Therefore, as it was not theoretically feasible to combine the factors, Emotion was dropped for the remainder of the analysis. In addition, Emotion was a more recent addition to the PERVAL scale (Sweeney & Soutar) and had been problematic in previous studies (Lee et al., 2005). The altered model contained eight factors: seven first-order latent variables (Athlete, Sport, Match-Up, Quality, Price, Social, and Purchase Intention) and one second-order latent variable (Perceived Value). Item correlations are found in Appendix A and factor correlations are found in Table 5.

Table 5. Factor Correlations for the Measurement Model

Variable	Pt. Est.	CI (L)	CI (H)	SE	t
<u>Intent</u>					
Social	0.599	0.534	0.657	0.038	15.96
Price	0.644	0.584	0.697	0.034	18.75
Quality	0.488	0.413	0.556	0.043	11.22
Emotion	0.622	0.560	0.678	0.036	17.28
Image	0.163	0.071	0.253	0.055	2.95
Trustworthiness	0.367	0.283	0.445	0.049	7.45
Expertise	0.355	0.270	0.435	0.050	7.05
Athlete	0.232	0.138	0.322	0.056	4.13
Sport	0.197	0.108	0.282	0.053	3.72
<u>Social</u>					
Price	0.434	0.355	0.506	0.046	9.44
Quality	0.359	0.275	0.437	0.049	7.28
Emotion	0.481	0.405	0.551	0.044	10.89
Image	0.182	0.090	0.271	0.055	3.28
Trustworthiness	0.343	0.258	0.423	0.050	6.80
Expertise	0.348	0.262	0.429	0.051	6.82
Athlete	0.185	0.089	0.278	0.058	3.22
Sport	0.099	0.008	0.188	0.055	1.81
<u>Price</u>					
Quality	0.594	0.528	0.652	0.038	15.73
Emotion	0.602	0.537	0.659	0.037	16.14
Image	0.257	0.168	0.343	0.053	4.82
Trustworthiness	0.449	0.371	0.521	0.046	9.79
Expertise	0.458	0.379	0.530	0.046	9.91
Athlete	0.184	0.089	0.276	0.057	3.22
Sport	0.178	0.089	0.264	0.053	3.34
<u>Quality</u>					
Emotion	0.930	0.904	0.949	0.014	68.59
Image	0.580	0.510	0.643	0.040	14.36
Trustworthiness	0.659	0.598	0.712	0.035	18.95
Expertise	0.678	0.618	0.731	0.034	19.77
Athlete	0.227	0.132	0.318	0.057	3.99
Sport	0.165	0.075	0.252	0.054	3.05

Table 5 Continued

Variable	Pt. Est.	CI (L)	CI (H)	SE	<i>t</i>
<u>Emotion</u>					
Image	0.539	0.465	0.606	0.043	12.64
Trustworthiness	0.534	0.461	0.599	0.042	12.70
Expertise	0.602	0.533	0.662	0.039	15.38
Athlete	0.265	0.171	0.354	0.056	4.74
Sport	0.166	0.076	0.253	0.054	3.08
<u>Image</u>					
Trustworthiness	0.696	0.637	0.747	0.033	20.87
Expertise	0.812	0.763	0.851	0.027	30.60
Athlete	0.228	0.130	0.321	0.058	3.91
Sport	0.034	-0.059	0.126	0.057	0.59
<u>Trustworthiness</u>					
Expertise	1.000			0.017	
Athlete	0.219	0.122	0.311	0.058	3.79
Sport	0.161	0.070	0.249	0.055	2.94
<u>Expertise</u>					
Athlete	0.279	0.182	0.369	0.057	4.89
Sport	0.186	0.094	0.274	0.055	3.39
<u>Athlete</u>					
Sport	0.639	0.570	0.699	0.039	16.23

Structural Model Analysis

Due to the elimination of the Emotion subscale and the highly kurtotic Athlete Identification item, the structural model consisted of 42 items. Although the original relationships among Athlete Identification, Sport Identification, Match-Up, Perceived Value, and Purchase Intention were not altered, the structural model did vary from the measurement model in terms of the number of items analyzed and number of first-order latent variables. The structural model revealed adequate fit as well, with an RMSEA of .080 (CI = .077 to .083) and chi-square per degree of freedom value of 3.55 (2873/810).

However, not all criterion were met, with the number of residuals greater than 0.10 (234/861 = 27.18%) above the criteria of approximately 10%.

In addition to model fit, specific variance was examined to determine the amount of variance explained in the model. In order to determine the amount of variance that the model explained for a specific factor, specific variance (i.e., error) was subtracted from 1.0 (i.e., $1 - Z$). The variance explained for each factor was: 7% (Match-Up), 39% (Perceived Value), and 54% (Purchase Intention). For path coefficients, see Table 6 and Figure 3.

Table 6. Relationships in the Structural Model

Variable	Point Est.	CI (Low)	CI (High)	SE	<i>t</i>
<u>Athlete</u>					
Sport	0.642	0.572	0.702	0.039	16.34
Match-Up	0.268	0.136	0.399	0.080	3.36
Purchase Intention	0.064	-0.012	0.141	0.047	1.39
<u>Sport</u>					
Match-Up	-0.013	-0.139	0.113	0.077	0.17
<u>Match-Up</u>					
Perceived Value	0.622	0.558	0.687	0.039	15.87
<u>Perceived Value</u>					
Quality	0.769	0.716	0.822	0.032	23.82
Price	0.787	0.735	0.838	0.031	25.29
Social	0.587	0.517	0.657	0.042	13.84
Purchase Intention	0.723	0.665	0.782	0.036	20.36

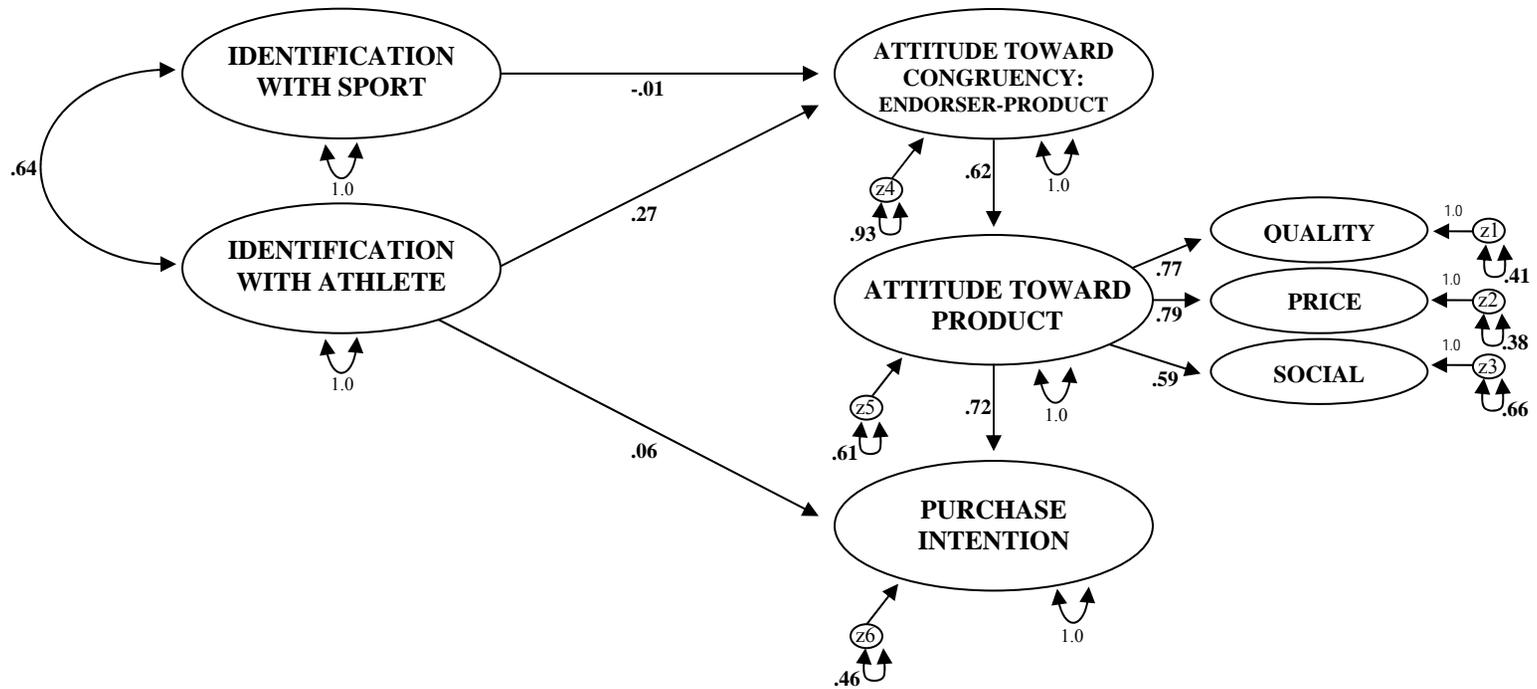


Figure 3. Structural Model

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

Previous studies focusing on the use of endorsers in advertising have helped to determine the general factors (i.e., Attractiveness, Expertise, and Trustworthiness) that academicians and practitioners believe play a key role in understanding the effectiveness of endorsers (e.g., Erdogan, 1999; Erdogan, Baker, & Tagg, 2001; Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953; Hovland & Weiss, 1951; Langmeyer & Walker, 1991a; 1991b; McCracken, 1989; McGuire, 1985; Shimp, 1979; Smith, 1973; Stevens, Lathrop, & Bradish, 2003). However, there are other factors that may influence consumer behavior in terms of the perceived congruency between an endorser and a product (i.e., effectiveness of endorsers). With the continued practice of using athlete endorsers to promote non-sport products, it was necessary to examine this phenomenon to determine its relevance and impact on consumer's purchase intentions. Previously, athlete endorser effectiveness was only examined in terms of the attractiveness and expertise of the endorser (e.g., Boyd & Shank, 2004; Fink et al., 2004). This study was conducted to examine factors in addition to those included in traditional studies that may influence a consumer's purchase intentions.

Model development, guided by Attitude Theory (e.g., Fishbein, 1963; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Zimbardo & Ebbesen, 1970) and Identity Theory (e.g., James, 1890; Mead, 1934; Stryker & Burke, 2000), was intended to include factors beyond those typically addressed in the endorser literature. First, attitude theory was used to examine a consumer's perception of the match between an endorser and a product (Expertise,

Trustworthiness, and Attractiveness/Image; e.g., Braunstein & Zhang, 2005a, 2005b; Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989, 1990; McGuire, 1968, 1985; Ohanian, 1990) and the individual's perception of the value of the product in general (Emotion, Quality, Price, and Social; Lee et al., 2005; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). As a result of the inclusion of athlete endorsers in the study, it was determined that an individual's level of identification with both the athlete and the athlete's sport should be included in the model as well. Identity theory was used as the foundation for this phenomenon (Athlete Identification and Sport Identification; e.g., Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2002; Kwon, Trail, & Anderson, 2005; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Robinson, Trail, & Kwon, 2004; Trail, Robinson, Dick, & Gillentine, 2003; Wann, 2002). Ultimately, a 5-factor (50 item) model was developed to examine the relationships between Athlete/Sport Identification and Match-Up (Expertise, Trustworthiness, Image), Athlete Identification and Purchase Intention, Match-Up and Perceived Value (Emotion, Quality, Price, Social), and Perceived Value and Purchase Intention.

The proposed measurement model was tested and found to fit the data adequately. However, there was evidence of psychometric problems with some of the subscales. One item used to measure athlete identification ("When Maria Sharapova loses a match, it feels like a personal failure.") was eliminated as a result of its high skewness and kurtosis coefficients. This may have been a result of the syntax used to construct the item, as the remaining athlete identification items referred to being a fan, and this may have tried to measure something unique from the other statements that were much more general. After examining skewness and kurtosis coefficients, factor loadings were reviewed. In general, the factor loadings were favorable. Discriminant validity between the dimensions was

examined and it was determined that there was no discriminant validity among the Match-Up subscales (Expertise, Trustworthiness, and Image). In addition, there was a lack of discriminant validity between two of the four Perceived Value subscales (Emotion and Quality).

The lack of discriminant validity among the Match-Up subscales contradicted previous findings (e.g. Baker & Churchill, 1977; Friedman & Friedman, 1979; Kamins, 1990; Lynch & Schuler, 1994; Till & Busler, 1990), which indicated that these were distinct concepts and that each played a significant role in the effectiveness of endorsers. Expertise and Trustworthiness may not have been distinct because participants may have believed that endorsers that have a certain level of expertise in an area are therefore trustworthy, or vice versa. This may also stem from a number of factors, including (a) the fact that the advertisement included an athlete with a non-sport product or (b) a halo effect. Halo effect refers to a cognitive bias, using an individual's judgment of one quality to influence the assessment of other qualities (Asch, 1946). In other words, the participants may not have examined the advertisement closely enough to decide whether or not they believed there to be a congruency between the endorser and the product. However, as a result of the screening questions, it was clear that they did have previous knowledge of the athlete endorser as well as the product. Therefore, participants may have had preconceived notions regarding both elements of Match-Up, that is, the participants may have assumed that the advertisement was included in the study because there was a high level of congruency. This may have resulted in the slightly negatively skewed responses. This speculation cannot be validated without further analyses involving different types of endorser-product match-ups. Because of the lack of

discriminant validity among the dimensions in Match-Up and the fact that the purpose of the study was to test the overall relationships in the model (i.e., the relationships with the second-order latent variable Match-Up), the items from the three first-order latent variables were allowed to load directly on Match-Up as a first-order latent variable for the remainder of the analysis. Although the factors were not distinct in the initial analysis, when the factor loadings on Match-Up as a first-order latent variable were examined there was some indication that there may be more than one factor, as previous researchers have stated (e.g. Baker & Churchill; Friedman & Friedman; Kamins, 1990; Lynch & Schuler; Till & Busler). Therefore, the lack of discriminant validity between the original factors may stem from a number of possibilities, such as preconceived notions of the athlete and/or product, the wording of the items, the sample, the advertisement, and the endorser. Therefore, this issue needs further examination.

Based on theory (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001), the dimensions of Quality and Emotion are not similar. However, the measurement model showed a lack of discriminant validity between these two factors. After further examination, it was determined that there may be a distinct relationship between the factors that was not previously detected. The factors may be related in that one is cognitive (Quality) and one is affective (Emotion). If, as previous researchers have stated (e.g., Lavidge & Steiner, 1961), cognition precedes affect, this may account for the high correlation between the two factors. Therefore, instead of being a part of the dimensions that represent Perceived Value, the Emotion construct may be the affective component and the consequence of, or response to, the cognitive perception of the value of a product. Also, problems may have arisen from the way that the items were stated. This may account for the problems that

the PERVAL scale has had in the past (e.g., Lee et al., 2005). As previously mentioned, the two factors should be measuring different constructs, and thus should not be correlated due to the content of the items. Therefore, if there is a hierarchical relationship, with Price/Quality/Social being cognitive dimensions and Emotion being an affective dimension, that might explain the high correlation between the two factors and alleviate the problems associated with that scale. However, for the purposes of testing the proposed structural model, the Emotion subscale was eliminated from the analysis.

Social, the other factor along with Emotion, that Sweeney and Soutar (2001) added to represent Perceived Value, had some problems as well. Although the construct had an adequate AVE value and was distinct from the other factors, only two of the items loaded at the set criteria of .707 or higher (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2002). Upon review, this may be due to inconsistent wording of the items. Some of the items asked the participant to take ownership (e.g., “would improve the way I am perceived by others”) while others did not (e.g., “would give its owner social approval”). Therefore, the wording of the questions should probably be modified for use in future studies.

Another aspect of the instrument that may benefit from a reevaluation is Purchase Intention. Upon further examination of the factor, the mean score of the four items was 3.91 on a 7-point Likert-type scale. Therefore, the average response was just below neutral (towards slightly disagree). This may be due to the fact that the statements were worded very strongly. The item with the highest mean referred to a “consideration” of a purchase, whereas the rest of the items were stronger statements (i.e., “will purchase”). As a result, this may not be an adequate measure for middle to high-end products. Marketers may intend to create an interest, not a definite purchase intention, as a

consumer will most likely not make a purchase decision based on an advertisement, especially with only one exposure to the promotion. Therefore, it may be beneficial to inquire into a consumer's intention to examine or search out middle to high-end products (e.g., digital cameras, automobiles, season tickets) as a result of an advertisement.

Focusing on an individual's "consideration of purchase" may provide marketers with a greater understanding of the actual impact of athlete endorsers on consumer's purchase intentions, especially in a highly competitive market where consumers are looking for a way to differentiate among brands.

The final structural model included 42 items within 5 factors: Athlete Identification, Sport Identification, Match-Up, Perceived Value (Quality, Price, Social), and Purchase Intention. The model (Figure 3) fit adequately well, explained 54% of the variance in Purchase Intention, and examined four main relationships: Identification with both Sport and Athlete to Match-Up, Identification with Athlete to Purchase Intention, Match-Up to Perceived Value, and Perceived Value to Purchase Intention. Identification had relatively no influence on any aspect of the model. Previous investigations did not include this relationship, so it should be reexamined in future studies. The relationship between Athlete Identification and Purchase Intention explained less than one percent of the variance in the model as well. However, this is not reflective of previous findings regarding identification in sport. Previous studies have found that identification does influence purchase intention (e.g., Kwon et al., 2005; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Robinson et al., 2004; Trail et al., 2003). The finding may be due to the specific athlete used in the study, the way the questions were phrased, and/or there is no overall influence of identification with an athlete on an individual's purchase intentions regarding an

endorsed product. Although examining identification in this context is new to academia, practitioners have used a criterion similar to identification when selecting athlete endorsers for use in campaigns (Tenser, 2004). Therefore, it would be beneficial to continue examining the importance of this factor in the future.

The amount of variance that Sport Identification and Athlete Identification combined to explain in Match-Up was extremely low (7%). This was surprising, as previous research did find that a consumer tends to react to his or her perception of the talents or traits of an athlete endorser (Braunstein & Zhang, 2005a), which was part of the rationale behind this relationship. Athlete (Player) Identification was one of the Points of Attachment examined by previous researchers (Fink et al., 2002; Kwon et al., 2005; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Robinson et al., 2004; Trail et al., 2003), who found that these factors did influence consumer purchase (attendance) intentions. Identification has not been involved in studies similar to the research design of the current investigation. Findings of the current study indicated that identification with the sport in general may not influence a consumer's perception of the congruency between the endorser and the product. The small amount of variance explained by the relationships may mean that identification is not an integral aspect of the decision-making process, or it could be the result of a number of different factors. For example, the athlete endorser used in this study may not have elicited the same level of identification as other endorsers. It is important to use an endorser that a specific market relates to (Rein, Kotler, & Stoller, 1997; Stevens et al., 2003; Stotlar, Veltri, & Viswanthan, 1998). Perhaps the endorser used in this advertisement was not appropriate for the Generation Y market. The only

way to determine the relevance of identification in this relationship is through continued research.

The model did explain 38% of the variance in the relationship between Match-Up and Perceived Value. While it has been said that an individual's attitude is not easily altered, marketing practices have been found to moderately influence a potential consumer's perception of a product (MacKenzie, Lutz, & Belch, 1986). Although the current findings of the current study supported this relationship, the amount of variance explained may be inflated due to similar items being included in both scales. After further examination of the Trustworthiness subscale of the SASP – CP and the Quality subscale of the PERVAL scale, there are a number of items that may have caused the exaggeration of the importance of the relationship (e.g., Trustworthiness: quality, dependability, reliability; Quality: would perform consistently, is high-quality, is well-made). Therefore, the items will need to be reexamined if the scales are to be used in conjunction with one another in future studies. The aforementioned alterations to the congruency and brand perception constructs may also strengthen these findings in the future.

The largest amount of variance explained by the model was in the relationship between Perceived Value and Purchase Intention (52%). That is, the participant's perception of the value of the product likely influenced his/her intentions of purchasing the product. The findings of this relationship coincided with previous findings, as a consumer's perception of the value of the product has been found to influence purchase intentions (e.g., Lee et al., 2005; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). The Emotion subscale, perceived as an important aspect of a consumer's perception of a product (Lee et al., 2005; Sheth, Newman, & Gross, 1991; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001), was eliminated from

the structural model. However, future studies may find that this factor plays a key role in mediating the relationship between Perceived Value and Purchase Intention (e.g., Lavidge & Steiner, 1961; Palda, 1966; Ray, 1973). Very importantly, the model explained a large amount of variance in Purchase Intention (54%), which provides evidence that the factors included in the model were integral to the decision-making process.

The model provided presented a potential foundation for marketers to use when evaluating the use of athlete endorsers in the future. This initial investigation, that included identification as a potentially influential factor, may provide practitioners with a basis for the selection of athlete endorsers. While academicians have not included identification (athlete and/or sport) in their examination of the effectiveness of athlete endorsers, practitioners have noted that these factors play an important role in their selection of endorsers. Marketers have used selection criterion including: “is hottest new star in his/her sport,” “has been playing or played the sport for a long time,” “plays/played for one of my favorite teams,” and “plays/played sport I follow” (Tenser, 2004). They have also examined factors such as the sport that the athlete is involved in (sport that your target market likes) and the individual’s level of success (success on the field and post-sports career) when making final selections (Tenser). While practitioners have begun to look into factors that lean toward identification, they have not truly examined it as a part of this process. Therefore, a model that further examines identification’s role in the overall decision-making process may help practitioners to determine if identification is integral in positively altering a consumer’s perception of the product, ultimately ending in a purchase intention. In this study, the participants were not

highly identified with the athlete or sport involved in the campaign, and the athlete's appearance in the advertisement did not make an impact on the participant's purchase intentions. If the sample was the company's target market, perhaps the athlete was not the appropriate endorser to select for their campaign. However, if future studies show that identification does impact purchase intentions, it may benefit an organization if their executives take this into consideration when designing a marketing campaign. For example, an expanded use of focus groups to determine levels of identification (athlete and sport) and belief of product-endorser congruency may provide a better platform for an organization interested in selecting an endorser that has the best potential to reach a specific market.

Because of the purpose of the study, the composition of the sample, the format of the questionnaire, the advertisement (i.e., only one athlete and one non-sport product), and the exploratory nature of the study, the findings can only be viewed as part of the continuing development and validation process for the model. Although the model provided an adequate fit to the data, continuous improvement is necessary to obtain the fit indices that are desired. According to Baumgartner and Jackson (1999), in addition to examining the content and construct validity of an instrument, criterion and predictive validity should also be evaluated in future studies. Therefore, future studies with other samples representing different populations are necessary to further validate the model. When studying the influence of athlete endorsers in the future, it would be beneficial to reexamine the relationships proposed in this model. Although the sample size was adequate for the number of parameters in the model, it would be beneficial to examine the relationships using experimental design with different types of advertisements (e.g.,

informative, humorous), athlete endorsers (e.g., high-profile, low-profile), and products (e.g., low cost, high cost / low-involvement, high-involvement / sport, non-sport). Using experimental design with a hypothetical product or a product that is new to the market will provide researchers with the opportunity to examine participant's perception of the product before and after exposure to the advertisement. It may also be beneficial to eliminate the screening questions in order to observe all individuals that may have exposure to the advertisement, and not just those that already know the endorser and/or the product. Additionally, a study that examines the consumer's attitude toward the advertisement, product/brand, and athlete in a very simple way (like/dislike) in order to observe the participant's basic feelings regarding the effectiveness of athlete endorsers could prove useful in reevaluating the model.

Pre-advertisement attitude toward the product influences both initial purchase intention and post-advertisement attitude toward the product. However, the latter relationship could be mediated by congruency between the endorser and the product. Both the initial purchase intention and the post-advertisement attitude toward the product would be related to post-advertisement purchase intention. This was not examined in the current study. In future studies, researchers should consider using experimental design to test attitude change as well as within and between group differences. Once the model has been reevaluated, a multigroup structural equation modeling technique could be used to examine the differences between male and female athlete endorsers and the differences between athlete endorsers as a result of their level of athletic star power. This would allow for the use of a control group to determine if the relationships are as influential with the advertisement as without it.

It may also be beneficial to reexamine the model with attitude presented in a hierarchical structure (i.e., cognition, affect, and conation; e.g., Lavidge & Steiner, 1961; Palda, 1966; Ray, 1973). As previously stated, some of the Perceived Value factors (Quality, Price, and Social) may examine cognitive dimensions, while the fourth factor (Emotion) looks at an affective dimension. Restructuring the model in order to examine a potential hierarchical structure may provide a solution for the lack of discriminant validity between Emotion and Quality (see Figure 4) as well as the problems that the PERVAL scale has faced in the past (e.g., Lee et al., 2005).

In order to obtain a greater understanding of the impact of athlete endorsers on consumer's intention to purchase endorsed products, future studies should also consider an alternative way to examine the Match-Up Hypothesis (e.g., Kahle & Homer, 1985; Kamins, 1989; Kamins, 1990). Even though the factors were not distinct in this study, previous studies have found unique factors that they believe to be an integral aspect of the endorser concept. In addition to the reanalysis of product-endorser congruency, identification must be further explored as well. Even though the model did not explain a large amount of variance regarding the relationships between Identification (Athlete and Sport) and Match-Up, identification has been proven to increase consumer purchase intentions in the past (e.g., Kwon et al., 2005; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Robinson et al., 2004; Trail et al., 2003). While these studies have focused on purchase intentions regarding event attendance, marketers are using a number of the same variables when selecting athlete endorsers (e.g., Tenser, 2004). With the purpose behind the use of athlete endorsers stemming from an interest in increasing brand recognition, consumer's identification with the athlete or sport may prove to be an integral part of the relationship

leading to purchase intentions. Although this was not the case in this study, the importance of identification must be further examined to determine its relevance in the selection of endorsers. With the continued use of athlete endorsers in advertisements and promotional tools, additional research regarding both Match-Up and Identification will be beneficial to practitioners in the selection of appropriate endorsers for their products.

In summary, the model in this analysis provided an initial examination into some of the factors that may influence the use of athlete endorsers. Although alterations to the model are recommended, the findings do provide a framework (based on identity theory and attitude theory) for additional analyses. Both practitioners and academicians may adapt and adopt the model to assess the influence of these factors on consumer purchase intentions regarding endorsed products. Mailed, telephone, in-person, or online quantitative and qualitative questionnaires may be used to further assess these relationships and their effectiveness with various types of endorsers and products. This may provide further evidence for or against the use of athlete endorsers to influence consumer purchase intentions.

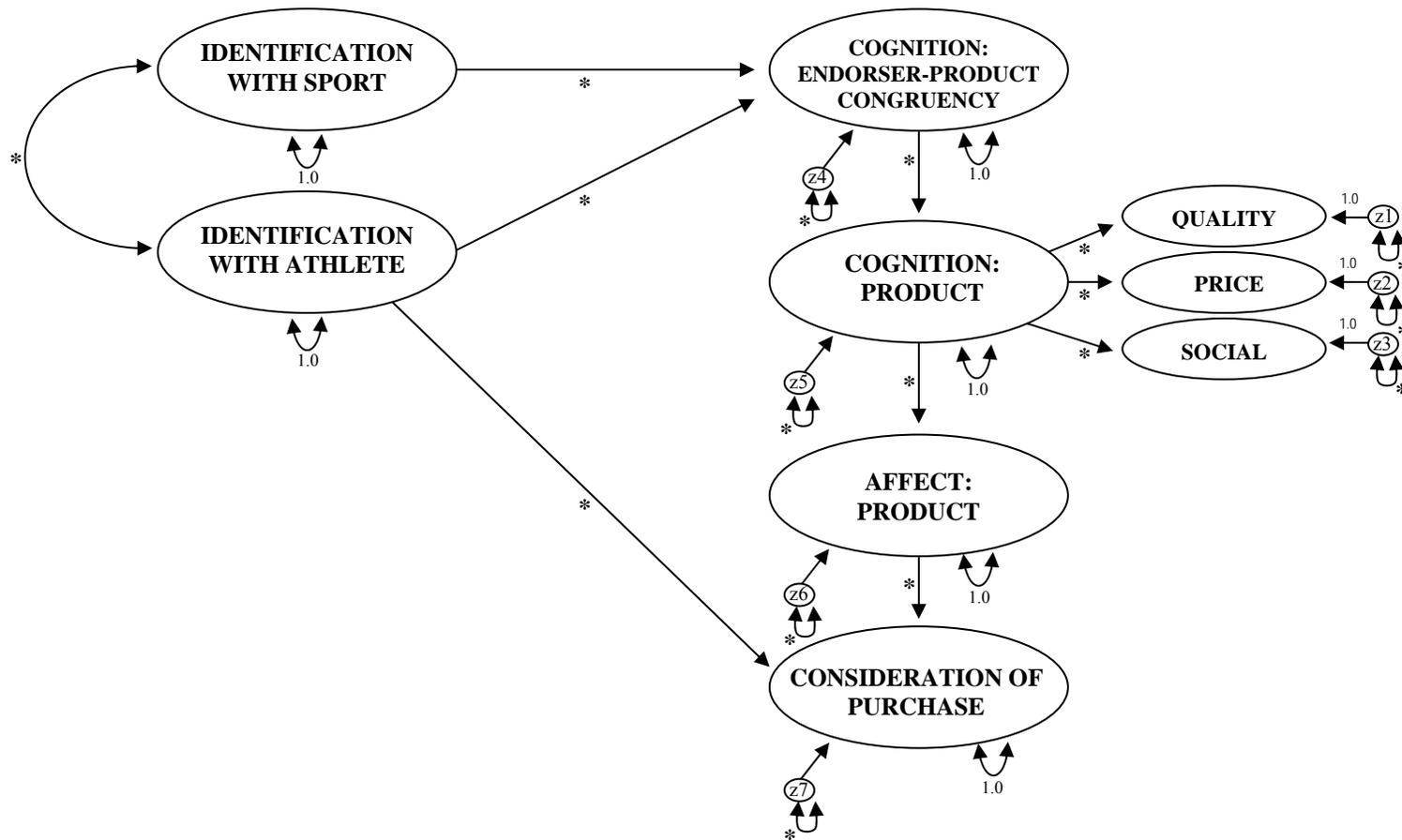


Figure 4. Recommended Model for Future Research

APPENDIX A
ITEM CORRELATIONS FOR THE MEASUREMENT MODEL

	A1	S1	A2	S2	S3	A4	S4	E1	T1	I1	E2	T2	I2	E3	T3	I3
ATHLETE1	1.000															
SPORT1	0.377	1.000														
ATHLETE2	0.421	0.398	1.000													
SPORT2	0.399	0.728	0.475	1.000												
SPORT3	0.290	0.574	0.308	0.680	1.000											
ATHLETE4	0.613	0.455	0.499	0.463	0.306	1.000										
SPORT4	0.329	0.694	0.411	0.773	0.666	0.445	1.000									
EXPERT1	0.184	0.152	0.126	0.192	0.147	0.258	0.161	1.000								
TRUST1	0.239	0.077	0.105	0.142	0.087	0.199	0.108	0.521	1.000							
IMAGE1	0.094	-0.011	-0.011	-0.012	-0.078	0.168	-0.048	0.402	0.362	1.000						
EXPERT2	0.048	0.034	0.024	0.119	0.055	0.106	0.038	0.310	0.334	0.416	1.000					
TRUST2	0.117	0.093	0.140	0.171	0.061	0.149	0.064	0.347	0.421	0.419	0.609	1.000				
IMAGE2	0.114	0.030	0.040	0.014	0.064	0.125	-0.047	0.284	0.233	0.655	0.375	0.420	1.000			
EXPERT3	0.159	0.129	0.114	0.174	0.170	0.125	0.113	0.409	0.391	0.399	0.469	0.499	0.350	1.000		
TRUST3	0.148	0.099	0.057	0.096	0.032	0.113	0.076	0.416	0.342	0.452	0.446	0.455	0.471	0.671	1.000	
IMAGE3	0.147	0.010	0.034	-0.016	-0.088	0.149	-0.017	0.269	0.234	0.621	0.361	0.414	0.593	0.446	0.572	1.000
EXPERT4	0.100	0.062	0.095	0.057	0.030	0.148	0.072	0.364	0.364	0.455	0.416	0.483	0.429	0.552	0.660	0.572
TRUST4	0.085	0.014	0.018	0.102	0.064	0.050	0.044	0.369	0.405	0.328	0.467	0.491	0.302	0.548	0.553	0.330
IMAGE4	0.006	0.019	0.041	0.016	-0.043	0.065	0.015	0.279	0.173	0.385	0.230	0.251	0.403	0.288	0.355	0.541
EXPERT5	0.177	0.056	0.110	0.135	0.148	0.181	0.101	0.370	0.344	0.351	0.386	0.384	0.281	0.560	0.524	0.368
TRUST5	0.102	0.028	0.057	0.150	0.119	0.111	0.105	0.385	0.415	0.314	0.405	0.443	0.266	0.531	0.583	0.370
IMAGE5	0.135	0.109	0.139	0.141	0.032	0.242	0.056	0.316	0.189	0.377	0.251	0.269	0.442	0.341	0.393	0.461
EXPERT6	0.187	0.135	0.157	0.182	0.093	0.205	0.097	0.425	0.420	0.452	0.395	0.503	0.421	0.565	0.533	0.496
TRUST6	0.206	0.126	0.119	0.155	0.117	0.178	0.089	0.412	0.439	0.347	0.433	0.411	0.361	0.528	0.585	0.367
IMAGE6	0.183	0.172	0.098	0.171	0.120	0.166	0.116	0.332	0.286	0.351	0.269	0.326	0.446	0.392	0.426	0.429
EMOTION1	0.138	0.183	0.057	0.112	0.063	0.154	0.053	0.303	0.337	0.335	0.378	0.416	0.359	0.402	0.405	0.331
QUALITY1	0.092	0.126	0.109	0.091	0.044	0.143	0.019	0.329	0.365	0.339	0.451	0.499	0.395	0.398	0.460	0.349
PRICE1	0.102	0.058	0.130	0.063	0.066	0.084	-0.006	0.106	0.229	0.170	0.318	0.312	0.224	0.355	0.279	0.180
SOCIAL1	0.067	-0.003	0.097	0.061	0.027	0.041	0.002	0.210	0.259	0.174	0.295	0.307	0.219	0.287	0.211	0.251
INTENT1	0.157	0.115	0.183	0.193	0.207	0.088	0.067	0.130	0.244	0.094	0.242	0.200	0.123	0.289	0.177	0.078
EMOTION2	0.155	0.169	0.086	-0.028	0.086	0.179	0.099	0.218	0.288	0.213	0.295	0.305	0.266	0.240	0.224	0.251
QUALITY2	0.123	0.146	0.120	-0.038	0.042	0.153	0.055	0.231	0.351	0.376	0.368	0.426	0.375	0.363	0.423	0.416
EMOTION3	0.171	0.099	0.140	-0.006	0.035	0.150	0.034	0.237	0.342	0.335	0.299	0.388	0.295	0.323	0.303	0.377
PRICE2	0.072	0.120	0.142	0.043	0.157	0.134	0.105	0.237	0.248	0.139	0.277	0.289	0.196	0.387	0.327	0.182
SOCIAL2	0.127	0.079	0.135	0.048	0.068	0.142	0.042	0.275	0.315	0.220	0.222	0.278	0.208	0.281	0.211	0.231
INTENT2	0.142	0.156	0.143	0.007	0.116	0.180	0.099	0.205	0.247	0.120	0.209	0.296	0.199	0.313	0.303	0.198
EMOTION4	0.116	0.133	0.068	-0.085	0.044	0.202	0.031	0.269	0.218	0.257	0.221	0.284	0.285	0.259	0.358	0.245
QUALITY3	0.101	0.129	0.045	-0.043	0.048	0.152	0.052	0.247	0.282	0.233	0.299	0.325	0.292	0.308	0.375	0.324
PRICE3	0.071	0.104	0.153	0.167	0.150	0.124	0.074	0.169	0.285	0.135	0.267	0.261	0.136	0.301	0.244	0.169
SOCIAL3	0.223	0.031	0.080	0.089	0.136	0.077	0.020	0.168	0.250	0.068	0.175	0.152	0.050	0.226	0.084	0.092
EMOTION5	0.181	0.131	0.085	0.146	0.087	0.138	0.061	0.218	0.287	0.166	0.262	0.264	0.193	0.295	0.211	0.226

KEY: A = Athlete; S = Sport; E = Expertise; T = Trustworthiness; I = Image; EM = Emotion; Q = Quality; P = Price; S = Social; PI = Purchase Intention

	A1	S1	A2	S2	S3	A4	S4	E1	T1	I1	E2	T2	I2	E3	T3	I3
INTENT3	0.147	0.144	0.208	0.203	0.189	0.172	0.151	0.092	0.252	0.075	0.183	0.197	0.096	0.251	0.174	0.092
EMOTION6	0.178	0.147	0.143	0.220	0.154	0.217	0.116	0.206	0.280	0.149	0.262	0.256	0.157	0.312	0.171	0.196
QUALITY4	0.137	0.142	0.131	0.177	0.100	0.207	0.137	0.261	0.331	0.258	0.298	0.339	0.249	0.309	0.376	0.350
PRICE4	0.078	0.111	0.181	0.216	0.197	0.152	0.132	0.197	0.239	0.085	0.250	0.256	0.121	0.292	0.247	0.140
SOCIAL4	0.184	0.032	0.080	0.117	0.132	0.102	0.052	0.086	0.211	0.067	0.166	0.156	0.019	0.187	0.028	0.077
INTENT4	0.160	0.105	0.176	0.168	0.134	0.119	0.089	0.096	0.242	0.033	0.200	0.159	0.020	0.202	0.110	0.017
QUALITY5	0.111	0.153	0.124	0.189	0.100	0.161	0.145	0.280	0.368	0.262	0.366	0.408	0.235	0.391	0.388	0.324
EMOTION7	0.142	0.124	0.051	0.120	-0.009	0.189	0.059	0.238	0.283	0.291	0.374	0.346	0.265	0.295	0.315	0.371

KEY: A = Athlete; S = Sport; E = Expertise; T = Trustworthiness; I = Image; EM = Emotion; Q = Quality; P = Price; S = Social; PI = Purchase Intention

	E4	T4	I4	E5	T5	I5	E6	T6	I6	EM1	Q1	P1	S1	PI1	EM2	Q2	E3
EXPERT4	1.000																
TRUST4	0.655	1.000															
IMAGE4	0.468	0.366	1.000														
EXPERT5	0.518	0.468	0.305	1.000													
TRUST5	0.580	0.600	0.270	0.684	1.000												
IMAGE5	0.421	0.285	0.462	0.394	0.389	1.000											
EXPERT6	0.625	0.494	0.366	0.577	0.585	0.582	1.000										
TRUST6	0.616	0.642	0.313	0.571	0.729	0.444	0.647	1.000									
IMAGE6	0.470	0.394	0.455	0.427	0.418	0.554	0.568	0.559	1.000								
EMOTION1	0.376	0.264	0.257	0.284	0.289	0.370	0.437	0.383	0.330	1.000							
QUALITY1	0.434	0.331	0.263	0.372	0.396	0.405	0.484	0.469	0.360	0.800	1.000						
PRICE1	0.257	0.260	0.106	0.225	0.259	0.184	0.288	0.342	0.149	0.467	0.461	1.000					
SOCIAL1	0.277	0.270	0.311	0.320	0.309	0.206	0.335	0.328	0.273	0.395	0.412	0.344	1.000				
INTENT1	0.172	0.221	0.036	0.234	0.267	0.164	0.269	0.317	0.179	0.356	0.311	0.512	0.381	1.000			
EMOTION2	0.282	0.146	0.201	0.244	0.247	0.320	0.374	0.281	0.291	0.675	0.609	0.386	0.417	0.426	1.000		
QUALITY2	0.429	0.319	0.288	0.397	0.404	0.364	0.474	0.435	0.363	0.639	0.690	0.307	0.445	0.349	0.649	1.000	
EMOTION3	0.342	0.281	0.322	0.354	0.363	0.351	0.422	0.369	0.366	0.588	0.558	0.360	0.511	0.419	0.617	0.680	1.000
PRICE2	0.269	0.217	0.121	0.330	0.364	0.290	0.368	0.380	0.213	0.524	0.528	0.674	0.340	0.449	0.460	0.423	0.415
SOCIAL2	0.265	0.192	0.238	0.278	0.262	0.260	0.361	0.333	0.225	0.449	0.421	0.316	0.543	0.368	0.460	0.480	0.541
INTENT2	0.346	0.256	0.199	0.242	0.299	0.314	0.375	0.370	0.268	0.550	0.475	0.458	0.283	0.526	0.589	0.475	0.450
EMOTION4	0.334	0.246	0.246	0.240	0.248	0.368	0.395	0.371	0.356	0.624	0.556	0.335	0.300	0.291	0.545	0.567	0.426
QUALITY3	0.357	0.269	0.226	0.352	0.374	0.345	0.423	0.425	0.369	0.575	0.602	0.314	0.358	0.230	0.532	0.660	0.489
PRICE3	0.236	0.241	0.072	0.282	0.304	0.179	0.332	0.297	0.160	0.430	0.384	0.689	0.243	0.470	0.361	0.321	0.328
SOCIAL3	0.159	0.233	0.126	0.299	0.238	0.094	0.217	0.310	0.170	0.184	0.180	0.313	0.505	0.441	0.230	0.210	0.347
EMOTION5	0.274	0.272	0.221	0.286	0.302	0.305	0.384	0.364	0.300	0.468	0.415	0.324	0.471	0.470	0.533	0.454	0.522
INTENT3	0.223	0.202	0.075	0.271	0.287	0.244	0.282	0.257	0.210	0.360	0.328	0.413	0.292	0.719	0.452	0.369	0.421
EMOTION6	0.297	0.272	0.195	0.315	0.285	0.245	0.369	0.343	0.272	0.410	0.373	0.304	0.440	0.479	0.511	0.445	0.482
QUALITY4	0.390	0.293	0.262	0.340	0.381	0.407	0.471	0.419	0.370	0.595	0.605	0.282	0.343	0.256	0.542	0.640	0.519
PRICE4	0.211	0.237	0.058	0.235	0.309	0.205	0.291	0.287	0.168	0.384	0.345	0.633	0.221	0.447	0.356	0.283	0.290
SOCIAL4	0.119	0.204	0.090	0.240	0.230	0.046	0.202	0.254	0.142	0.130	0.164	0.278	0.460	0.469	0.252	0.224	0.355
INTENT4	0.124	0.218	-0.020	0.159	0.212	0.104	0.206	0.264	0.116	0.284	0.241	0.427	0.270	0.787	0.367	0.289	0.355
QUALITY5	0.416	0.390	0.250	0.351	0.427	0.353	0.495	0.491	0.380	0.562	0.578	0.337	0.327	0.307	0.515	0.623	0.504
EMOTION7	0.310	0.214	0.305	0.262	0.286	0.359	0.425	0.329	0.287	0.682	0.604	0.264	0.330	0.259	0.647	0.600	0.632

KEY: A = Athlete; S = Sport; E = Expertise; T = Trustworthiness; I = Image; EM = Emotion; Q = Quality; P = Price; S = Social; PI = Purchase Intention

	P2	S2	PI2	EM4	Q3	P3	S3	EM5	PI3	EM6	Q4	P4	S4	PI4	Q5	EM7
PRICE2	1.000															
SOCIAL2	0.440	1.000														
INTENT2	0.516	0.523	1.000													
EMOTION4	0.419	0.368	0.575	1.000												
QUALITY3	0.503	0.412	0.480	0.643	1.000											
PRICE3	0.736	0.449	0.546	0.381	0.437	1.000										
SOCIAL3	0.293	0.507	0.300	0.122	0.195	0.348	1.000									
EMOTION5	0.418	0.527	0.524	0.430	0.423	0.405	0.537	1.000								
INTENT3	0.458	0.381	0.621	0.347	0.332	0.487	0.404	0.525	1.000							
EMOTION6	0.416	0.541	0.538	0.377	0.396	0.417	0.581	0.779	0.596	1.000						
QUALITY4	0.450	0.484	0.520	0.611	0.664	0.429	0.222	0.470	0.415	0.472	1.000					
PRICE4	0.696	0.393	0.523	0.366	0.376	0.783	0.261	0.342	0.496	0.390	0.467	1.000				
SOCIAL4	0.270	0.478	0.312	0.078	0.191	0.322	0.815	0.501	0.466	0.584	0.210	0.300	1.000			
INTENT4	0.387	0.385	0.559	0.276	0.222	0.466	0.445	0.504	0.781	0.545	0.310	0.494	0.542	1.000		
QUALITY5	0.505	0.437	0.520	0.536	0.673	0.451	0.209	0.466	0.410	0.483	0.692	0.476	0.259	0.362	1.000	
EMOTION7	0.420	0.438	0.486	0.524	0.534	0.349	0.143	0.529	0.332	0.442	0.618	0.368	0.188	0.289	0.656	1.000

KEY: A = Athlete; S = Sport; E = Expertise; T = Trustworthiness; I = Image; EM = Emotion; Q = Quality; P = Price; S = Social; PI = Purchase Intention

APPENDIX B.
SPORT MARKETING SURVEY

PURPOSE: This survey is for a student marketing research project. The collected information will be solely used for research, and your name will not be identified. Please read all directions carefully and answer all items provided. There are no right or wrong answers. Your participation is voluntary, and your sincere and honest response is greatly appreciated.

*** Maria Sharapova/Canon PowerShot digital camera ***

- | | | |
|---|------------|-----------|
| 1. I know who this individual is by reading her name. | Yes | No |
| 2. I know what this product is by reading the product's name. | Yes | No |

-- If you answered NO to #1 or #2, you are finished with the survey. Thank you. --
-- If you answered YES to both #1 and #2, please continue. --

*** The purpose of this section is to determine YOUR LEVEL OF IDENTIFICATION with tennis and Maria Sharapova. Please rate the manner in which you agree with the following statements using the scale provided:**

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1. I follow tennis because I am a big fan of M.S.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
2. 1 st and foremost, I consider myself a tennis fan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
3. I identify with Maria Sharapova.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
4. Being a fan of tennis is very important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5. When M.S. loses, it feels like a personal failure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
6. Tennis is my favorite sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
7. I am a big fan of Maria Sharapova.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
8. I am a tennis fan at all levels and tours.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

* Now that you have seen the advertisement, the purpose of this section is to determine YOUR PERCEPTION OF THE MATCH-UP of the characteristics between the Canon PowerShot digital camera and Maria Sharapova. Please rate the manner in which you agree with the following statements using the scale provided. When completing this section, please preface each of the following items with the statement:

I believe that the endorser and the product match up well in terms of...

	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	
1. competence.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. sincerity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. appearance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. performance over time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. hard-working.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. style.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. accomplishments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. attractiveness.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. ability to perform.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. consistency.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. trendy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. superiority.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. dependability.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. recognizability.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. success.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. reliability.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. distinctiveness.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

*** Please turn over to complete the questionnaire. ***

*** After viewing this advertisement, please identify YOUR PERCEIVED VALUE of the Canon PowerShot digital camera by answering the following questions. Please rate the manner in which you agree with the following statements using the scale provided. When completing this section, please preface each of the following items with the statement:**

After viewing this advertisement, I believe that this product...

	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
19. is one that I would enjoy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. would perform consistently well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. is reasonably priced.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. would give its owner social approval.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. is one that I definitely will purchase.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. is on that I would want to use.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. is high-quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. is exciting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. is a good product for the price.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. would make a good impression on other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. is one that I would consider buying.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. is one that I would feel comfortable using.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. is well-made.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. is fairly priced.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. would help me to feel accepted by others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. is one that would make me happy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. is one that there is a high prob that I would purchase.	12	3	4	5	6	7	
36. would make me feel good.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. has an acceptable standard of quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. is affordable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. would improve the way I am perceived by others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. is one that I intend to purchase.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41. would last a long time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42. would be fun.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

DEMOGRAPHICS: Please provide the following demographic information by circling the answer that best describes you.

43. Gender: a. Male b. Female

44. Age: a. 18-19 b. 20-21 c. 22-23 d. 24 or older

45. Ethnicity: a. African-American/Black b. American Indian/Alaskan Native c. Asian
 d. Hawaiian/Pacific Islander e. Hispanic/Non-White f. White/Hispanic
 g. White/Non-Hispanic h. other

46. Current student status: a. Freshman b. Sophomore c. Junior
 d. Senior e. Graduate Student

Thank you for your help with this study!

If you have any questions regarding this survey, please contact

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

After graduating from Manalapan High School (Manalapan, NJ) in June of 1996, I enrolled at the University of Florida. I obtained my Bachelor of Science (with honors), Master of Exercise and Sport Sciences, and Doctor of Philosophy from the College of Health and Human Performance. I earned my bachelor's degree (leisure services management) in August of 2000 and entered my master's program (sport management) upon graduation. After finishing the master's program in sport management, I entered the Ph.D. program in the fall of 2002. I earned my Ph.D. in health and human performance (sport management) with a minor in marketing in the summer of 2006.