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An Assessment of Stakeholder Response of Collegiate Sports Marketing
Across Three Western State Universities

Casey D. Stauffer

A Thesis submitted to the faculty of
Brigham Young University

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Mass Communication

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ABSTRACT

An Assessment of Stakeholder Response of Collegiate Sports Marketing

Across Three Western State Universities

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Master of Mass Communication

The purpose of this thesis was to explore stakeholder response to the increase in corporate involvement in college sports. As tough economic times have been steadily realized into a recession, the rise in educational costs and in amount of money required to run athletic programs have placed a tremendous need on athletic departments for money. As a result, a popular trend of outsourcing or selling, marketing rights to third party entities has been a quick way to raise needed revenues. In the selling of these marketing rights, athletic departments have essentially opened the door to allow for an increase in corporation involvement at these athletic events. This paper utilizes Fishbein and Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) to discover how the increase in marketing efforts are impacting their stakeholders, or rather season ticket holders. The universities used in this study have within the last three years recently sold their marketing rights and belong to the same network company, ISP Sports. These universities are: Brigham Young University (BYU), Texas Christian University (TCU), and the University of Nevada Las Vegas (UNLV). The first factor studied showed stakeholders of these universities hold negative beliefs about the impact the marketing efforts are having on their purchasing habits. The second factor studied demonstrated a slight negative normative belief towards a social perception of the willingness to support sponsors who support their university. The third factor studied demonstrated a somewhat positive belief towards perceived control over the marketing efforts. As a result, this case study shows a composite negative behavioral intention trend.

Keywords: Sports marketing, stakeholders theory, convergent theory, theory of planned behavior

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Perhaps one of the largest misperceptions within college athletics is the belief that universities make tremendous sums of money through their various athletic team programs. Given a passing glance, one might even be able to understand how this misguided belief can be fostered. Huge stadiums, active fans, and increasing corporate integration with sports all spells out the probability of big money. However, those who feel university athletic departments are literally profit centers via their turnstiles should consider the expenses of such programs. With education costs increasing, as well as the costs associated with running an athletic program, additional revenue streams have to be utilized to make ends meet. This paper focuses on studying how stakeholders are responding to the efforts being made to generate these additional revenues.

On January 19, 2006 Myles Brand, President of the NCAA, made the following statement about the state of NCAA sports:

“Those who claim that colleges and universities are making money hand-over-fist on college sports are dead wrong. There are more than a thousand universities and colleges in the NCAA in three divisions. Perhaps there is an exception or two, but the only ones who have an opportunity to conduct their athletics programs in the black are in Division I Of those approximately 350 schools, about a quarter of them say that they are at least breaking even. However, if you do a full accounting, and include all the subsidies, for example, from student fees, and all the costs assumed by the universities, for example physical plant maintenance and debt service, my educated guess is that less than 25, and maybe less than a dozen, universities are actually operating in the black and even those are not clearing very much!” (<http://www.doubleazone.com/2006>)

The purpose of this study is to understand and discover the stakeholder response to how advertising in these venues impacts these stakeholders within the college athletic arena. In essence, to take knowledge as represented by past studies and theory development, apply current experience in order to produce an outcome that will lead to useful information. This case study will aid in determining the impact of athletic outsourcing, and the impact the proliferation of sports marketing has on stakeholders, and stakeholder behavioral intentions. Do stakeholders perceive the economic-minded actions taken by the universities as helpful or harmful to the enjoyment of the game?

Burden and Ming Li (2003) state, “With rising expenses and profits falling, most athletic departments are experiencing difficulty trying to maintain their programs. In addition, the expectation of the athletic programs to be self-supporting has added more burden to their financial struggle” (p. 75). This burden has forced athletic departments to seek out sponsors and embrace the corporate model to generate needed revenues. More and more, athletic departments are focusing on executing pure economic strategy with their captive audiences. “...athletic departments behave in ways that enhance their ability to be self-supporting and that maximize their profits” (p. 76).

Much of this *commercialization* has come via the selling of university rights. These rights range from TV, licensing, naming, radio, and marketing rights. Within the athletic umbrella, many university marketing departments are understaffed and manage a tremendous workload. By selling specific rights, a university can receive guaranteed money (with additional bonus money depending on how the financial agreements are negotiated), additional staff and support without any additional cost, and can alleviate a significant amount of work from their day-to-day activities. In effect, the marginal benefit (the increase of benefit seen per each additional unit of output or activity) of selling the rights outweighs the marginal cost (the

increase in cost per each additional unit of production or output or activity) of continuing to manage these rights in-house and with a limited staff. Thus, by selling the marketing rights athletic departments can increase significantly the amount of revenue or benefit, while maintaining or even eliminating the costs associated with keeping the marketing rights in-house. The outsourcing of these rights to professional entities has become a common option for universities in the recent years. Li and Burden (2002) concluded that: "...more than half of the NCAA Division I athletic programs have exercised the outsourcing option for their marketing operations either partially or entirely" (p. 8).

Even in the wake of a bad economy, the college athletic environment has seen the impact of outsourcing sports marketing rights generating millions of dollars into their respective institutions. For example, Georgia Tech recently signed a 10 year partnership with ISP Sports, which guarantees \$50 million to the athletic department over that period of time. Additionally, Georgia Tech will receive a revenue sharing incentive, which means the school will make more revenue based on the health of sponsorship sales for the university.

The Collegiate Bowl Championship Series (BCS) recently landed a huge upsale. ESPN won a bidding war over FOX for the marketing rights of the elite and very lucrative football bowl broadcast rights. Previously, the rights were netting \$82.5 million per year. The new deal with ESPN, reported in the New York Times on November 19, 2008, will bring a jaw-dropping \$125 million per year through the year 2014. Again, even in the face of hard financial times, the industry of sports marketing, while certainly not immune to financial woes, seems to be able to continue to grow. Sports marketing is an emotional business, and as history shows—a very profitable one. According to *Street & Smith's Sports Business Journal*, over \$27 billion dollars are spent in sports advertising each year. This trend has only increased over the last several

decades. Sports sponsorship provides corporations with powerful platforms in which they can roll out marketing campaigns with great economic success.

Problem Statement

In an effort to curb the continual rise in both educational and athletic program costs, universities have turned to the corporate world to generate revenue streams to bridge the cost gap. Early in the nineties, universities began to outsource these marketing efforts in order to seek more creative ways of producing revenue. Heywood (2001) described outsourcing as, “...the transferring of an internal business function or functions, plus any associated assets, to an external supplier or service provider who offers a defined service for a specified period of time, at an agreed but probably qualified price” (p. 27). Li and Burden (2002) concluded that, “...outsourcing can provide athletic departments with needed resources (personnel, professional expertise, economies of scale, etc.) to enhance revenue stream through program marketing” (p. 76).

As a result, event sponsorships and marketing have been ushered into athletic events to primarily raise capital for the athletic program, and to provide entertainment for the fans who attend these events. The careful balance between when enough is enough is continually vague. With so much at risk, each program must determine how to maximize revenue and how to include its publics (stakeholders) without offending them.

The need to generate revenue to fund programs and offset athletic expenses, while appealing key stakeholders, is a priority for athletic programs. Given the current state of the economic recession, there is an even greater need for athletic departments to remain financially viable, as well as establish programs that offset expenses. In effect, the best outcomes for universities include targeted marketing strategies designed to cater to vast, emotionally charged, and often demographically significant, university fans. If done successfully, the event

experience is more enjoyable for fans, results in better entertainment and significantly higher monetary gains. Examples of these corporate sponsorships include (but are not limited to) stadium signage, promotional events (including giveaway items, sponsored tailgate areas, in-game presentations to corporate entities, etc.), public address announcements, email blasts, radio rights, TV rights, and Internet marketing.

Purpose

This paper seeks to identify the corporate sponsorship efforts of three universities within the Mountain West Conference (who have all recently outsourced their marketing efforts), apply the tenets of stakeholder theory combined with the theory of planned behavior and attitude behavior consistency theory to identify how the stakeholders perceive these marketing efforts, along with their intentions based on these marketing efforts. The universities in this case study will include Brigham Young University (BYU), Texas Christian University (TCU), and the University of Nevada Las Vegas (UNLV).

Stakeholders for this case study will be the season ticket holders for each university. A survey was used to provide in-depth information and gain a general feel, or indication, of the effects of corporate sponsorships. As previously stated, in an effort to bridge the gap of rising program costs, universities have turned to the corporate world as a revenue source. This research will aid in determining if this effort is viewed positively or negatively by stakeholders as in the search for financial windfalls. This study will begin by reviewing literature involving theoretical development to use as a framework in guiding the research. Once the theoretical framework is established and the use of the theory explained, a review of relevant literature pertaining to the theory will be given to provide further knowledge and guidance in validating the study.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Stakeholder Theory

In 1912 Friedman (1970) proclaimed that corporations' sole social responsibility was to provide profit for the owners or shareholders. Since this proclamation, companies have come to evolve in their business practices to include much more responsibility than just profits. Social responsibility of the firm fluctuates between two areas: balancing the firm's responsibility to collect the greatest amount of profit for its shareholders, with the firm's responsibility to include a wide range of participants with an interest or "stake" in the firm. Adam Smith's 1937 identification of external interests to the firm may be viewed as an early recognition of stakeholders (Key, 1999). Freeman (1984) is credited for his work in developing greater understanding of the term *stakeholder*. His initial concept of a stakeholder involved support groups with links to organizations to such an extent, that if the support groups withdrew, the organization would cease to exist. Integration or convergence of stakeholder theory is imperative. Stakeholder theory by itself is not inherently predictive by nature. In its original state, stakeholder theory is mainly a social science platform for identifying those actors or groups which have power to affect the economic model of an organization.

Key (1999) adds: "Freeman in his 1984 work, *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach*, has done the most complete job of laying the groundwork for the development of stakeholder theory as a theory (p. 319)". Freeman endeavors to clarify that the firm is critically dependent in a very large part to its external environment (Key, 1999). This external environment is comprised of stakeholders and the firm must be cognizant of how its behavior is viewed by these stakeholders within this environment.

Donaldson and Preston (1995) (as cited in Jones & Wicks, 1999) reported that more than 100 articles and about a dozen books on the stakeholder concept had appeared in management literature alone. Stakeholder theory has been studied on various levels. Over the course of time, stakeholder theory was modified to more broadly include the *strategic management* of groups that can affect an organization. Carroll (1989) further developed the role of stakeholders by classifying two groups that management of companies should be aware of, and seek to influence—primary and secondary stakeholders. Primary stakeholders are those who have a direct contractually determined relationship while secondary stakeholders are those who do not have contractual ties to the company, but stand at its borders and are impacted by its decisions (1989). Podnar & Jancic (2006) added to this by categorizing stakeholders into four basic groupings; 1) shareholders, 2) internal stakeholders-employees, direct participants, etc., 3) operational partners-customers, suppliers, etc, and 4) social community-government, specialized organizations, etc. If the corporate manager looks only to maximize stockholder wealth, other corporate constituencies can easily be overlooked. Further Mayer stated: “In a normative sense, stakeholder theory strongly suggests that overlooking these stakeholders is unwise and ethically unjustified” (referenceforbusiness.com, nd, p.1). Scholl (2001), echoed Mayer in stating: “Most scholars agree that ultimately stakeholder theory relies on normative foundations (p. 10)”.

In recent years, stakeholder theory has become increasingly modified as scholars seek to define the theory more clearly. Friedman (2002) said: “As contributions to the stakeholder concept have grown, they have also become diffuse. Integration of separate methodological strands of stakeholder theory to achieve a convergent stakeholder theory, has been identified” (p. 2). Integration or convergence of stakeholder theory is imperative. As previously mentioned, stakeholder theory by itself is not naturally predictive. In its original state, stakeholder theory is

predominantly a social science platform for identifying those actors or groups which have power to affect the economic model of an organization.

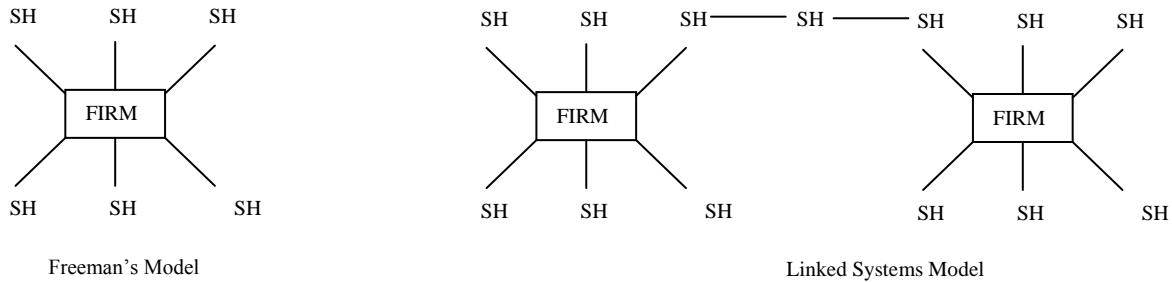
This begs the question, how does stakeholder theory apply to behavioral intention? Simply stated, this theory is arguably the base from which all persuasive messaging begins. Engaging in the persuasive process requires even the unsophisticated persuasionist to map out those to whom the persuasive message will go, how the message will be received and with what desired effect. One central purpose of stakeholder theory has been to enable managers to understand stakeholders and strategically respond to them, as explained by Frooman (1999), “The stakeholder approach is about groups and individuals who can affect the organization, and is about managerial behavior taken in response to those groups and individuals”(p. 191). When stakeholder theory is converged with complimentary theories, the end result is a model that allows for both identification of vested parties and a method for predicting outcomes.

Applications of the Convergent Theory

Initially, stakeholder theory was depicted by Freeman much like a wagon wheel: the organization, or firm, being the central part and spokes leading to the support groups being the vested interests. Although Freeman made considerations for both internal and external stakeholders, he incompletely addressed the linkages that can and do occur between stakeholders and organizations (Key, 1999). Modifications of stakeholder theory have involved the integration of some aspects of Bertalanffy’s General Systems theory, which considers systems, in this case organizations, to be independent yet interacting with each other (Key, 1999). By completed the potential linkages between these parties, reveals key stakeholders can be connected, or linked with other organizations based off their interactions with common shareholders. Figure 1 shows Freeman’s original stakeholder model vs. the Linked Systems

Model as portrayed by Key (1999). Stakeholders are defined by the initials “SH” and are representative of those who have vested interests in the organization.

Figure 1.



Using this information, application examples can be found that converge stakeholder theory with persuasive messaging to create significantly stronger relationships with stakeholders. One such example exists in Knox and Gruar (2007) convergence of the theories of stakeholder theory and relationship marketing. In this application, the study was developed to restructure the current strategy to more effectively meet the organization’s needs. Kotler and Armstrong (1999) are cited as saying: “Relationship marketing involves creating, maintaining and enhancing strong relationships with customers and other stakeholders” (p. 50). Kotler and Armstrong (1999) further state, “Relationship marketing is oriented towards the long-term...the measure of success is customer satisfaction.” (p. 50). Knox and Gruar (2006) “...contribute[s] to both stakeholder theory and relationship marketing practices through the application of an integrated model, which enables market strategy development” (p. 116).

Rawlins (2006) suggested prioritizing stakeholders via a four-step process. The first step would be to identify all potential stakeholders according to their relationship with, rather than to the organization. The second step involves prioritizing these stakeholders by attributes (these attributes were defined by Mitchell, Agle & Wood and are discussed further in this paper). The third step involves prioritizing stakeholders based on how they, as publics, will react (actively,

passively, or not at all) depending on organizational decisions. The fourth and final step would include prioritizing publics by developing communication strategies for stakeholders in their various stages of self-interest and engagement.

In connection with stakeholder theory, Knox and Gruar integrated Mitchell, Agle & Wood's (1997) model of stakeholder classification and saliency. They also used Coviello's (2002) framework of contemporary marketing practices. Mitchell et al (1997) model was used because of its strategy to focus on the "inside-out", or rather from the organization to the stakeholders. Frooman's (2006) model on dependency theory was not used because its focus was primarily from the "outside-in", or rather from the stakeholder to the organization. To begin the nine-month longitudinal study, two research objectives were identified: explore validity of the converged model in enabling managers to review their marketing strategy in the midst of shifting organizational goals. (The significance of this research objective is important as Freeman's stakeholder theory essentially holds the environment static.) And secondly, to better develop marketing strategies that are a better fit for the changing environment.

The application of converging stakeholder theory begins by determining who the stakeholders are. Rawlins (2006) states "...stakeholder theory focuses heavily on the importance of meeting the needs of all stakeholders, but does not tell anyone who the stakeholders actually are or how to identify them" (p. 2). Mitchell, et al (1997) accomplishes this by having a sample of senior management identify and prioritize who they considered to be top stakeholders according to stakeholder theory. Once this process was complete, each manager was asked to then rank each stakeholder by Mitchell et al (1997) saliency characteristics. This is a process by which stakeholders are prioritized according to certain attributes they hold. These attributes include: *Power*—relationship between parties in which one party can get the other party to do something they would not otherwise do; *Legitimacy*—a generalized perception or assumption

that the actions of a party are desirable, proper or appropriate within some socially constructed system; and *Urgency*—the degree in which stakeholder claims call for immediate attention (Mitchell, Agle, Wood, 1997).

This type of development and inclusion of stakeholder theory allows for the identification and recognition of the priority stakeholders. The cataloging of these stakeholders allowed for not only the influential parties to be addressed, but also classified according to their potential impact upon the organization. Inserting the work of Mitchell et al (1997) and Coviello (2002) took the blending of stakeholder theory and relationship marketing strategy to the next level. Mitchell's (1997) addition of saliency allowed for the identified stakeholders to be further understood by developing the type of influence to which each group would respond. Coviello's (2002) addition to this converged persuasive theory allowed for the comprehension of what type of market strategy would work for each group.

Theory of Planned Behavior

In 1980 Fishbein and Ajzen developed the theory of planned behavior. The basic tenets of this theory include human action being guided by three core variables: behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs. "In their respective aggregates, behavioral beliefs produce a favorable or unfavorable *attitude toward the behavior*, normative beliefs result in perceived social pressure or *subjective norm*; and control beliefs give rise to *perceived behavioral control*" (Ajzen, 2002, p. 1). All of these factors combine to initiate *intention*, which then leads to *behavior*. Generally speaking, people intend to perform a behavior when they evaluate it positively, when they experience social pressure to perform the behavior, and when they believe that they have the means and opportunity to do so. Fishbein and Ajzen's theory is put in action through either direct observation, or through self-reports. Self-reports are made reliable by utilizing three methods of questioning: exact numerical reports, rough numerical reports and

rating scales (2002, p. 3). For years, there existed two schools of thought concerning the elements that coincide with the initial studies revolving around behavior prediction, The Columbia School and the Michigan School.

The Columbia School of thought began with the work of Lazarsfeld, Berelson, and Gaudet (1944), and with the conclusion that behavior was a social characteristic, which in the case of voter preference (which was the topic of study within these schools) was considered the determining factor of how voters cast their ballots (Fishbein & Azjen, 1981). For example “...they argued that high socio-economic status (SES), affiliation with the Protestant religion, and rural residence predisposed a person to vote for the Republican party” (p. 254). Likewise, “low SES, Catholic affiliation, urban residence made for Democratic predispositions” (p. 255). The Michigan School of thought revisited the findings of the Columbia School in the 1950’s and found “...Columbia had produced low-level, time bound generalizations and pointed to number of cases in which earlier sociological propositions, as formulated, had become period pieces in the span of a few years” (Fishbein & Azjen, 1981, p. 257).

The Michigan School (Fishbein & Azjen, 1981) study found voting behavior was determined by “three partisan motivational orientations” (p. 257): Party identification, Issue partisanship, and Candidate partisanship. The Michigan School noted that over time, sociological circumstances can change, as can voting behavior (evidenced by election results). The important aspect introduced by this school of thought was the application of *strength* of the voter’s beliefs and attribute evaluations done through a free-response format. From these bodies of work, Fishbein and Azjen were able to include critical factors in bringing to pass their theory of planned behavior. For example, they were able to use the information gained from the Michigan School of thought to study strength of their behavior intention factors by including exact

numerical reports, rough numerical reports and rating scales. These determinant factors were included in self-report respondent research instruments to increase the reliability of the results.

This theory on behavioral prediction took root as an extension of Fishbein's 1967 developmental testing of Dulany's 1967 theory of propositional control through the background of the Prisoner's Dilemma study (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1970). Dulany's theory determined that: "...a person's behavior (B) is a function of his behavioral intention (BI) which is determined by his attitude toward the act (A-act) and by his beliefs about the expectations of the other player, i.e., social normative beliefs (NBs)" (1970, p. 466). Ajzen and Fishbein (1970) also identified three variables for the study as key components in determining behavioral intention, these variables included: "...attitudes toward the performance of the behavior, normative beliefs, [and] the weights of these predictors" (p. 468). This study was found to be highly successful in predicting the game behavior. As a result, "The cooperative behavior of players in two different Prisoner's Dilemma games were accurately predicted from expressed behavioral intentions" (p. 483). The significance of the study confirmed the variables impact upon predicting intention, which leads to behavior.

Perhaps one of the most poignant seminal studies concerning this theory stems from the study previously mentioned, and conducted by both Fishbein and Azjen regarding voting behavior. Clarifying their purpose for their study Fishbein and Azjen state: "The ultimate goal of the theory is to predict and understand an individual's behaviour. We make the assumption that most behaviors of social relevance are under volitional control and, consistent with this assumption, the theory views a person's intention to perform (or not to perform) a behavior as the immediate determinant of that action" (1981, p. 279). This initial theory was called *The Theory of Reasoned Action*. The application of this study covered sentiment that human behavior is goal-directed (Ajzen, 1985). Ajzen states, "the attitude towards a behavior is

determined by salient beliefs about that behavior” (1985, p. 13). The extension of the theory of reasoned action, planned behavior, differs “...in that it takes into account perceived as well as actual control over the behavior in consideration” (1985, p. 12).

A good example of this difference can be seen in the 1985 study on intention, perceived control and weight loss of undergraduate college women done by Schifter and Ajzen. In this study, the authors were able to predict successful weight loss based on high correlation coefficients. A questionnaire was administered to the research participants, which included averaging descriptive questions based 7-point scales of semantic differentials (identifying attitudes towards losing weight). Similar questions were averaged to assess subjective norms and perceived control beliefs. At the end of the six week study, the authors found that “...those women who strongly intended to lose weight and also believed they were capable of doing so were most likely to succeed” (Schifter and Ajzen, 1985, p. 850).

As consistent with the theory of planned behavior, the behavioral intention to lose weight was found to be a function of “...attitude towards weight reduction, subjective norm with respect to this goal, and perceived control over its attainment” (Schifter and Ajzen, 1985, p. 850). The biggest, or most telling factor in this study was that of perceived control. The successful participants had to feel they not only wanted to lose weight and felt that they should lose weight but also had to feel empowered and in control of the capability to lose weight. The attitude and subjective norm were key factors but not nearly as significant as that of the perceived control variable.

Ajzen’s theory of planned behavior is tested by computing scores for three specific behavioral indicators. A positive score will provide an indication towards the studied behavior, and a negative score provides an indication against the studied behavior. These indicators are broken into three calculations that are added together to arrive an overall behavioral intention

score. The first indicator is behavioral attitude—calculated by multiplying the strength (on a 1-7 scale) of a given belief with the perceived outcome of the belief (on a ± 3 scale). The second indicator is the social norm—calculated by multiplying the strength (on a ± 3 scale) of normative beliefs towards a given behavior with the individual motivation (on a 1-7 scale) to comply with the normative belief. The third indicator is perceived control—which is calculated by multiplying the perceived (on a 1-7 scale) belief with the perceived individual control (on a ± 3 scale) on accomplishing the belief.

A range can be calculated to determine a weak, moderate, or strong relationship (the more positive or negative the behavior intent score the stronger the relationship and attitude towards the given belief. The range is determined by multiplying the motivation factor by the perceived strength factor multiplied by the number of subset questions. For example, if four questions are asked for each subset the range would be as follows: 7 (the highest motivational factor) x ± 3 (the highest strength factor) x 4 (the number of subset questions) = ± 84 . Therefore, if a composite behavioral intention score yielded a +51 the relationship would be strong towards the behavior. A score of -3 would yield a weak negative relationship towards the behavior.

The easiest way to quantify Ajzen's theory in mathematical form is as: $BI = AB[(b)(e)] + SN[(n)(m)] + BC[(c)(p)]$ where the variables are defined as:

- BI : Behavioral intention
- AB : Attitude toward behavior
 - (b): the strength of each belief
 - (e): the evaluation of the outcome or attribute
- SN : social norm
 - (n): the strength of each normative belief

- (m): the motivation to comply with the referent
- BC : Perceived Behavioral Control
 - (c): the perceived strength the belief
 - (p): the perceived power of the control over the belief

Theory Integration

Combining stakeholder theory with the theory of planned behavior (TPB), enables identification of stakeholders and the ability to ascertain and potentially predict the behavioral impact sports marketing has on these audiences. As stated, Ajzen's theory "...can help to explain why advertising campaigns merely providing information do not work. Increasing knowledge alone does not help to change behavior very much. Campaigns that aim at attitudes, perceived norms and control in making the change or buying certain goods have better results" (http://www.valuebasedmanagement.net/methods_ajzen_theory_planned_behaviour.html).

Sports marketing has no doubt moved beyond just putting corporate signage in athletic venues. There is a distinct attempt now being made to create a connection with fans, and derive the loyalty fans associate with their athletic team towards the sponsors of those athletic teams. In this study, if the results of the TPB formula show a low score, negative attitudes are being created towards the sports marketing efforts being undertaken by the athletic departments. If the scores are high, then marketing efforts are producing the desired outcomes.

For the purpose of this study, Mitchell, Agle, and Wood's (1997) stakeholder prioritization model was used in connection with Rawlins' (2006) stakeholder prioritization model to determine why the season ticket holders were classified as the stakeholder with the most significant role in determining how NCAA programs use the outsourcing of marketing rights to maximize revenues. The first step is to identify all the stakeholders involved directly with the athletic departments. These stakeholders are listed as: athletic teams, coaches, athletic

administration, university administration, donors, sponsors, ticket holders, media, marketing rights holders, and alumni. Mitchell, et al (1997) differentiate what attributes each stake holder carries, namely between *power*-meaning the influence the stakeholder has on an organization to make decisions it would not otherwise have made, *legitimacy*-meaning actual claims, legal, moral or presumed a stakeholder can have on influencing a organization's behavior, and *urgency*-meaning the stakeholder's claim is time-sensitive and the relationship between the two is critical (Rawlins, 2006, p. 6).

Mitchell, et all (1997) list seven stakeholder classifications in order to allow for ranking stakeholders by priority based on their possession of the three previously listed saliency attributes. These characteristics are as follows:

1. Dormant—Posses **power**, but no legitimate claim or urgent need
2. Discretionary—Posses **legitimacy**, but not power or urgency
3. Demanding—Posses **urgency**, but not legitimacy or power
4. Dominant—Possess both **power and legitimacy** and therefore influence
5. Dependent—Possess both **legitimacy and urgency** but not power
6. Dangerous—Possess both **urgency and power** but not legitimacy
7. Definitive—Possess **power, legitimacy and urgency**, commands immediate management attention.

Out of the listed stakeholders ticket holders can be classified as a definitive stakeholder, as they possess all three attributes of power, legitimacy and urgency. Ticket holders possess power in their ability to influence other parties, (current or potential ticket holders and donors). They possess legitimacy because as they exercise their financial muscle they have the ability to influence the athletic department's actions. They possess urgency, as it relates to the timeliness of ticket renewals, which happen each year and for each ticketed sporting event. Ticket holders

evaluate their expenditure for tickets and balance that expenditure against the perceived benefit/entertainment value of their athletic experiences.

As this study seeks to determine the predictability of behavior based on the response towards increased marketing efforts, only those stakeholders who place a legitimate stake upon the revenue generations of the athletic departments were considered, or *utilitarian* power holders, as Etzioni (1964) would classify them. In this case, out of the stakeholders who would be classified as definitive stakeholders, the ticket holders wield the biggest proverbial *carrot*. As of February 2009, season ticket holder revenues amongst the participating schools averaged 33%, by far the largest piece of the revenue generating operations as reported by athletic administration personnel (personal interviews, February 2009). For this reason, the season ticket holders have the biggest *investment* as to how they are utilized by the athletic departments during athletic events.

Corporations are spending increasing amounts of capital every year in sports. A major reason for this spending can be summed up by a study done by Stotlar and Johnson (1989) concerning the effectiveness and impact of stadium advertising and marketing done in NCAA Division I athletics, which in essence, says the majority tends to notice advertising. Further, Moore, Pickett, and Grove (1999) conclude that sponsoring university athletics can create a tremendous amount of goodwill, and "...a substantial portion of home team fans appear to have willingness to patronize sponsors" (p. 453). In fact, "Over 60 percent of individuals [studied] agreed that they were more likely to patronize sponsors" because of the sponsor's affiliation and support of the university.

In addition, Turley and Shannon (2000) studied the impact and effectiveness of advertisements in sports arenas. In this study, three focus points were used as a guide: first, how extensive is recall of advertisements by fans; second, does the advertising influence purchasing

decisions; and third, what effect is there on actual purchasing behavior of fans. This study revealed 70 percent of the research participants were able to correctly identify university sponsors. In fairness, the study also shows that as the amount of advertisements increased, recall was negatively affected. The influence advertising made on purchasing intention was discovered to be a positive correlation between a university sponsor's advertising message and the intention to patronize that sponsor, and those who attended the sporting events reported they were more likely to actually purchase from a sponsor because of the advertising message presented at the sporting event (Turley & Shannon, 2000). However, with the desire and need to maximize revenues, the question of numerous advertising messages creating clutter, or the sum of non-programming components, or sporting events, must be addressed (Brown & Rothschild, 1993).

Dees, Bennett, and Villegas (2008) studied the effectiveness of attitude toward sponsors, goodwill and the impact sponsorships have within the college football experience. They concluded that if sponsors could create a positive attitude towards the sponsor by tying into the football experience and athletic department, this positive attitude would lead to higher influence in purchasing intention (2008). The end result is the selling of more products, which in turn creates a stronger relationship between the sponsor, the athletic department, and the fans. This development of a strong positive attitude towards a sponsor is identified by Meenaghan (2001) as *goodwill*. In effect, "sponsorships serve, not only to benefit the contributing organization, but also to promote the event where the sponsorship takes place" (Dees, et al, 2008, p. 82).

Ha and Litman (1997) studied potential advertising clutter and the question of clutter creating diminishing returns. Although their work is mainly focused on the impact of advertising messages on broadcast and editorial mediums, their findings are applicable to this study. When thoughtfully considered, university sporting events, because of their strong audience following

and participation act identically and, in fact, are a medium for messaging. The event itself can be considered the editorial content, and the advertising messaging considered in much the same way, a revenue model to promote sponsoring parties to captive audiences. In their research, they identified three dimensions of clutter: quantity, competitiveness, and intrusiveness (p. 31). They defined these dimensions further as first, “quantity of clutter refers to the amount of advertising space in a medium” second, “competitiveness refers to the degree of similarity and proximity of the advertisements”, and third, “intrusiveness is the degree to which the advertisements interrupt the flow of [an event]” (p. 31).

The economic law of diminishing returns, states: “...the relationship between marginal input and marginal output will be more than proportional at the initial stage, but after a certain point, with all other inputs held constant, the marginal product of each unit of input will drop as the amount of the input increases” (Ha and Litman, 1997, p. 32). Further, a proportional relationship exists between advertising clutter, the primary desired product (event, or medium), and revenues. “Clutter is desirable initially because it provides strong advertising revenues along with strong [medium] growth; yet when the advertising clutter exceeds a certain threshold...support begins to decline” (Ha and Litman, 1997, p. 32-33).

Ferrand and Pages (1999) have stated “Image can direct both behavior and communication activity as it works towards the establishment of a common vision... in a given social or cultural group”. In regards to athletic organizations they have stated, “We can conclude ... that a sporting organization, as a social object or phenomenon embodies a stock of image capital” (p. 389). It would thereby follow suit logically that companies wishing to align themselves with the image capital produced by sporting organizations would chose to participate in the sponsorship opportunities of that athletic organization. The research outcomes of the Ferrand and Pages (1999) study revealed image and association of this affective symbolic

presentation by the sport administration to the fan-base were fundamental to sponsorship. The sponsors, when connected to this association are able to align themselves with that same image and project this to the participants with great effect. The net effect of the research proves that a carefully developed marketing strategy can both positively promote increased image of the sport and impact fan behavior in regard to the sponsor's advertising message. Or, in other words, "sponsorship derives its energy from the emotional involvement in an event, a team or a sports star" (p. 395).

Meir, Athur, Tobin and Massingham (1997) view sponsorship as a distinctive approach organizations use to reach potential customers from targeting this select market. Additionally, they present a comparison to the advertising campaigns in which sport sponsorships are a time-saving and cost saving alternative to larger advertising investments. Through studying the planned behavior of the most significant stakeholders (ticket holders) belonging to these universities, the perceived benefit of the increased marketing efforts can be deemed effective or problematic by creating potentially negative, unintended outcomes.

Research Purpose

Fishbein and Ajzen's theory of planned behavior will be applied to this study to answer the following research questions:

RP1: How does stakeholder perception relate to sports marketing at athletic events of these schools?

RP2: How do behavioral beliefs on sports marketing differ from normative beliefs on sports marketing?

RP3: Are purchasing intentions higher or lower as a result of increased marketing efforts at sporting events?

Chapter 3

Methodology

Subjects

As described in the introduction, the universities in this study were selected based on their recent outsourcing of the university's athletic marketing efforts within the last three years. These three universities, BYU, TCU and UNLV belong to the ISP Sports Network, which operates as the nation's largest collegiate sports marketing rights holder. BYU sold its game-day event marketing rights at the beginning of the 2006-2007 athletic seasons, as did TCU. UNLV sold its rights at the beginning of the 2007-2008 athletic seasons. The subjects or stakeholders for this study will be represented by the season ticket holders of each of these universities. In selecting these universities, the availability of the information, execution of the research instrument and cooperation of the universities was made possible by the employment of the author of this paper's employment by the ISP Sports Network.

Instrumentation

A self-report survey was the primary research tool used in the data collection. This questionnaire consisted of 39 questions (see Appendix A). Response bias occurs when a question contains a leading opinion and is most present with how questions are worded. In addition, response bias can occur when the respondents are not representative of the focus population. Response bias for this study was addressed by incorporating Ajzen's guidelines for question types for TPB analysis, namely behavioral beliefs, normative beliefs, and control beliefs. Likert scale, demographic classifiers and additional perception questions were included as part of this survey. These questions were used to compile an aggregate indication towards behavioral intention as well as gain an understanding to the overall effectiveness of the expanded marketing strategies of the respective athletic departments included in the study.

Reliability and Validity

The study was designed to measure the constructs of attitude behavior, perceived normative beliefs and perceived behavioral control pertaining to ticket holders of three athletic departments in response to the outsourcing of the athletic marketing rights. After changes were made from the initial pilot sample data, which was developed by modifying example questions given by Ajzen's questionnaire samples, as well as questions taken from a survey done by the NFL regarding sponsorships, a copy of the survey instrument was sent to two committee members for review to establish validity. Corrections and recommendations by these committee members were reflected in the final exploratory research instrument.

Behavioral Beliefs

As defined, behavioral beliefs are those considerations that are held by the subject concerning the likelihood of the outcome. For this segment of the research, the statements and questions include:

1. Purchasing a product or service from an official athletic sponsor makes me more or less likely to be connected to the University.
2. Would you be more or less likely to purchase a product or service if it is from an official athletic sponsor?
3. Would you be more or less likely to *regularly* consume a product or service if it is an official sponsor of the athletic department?
4. I feel more or less likely to appreciate the sponsor information I receive during a sporting event.
5. Attending home games on a regular basis will influence the products or services I purchase.

6. Attending home games on a regular basis will improve my opinion of the team and their sponsors.

Normative Beliefs

Normative beliefs are those thoughts or values held by the subject that pertain to the expectations of others and the motivation to comply with these beliefs. The statements and questions used for this portion of the research will include:

1. When I see an advertisement during a game, I have the intention of purchasing the product sometime after the game.
2. When I see an advertisement during a game, I feel influenced by those advertisements.
3. Purchasing a product of service from an official athletic sponsor connects me to the university.
4. The sponsors of athletic events expect me to purchase their products or services.
5. The university athletic team I support expects me to purchase products or services from the companies who sponsor the athletic events.
6. The university expects me to attend athletic events regularly as a way to feel more connected to them and their sponsors.

Control Beliefs

Control beliefs are those beliefs held by the subject as to any factors that may facilitate or impede the performance of the behavior. The statements and questions used for this portion of the research will include:

1. I expect ads to make the game longer.
2. I expect ads to interrupt playtime of the game.
3. I expect ads to distract me from the game.

4. High demand by athletic departments for sponsorship revenue will make the game longer.
5. High demand by athletic departments for sponsorship revenue will make the ads interrupt the playtime of the game.
6. High demand by athletic departments for sponsorship revenue will make the games become distracting because of ads.

Additional Informative Questions

Additional questions put forth in this survey will be used to garner descriptive information such as age, gender, and region of the country where the subjects reside. Behavioral intention questions will also be included to use a test against the data to confirm the results or to identify any inconsistencies.

Data Collection and Analysis

Stakeholders, as defined by stakeholder theory, can be identified and classified most robustly in this study as season ticket holders of athletic events. Each university in this study has access to the mailing and email listings of these stakeholders. This questionnaire was sent out to the identified stakeholders over the course of three weeks. Descriptive statistics were collected and discriminant analysis will be used to analyze the relationship between the variables. Finally, Ajzen's mathematical analysis will be applied to determine behavioral intent based on the information provided. As explained earlier, Ajzen's theory is represented in mathematical form as: $BI = AB[(b)(e)] + SN[(n)(m)] + BC[(c)(p)]$.

For the purpose of this research, the formula will be used as follows:

$$AB = (Q1 \times Q4) + (Q2 \times Q5) + (Q3 \times Q6)$$

Where AB= total attitude score
Q1, Q2, Q3 = scores for the three questions relating to behavioral beliefs (b) and calculated on a scale of 1-7.

Q4, Q5, Q6 = scores for the three questions relating to the strength of outcome evaluations (e) and calculated on a scale of 1-7, then recoded to a scale of ± 3

$$SN = (Q1 \times Q4) + (Q2 \times Q5) + (Q3 \times Q6)$$

Where SN= total social normative belief score
Q1, Q2, Q3 = scores for the three questions relating to the strength of each normative belief (n) and calculated on a scale of 1-7, then recoded to a scale of ± 3
Q4, Q5, Q6 = scores for the three questions relating to motivation to comply (m) and calculated on a scale of 1-7

$$BC = (Q1 \times Q4) + (Q2 \times Q5) + (Q3 \times Q6)$$

Where BC= total behavioral control score
Q1, Q2, Q3 = scores for the three questions relating to behavioral control (c) and calculated on a scale of 1-7
Q4, Q5, Q6 = scores for the three questions relating to the strength of outcome control (p) and calculated on a scale of 1-7, then recoded to a scale of ± 3

Because each composite score is the aggregation of several hundred surveys, rather than just one individual survey, the mean is used to represent the sample for each behavioral indicator subset, and then rounded to the nearest whole number.

Chapter 4

Results

The results as provided in this section contain the aggregated findings per each question asked. These results are provided in a categorized order similar to the methodology section, and as outlined by Ajzen's conceptual questionnaire description. The first will be the behavioral belief question results, followed by normative beliefs, and concluded by control beliefs.

Initially, over 100,000 email invites were sent via the online survey software Qualtrics. However, shortly after these invites were sent, a request was made by one of the participating schools to clarify two of the survey questions. As a result, the original survey had to be discarded. Upon making the requested changes, a much smaller section of season ticket holders who had not received the previous survey invite was sent the invitation. The concern with resending the invite to the whole list again was the potential to offend season ticket holders with repeated requests. This sample consisted of 14,000. Of those who received the survey, 836 took the survey within one week of the invite for a response rate of 5.9 percent. The average response rate for an online survey with no incentive according to PeoplePulse (2010) is under 10 percent. The response rate for this survey would be considered within this expectation. Given more time to participate in the survey, the potential survey rate could have increased.

Behavioral Belief Results

Attitude towards a behavior is a combination of behavioral beliefs about the subject matter and evaluations of potential outcomes determining the overall connectivity of fans, university athletics and corporate sponsors, with regard to this research. As such, attitude was measured as Σbe , where b represents behavioral belief toward connectivity between fans, university athletics, and corporate sponsors and e represents the perceived strength of the

outcome evaluations toward the connectivity between fans, university athletics, and corporate sponsors.

Behavioral belief, b , is measured in the survey instrument on a scale of 1 less likely to 7 more likely. The mean of each question was calculated to return an aggregated score for each question. The mean was rounded to the nearest whole number. Questions 1, 2, and 3 represent behavioral subset b of the equation.

Outcome evaluations, e , are assessments of the goodness or badness of the potential outcomes and were measured on a scale of 1 less likely to 7 more likely. For analysis, outcome evaluations were recoded to -3 extremely negative to +3 extremely positive to determine the positive or negative belief (Ajzen, 2006). Questions 4, 5, and 6 represent the outcome evaluations, or subset e of the equation.

The composite attitude score for each respondent was calculated as Σbe , and ranges in total score value from -63 to +63 (a score of seven from subset b , multiplied by positive or negative three from subset e multiplied the number of question for each subset, or three; thus, $7 \times 3 \times 3 = 63$.) **Positive** values represent favorable attitudes toward the connectivity between fans, university athletics, and corporate sponsors while **negative** values represent unfavorable attitudes toward the same grouping. The strength of the attitudes can be derived from the range, which can be weak, moderate, or strong depending on the composite score.

Calculating behavioral belief.

1. Purchasing a product or service from an official athletic sponsor makes me more or less likely to be connected to the University.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics of behavioral question 1 data.

Statistic	Q1
Mean	2.37
Variance	1.04
Standard Deviation	1.02
Total Responses	793

Table 2

Responses collected for behavioral question 1.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Less Likely					More Likely	
Q1 Responses	19	611	100	18	15	16	14

The mean of the responses is 2.37, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 2.

2. Would you be more or less likely to purchase a product or service if it is from an official athletic sponsor?

Table 3

Descriptive statistics of behavioral question 2.

Statistic	Q2
Mean	4.52
Variance	0.94
Standard Deviation	0.97
Total Responses	793

Table 4

Responses collected for behavioral question 2.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Less Likely					More Likely	
Q2 Responses	7	16	21	397	249	74	29

The mean of the responses is 4.52, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 5.

3. Would you be more or less likely to regularly consume a product or service if it is an official sponsor of the athletic department?

Table 5

Descriptive statistics of behavioral question 3.

Statistic	Q3
Mean	4.61
Variance	0.92
Standard Deviation	0.96
Total Responses	792

Table 6

Responses collected for behavioral question 3.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Less Likely					More Likely	
Q3 Responses	15	15	21	258	410	53	20

The mean of the responses is 4.61, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 5.

4. I feel more or less likely to appreciate the sponsor information I receive during a sporting event.

Table 7

Descriptive statistics for behavioral question 4.

Statistic	Q4
Mean	3.29
Variance	0.97
Standard Deviation	0.99
Total Responses	792

Table 8

Responses collected for behavioral question 4.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Less Likely					More Likely	
Q4 Responses	15	130	341	252	31	14	9
Recoded Values	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

The mean of the responses is 3.29, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 3. By recoding the response categories to a scale of -3 to 3 (this is done to measure the strength of the outcome belief), and applying the mean of the responses to this recoded scale the numerical representation is a -1.

5. Attending home games on a regular basis will influence the products or services I purchase.

Table 9

Descriptive statistics for behavioral question 5.

Statistic	Q5
Mean	3.41
Variance	1.18
Standard Deviation	1.09
Total Responses	793

Table 10

Responses collected for behavioral question 5.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Less Likely					More Likely	
Q5 Responses	15	140	300	210	104	20	4
Recoded Values	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

The mean of the responses is 3.41, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 3. By recoding the response categories to a scale of -3 to 3 (this is done to measure the strength of the

outcome belief), and applying the mean of the responses to this recoded scale the numerical representation is a -1.

6. Attending home games on a regular basis will improve my opinion of the team and their sponsors.

Table 11

Descriptive statistics of behavioral question 6.

Statistic	Q6
Mean	4.55
Variance	0.93
Standard Deviation	0.96
Total Responses	792

Table 12

Responses collected for behavioral question 6.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Less Likely					More Likely	
Q6 Responses	2	27	69	232	368	87	7
Recoded Values	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

The mean of the responses is 4.55, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 5. By recoding the response categories to a scale of -3 to 3 (this is done to measure the strength of the outcome belief), and applying the mean of the responses to this recoded scale the numerical representation is a 1.

Calculating the composite score for behavioral belief is done using the equation $AB = (Q1 \times Q4) + (Q2 \times Q5) + (Q3 \times Q6)$

Where AB= total attitude score

Q1, Q2, Q3 = scores for the three questions relating to behavioral beliefs (b)

Q4, Q5, Q6 = scores for the three questions relating to the strength of outcome evaluations (e)

Inputting the calculated results: $AB = (2 \times -1) + (5 \times -1) + (5 \times 1)$, or $AB = -2$. With an overall range of ± 63 , behavioral beliefs represent weak, unfavorable attitudes toward the connectivity between fans, university athletics, and corporate sponsors.

Normative Belief Results

Normative beliefs are a combination of social beliefs and the motivation to comply with those beliefs, and are measured as Σnm , where n is normative belief strength and m is motivation to comply (Ajzen, 2006). Normative belief strength, n , is an evaluation of the referent group's attitude toward the current sports marketing efforts and was measured in the survey on a scale from 1 to 7. For analysis, normative belief strength is recoded into a scale ranging from -3 to +3 (Ajzen, 2006). Normative believe motivation, m , is an evaluation of the social perception of the current sports marketing efforts and based on a scale of 1 to 7. Questions 1, 2, and 3 represent the normative subset n of the equation. Questions 4, 5, and 6 represent the motivational outcomes, or subset m , of the equation. The composite attitude score for each respondent was calculated as Σnm , and ranges in total score value from -63 to +63 (a score of -3 to +3 from subset n , multiplied by a score of 1-7 from subset m multiplied the number of question for each subset, or three; thus, $3 \times 7 \times 3 = 63$.) Positive values represent a perception that the stakeholder group would approve of the sports marketing efforts, while negative values represent a perception that the stakeholder group would not approve of the sports marketing efforts. The strength of the attitudes can be derived from the range, which can be weak, moderate, or strong depending on the composite score.

Calculating normative beliefs.

1. When I see an advertisement during a game, I have the intention of purchasing the product sometime after the game.

Table 13

Descriptive statistics of normative question 1.

Statistic	Q1
Mean	3.84
Variance	0.92
Standard Deviation	0.96
Total Responses	793

Table 14

Responses collected for normative question 1.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	
Q1 Responses	2	48	262	259	211	7	4
Recoded Values	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

The mean of the responses is 3.84, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 4. By recoding the response categories to a scale of -3 to 3 (this is done to measure the strength of the normative belief), and applying the mean of the responses to this recoded scale the numerical representation is a 0.

2. When I see an advertisement during a game, I feel influenced by those advertisements.

Table 15

Descriptive statistics of normative question 2.

Statistic	Q2
Mean	3.14
Variance	0.65
Standard Deviation	0.81

Total Responses	793
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Table 16

Responses collected for normative question 3.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	
Q2 Responses	17	135	387	232	21	1	0
Recoded Values	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

The mean of the responses is 3.14, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 3. By recoding the response categories to a scale of -3 to 3 (this is done to measure the strength of the normative belief), and applying the mean of the responses to this recoded scale the numerical representation is a -1.

- Purchasing a product or service from an official athletic sponsor connects me to the University.

Table 17

Descriptive statistics of normative question 3.

Statistic	Q3
Mean	3.09
Variance	1.89
Standard Deviation	1.37
Total Responses	790

Table 18

Responses collected for normative question 3.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	
Q3 Responses	115	123	308	108	99	26	11
Recoded Values	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

The mean of the responses is 3.09, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 3. By recoding the response categories to a scale of -3 to 3 (this is done to measure the strength of the normative belief), and applying the mean of the responses to this recoded scale the numerical representation is a -1.

- The sponsors of athletic events expect me to purchase their products or services.

Table 19

Descriptive statistics of normative question 4.

Statistic	Q4
Mean	5.55
Variance	1.53
Standard Deviation	1.24
Total Responses	793

Table 20

Responses collected for normative question 4.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	
Q4 Responses	9	17	24	67	210	290	176

The mean of the responses is 5.55, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 6.

- The university athletic team I support expects me to purchase products or services from the companies who sponsor the athletic events.

Table 21

Descriptive statistics of normative question 5.

Statistic	Q5
Mean	4.11
Variance	1.44
Standard Deviation	1.20
Total Responses	792

Table 22

Responses collected for normative question 5.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	
Q5 Responses	21	84	122	151	394	14	6

The mean of the responses is 4.11, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 4.

- The university expects me to attend athletic events regularly as a way to feel more connected to them and their sponsors.

Table 23

Descriptive statistics of normative question 6.

Statistic	Q6
Mean	4.52
Variance	1.10
Standard Deviation	1.05
Total Responses	793

Table 24

Responses collected for normative question 6.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	
Q6 Responses	15	16	21	378	245	89	29

The mean of the responses is 4.52, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 5.

Calculating the composite score for normative belief is done using the equation $SN = (Q1 \times Q4) + (Q2 \times Q5) + (Q3 \times Q6)$

Where SN= total attitude score towards normative behavioral beliefs

Q1, Q2, Q3 = scores for the three questions relating to the strength of normative behavioral beliefs (n)

Q4, Q5, Q6 = scores for the three questions relating to motivation to comply with normative behavioral beliefs (m)

Inputting the calculated results: $SN = (0 \times 6) + (-1 \times 4) + (-1 \times 5)$, or $SN = -9$. With an overall range of ± 63 , behavioral beliefs represent slightly weak, unfavorable attitudes toward the current sports marketing efforts being made by the athletic departments.

Control Belief Results

Control beliefs are those beliefs held by the subject as to any factors that may facilitate or impede the performance of the behavior and are measured as Σcp . Two key factors to control beliefs include self-efficacy and controllability (Ajzen, 1991). Self-efficacy, c , is the perceived strength of a behavior, or the ability to actually execute the belief. In this study, c represents the belief that the sports marketing efforts being undertaken by the athletic department is making a negative impact on the athletic games. Controllability, p , is one's perceived ability or limitations

affecting the ability to participate in the behavior. In the study, p represents the perceived ability to do anything about the impact upon the games.

Control belief survey questions for c were measured on a scale of 1 to 7. The mean of each question was calculated to return an aggregated score for each question. The mean was rounded to the nearest whole number. Questions 1, 2, and 3 represent control subset c of the equation.

The control belief survey questions for p were measured on a scale of 1 to 7. For analysis, perceived outcome ability was recoded to -3 to +3 to determine the positive or negative belief (Ajzen, 2006). Questions 4, 5, and 6 represent the perceived outcome ability, or subset p of the equation.

The composite control belief score for each respondent was calculated as Σcp , and ranges in total score value from -63 to +63 (a score of seven from subset c , multiplied by positive or negative three from subset p multiplied the number of question for each subset, or three; thus, $7 \times 3 \times 3 = 63$.) **Positive** values represent favorable attitudes toward the perceived impact the current sports marketing effort are having on athletic games while **negative** values represent unfavorable attitudes toward the same grouping. The strength of the attitudes can be derived from the range, which can be weak, moderate, or strong depending on the composite score.

Calculating control beliefs.

1. I expect ads to make the game longer.

Table 25

Descriptive statistics of control question 1.

Statistic	Q1
Mean	4.62
Variance	1.39
Standard Deviation	1.18
Total Responses	788



Table 26

Responses collected for control question 1.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree	
Q1 Responses	11	10	123	169	323	111	41

The mean of the responses is 4.62, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 5.

2. I expect ads interrupt playtime of the game.

Table 27

Descriptive statistics of control question 2.

Statistic	Q2
Mean	3.99
Variance	1.47
Standard Deviation	1.21
Total Responses	788

Table 28

Responses collected for control question 2.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree	
Q2 Responses	11	83	146	317	134	86	11

The mean of the responses is 3.99, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 4.

3. I expect ads distract me from the game.

Table 29

Descriptive statistics of control question 3.

Statistic	Q3
Mean	3.81
Variance	1.77
Standard Deviation	1.33
Total Responses	788

Table 30

Responses collected for control question 3.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree	
Q3 Responses	22	103	221	194	186	31	31

The mean of the responses is 3.81, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 4.

4. High demand by athletic departments for sponsorship revenue will make the game longer.

Table 31

Descriptive statistics of control question 4.

Statistic	Q4
Mean	3.09
Variance	1.69
Standard Deviation	1.30
Total Responses	788

Table 32

Responses collected for control question 4.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree	
Q4 Responses	57	246	195	213	35	23	19
Recoded Values	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3

The mean of the responses is 3.09, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 3. By recoding the response categories to a scale of -3 to 3 (this is done to measure the strength of the control belief), and applying the mean of the responses to this recoded scale the numerical representation is a 1.

5. High demand by athletic departments for sponsorship revenue will make the ads interrupt the playtime of the game.

Table 33

Descriptive statistics of control question 5.

Statistic	Q5
Mean	4.79
Variance	1.54
Standard Deviation	1.24
Total Responses	788

Table 34

Responses collected for control question 5.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree	
Q5 Responses	19	23	58	183	250	232	23
Recoded Values	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3

The mean of the responses is 4.79, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 5. By recoding the response categories to a scale of -3 to 3 (this is done to measure the strength of the control belief), and applying the mean of the responses to this recoded scale the numerical representation is a -1.

6. High demand by athletic departments for sponsorship revenue will make the games become distracting because of ads.

Table 35

Descriptive statistics of control question 6.

Statistic	Q6
Mean	4.67
Variance	1.66
Standard Deviation	1.29
Total Responses	735

Table 36

Responses collected for control question 6.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree	
Q6 Responses	12	44	76	137	264	179	23
Recoded Values	3	2	1	0	-1	-2	-3

The mean of the responses is 4.67, which is rounded to the nearest whole number, or 5. By recoding the response categories to a scale of -3 to 3 (this is done to measure the strength of the control belief), and applying the mean of the responses to this recoded scale the numerical representation is a -1.

Calculating the composite score for control belief is done using the equation $BC = (Q1 \times Q4) + (Q2 \times Q5) + (Q3 \times Q6)$

Where BC= total attitude score towards behavioral control beliefs

Q1, Q2, Q3 = scores for the three questions relating to the control beliefs (c)

Q4, Q5, Q6 = scores for the three questions relating to the strength and perceived ability to impact upon control beliefs (p)

Inputting the calculated results: $BC = (5 \times 1) + (4 \times -1) + (4 \times 1)$, or $BC = -3$. With an overall range of ± 63 , control beliefs represent slight, disagreement toward the current sports marketing efforts having a negative impact upon the athletic games and the perceived ability of the stakeholders to do anything about this impact.

Behavioral intention calculation results.

Once all the individual composite scores were obtained, the compilation of each area was calculated. The following paragraphs will show how the behavioral intention score was calculated.

$$BI = AB[(b)(e)] + SN[(n)(m)] + BC[(c)(p)]$$

$$AB = (Q1 \times Q4) + (Q2 \times Q5) + (Q3 \times Q6)$$

Where AB= total attitude score

Q1, Q2, Q3 = scores for the three questions relating to behavioral beliefs (b)

Q4, Q5, Q6 = scores for the three questions relating to the strength of outcome evaluations (e)

Therefore $AB = (2 \times 1) + (5 \times -1) + (5 \times 1)$, or $AB = -2$

$$SN = (Q1 \times Q4) + (Q2 \times Q5) + (Q3 \times Q6)$$

Where SN= total social normative belief score

Q1, Q2, Q3 = scores for the three questions relating to the strength of each normative belief (n)

Q4, Q5, Q6 = scores for the three questions relating to motivation to comply (m)

Therefore $SN = (0 \times 6) + (-1 \times 4) + (-1 \times 5)$, or $SN = -9$

$$BC = (Q1 \times Q4) + (Q2 \times Q5) + (Q3 \times Q6)$$

Where $BC = \text{total behavioral control score}$
 $Q1, Q2, Q3 = \text{scores for the three questions relating to behavioral control (c)}$
 $Q4, Q5, Q6 = \text{scores for the three questions relating to the strength of outcome control (p)}$

Therefore $BC = (5 \times 1) + (4 \times -1) + (4 \times 1)$, or $BC = -3$

Attitude Behavior is the result of sum total of belief strength (b) and evaluation outcome (e), or -2. This indicates that there exists a weak negative attitude towards how stakeholders believe they are expected to act towards corporate sponsors. Normative beliefs are the result of the sum total of the strength of the normative belief (n) and the motivation to comply (m) with the normative belief, or -9. This indicates a slight negative social normative belief to comply with the additional sports marketing efforts put in place. Behavioral control is the result of the sum total of perceived belief strength (c) and the perceived controllability (p) limiting the ability to participate in the behavior, or -3. This indicates a weak negative belief in the perception on the impact sports marketing has in games and the ability for the fans to do anything about it.

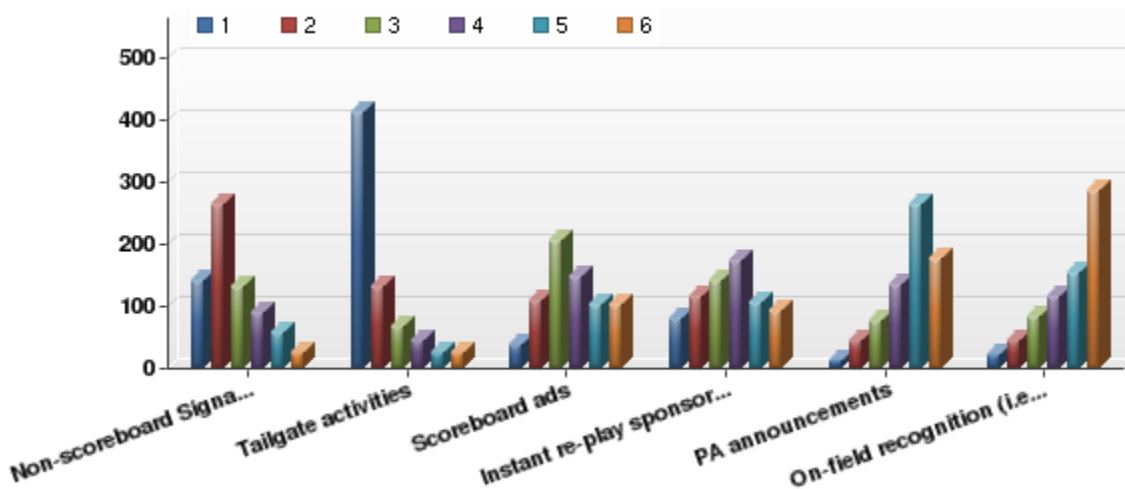
Behavioral intention is then calculated by summing the totals of each subset of the equation. The end result looks like this $BI = AB(-2) + SN(-9) + BC(-3)$. The behavioral intention point value is a resulting -14 with a possible range of ± 189 (cumulative range of each subset). This means the collective response is trending towards a slightly moderate negative stakeholder perception of the university marketing efforts. However, it should be noted that the majority of this value comes from the normative beliefs towards behavior. The respondents felt there was not a direct connection by the marketing efforts being undertaken by the athletics departments and the normative expectations they perceived are being placed upon them as a result. The other categories return weak negative responses closely aligned towards a non-opinionated stance given the effective range of ± 189 (the cumulative range of each subset).

Chapter 5

Discussion

Stakeholder Perception

This study shows that the marketing efforts being utilized by the athletic departments are trending downward, or in other words, having a slight negative impact upon the stakeholders. As previously discussed, the area of normative belief behavior is the most significant area, and should be used as a focus for future research. By studying the normative belief factors, athletic departments can actually quickly shift the tide towards a positive impact. One survey question in this study asked “Please rank the following options from 1 (being the BEST or least distracting) to 6 (being the WORST, or most distracting)”. Items listed were elements found in the sponsorship aspects during university athletic events. These items were: scoreboard signage/ads, non-scoreboard signage, tailgate activities, instant replay sponsors, PA announcements, and on-field recognitions (see Figure 2).



Statistic	Non-scoreboard Signage	Tailgate activities	Scoreboard ads	Instant replay sponsors	PA announcements	On-field recognition (i.e. sponsor recognition for donations)
Mean	2.63	1.90	3.66	3.54	4.59	4.69
Variance	1.81	1.84	2.02	2.34	1.53	2.01
Standard Deviation	1.35	1.36	1.42	1.53	1.24	1.42
Total Responses	712	712	712	712	712	712

Figure 2. Elements found in the sponsorship aspects during university athletic events.

Stakeholders feel there is negative trend in control with regard to their ability to impact the marketing actions of the athletic departments. One aspect for future study would be to research why these elements, as well as any additional elements, either distract or do not distract the stakeholders. Once there is a greater understanding of what the stakeholders enjoy and what they do not enjoy from the marketing efforts, the sales arms for these organizations can adjust how the marketing elements are sold to ensure that stakeholder interests are protected and the marketing efforts are not potentially adversely affecting sponsors or the athletic departments. An additional note would be the potential of creating cynical publics should the negative behavioral intention score trend from slightly moderate into the strong category. Publics and stakeholders trust businesses and organizations to do what is normatively perceived as what is right. When a business, or organization is viewed as totally consumed with its own benefit, and not wider public needs, the public is destined to become cynical towards that business or organization. In this instance, cynical publics will begin to act out against the athletic departments, their corporate partners. This would lead to a catastrophic financial crisis for the athletic departments.

Behavioral Belief vs. Normative Belief

Part of this case study was to identify how the stakeholders differed between their behavioral beliefs from their perceived normative beliefs. As was evidenced by the results, the respondents indicated they do not believe that purchasing a product or service from an athletic sponsor makes them more connected to their respective athletic universities. We can also see that when it comes to self-reporting, these same respondents are not more likely to purchase the products and services of those corporations who support the athletic departments of the teams for which they have an affinity. The overall cumulative score for the behavioral portion of the study was -2, meaning stakeholders have an adverse inclination towards how they perceive they are expected to act towards athletic corporate sponsors.

The normative belief portion of this study shows a true difference between the two categories. Normative belief questions focused on the respondent's perceptions of how others view they should act or believe coupled with the motivation to comply with those beliefs. There was a -9 composite score for this section. This means that those who took this survey felt there was a negative social normative belief and accompanying influence to comply with the marketing efforts that were being undertaken at sporting events. The most significant of these aspects involved the overall positive response where respondents felt the sponsors expected them to purchase their products or services as a result of the sponsor's participation with the universities.

The overall picture for these two categories shows that while participants have shown reluctance to embrace sponsors as a true connection to their favorite athletic teams, the expectation and motivation for fans to comply with the marketing efforts is being sensed and understood, but not accepted. As shown by the results, there exists a disconnection between the perceived actions of the stakeholders and the perceived expectations from athletic departments

(and corresponding marketing efforts). There is not a clear perceived willingness to support the companies who support the athletic teams, and the perceived motivation to comply with the expectations show the need for improvement. This data seems to be a departure from the published articles researched for this study, where previous studies indicated that fans were willing to support organizations that supported their team of choice.

Attitude/Behavior Consistency

Typically, attitudes will be a strong indicator towards behavior, as evidenced by Ajzen’s work. In this case study we would expect to find with a negative attitude behavior score, we would also find a negative response on the self reported question regarding patroning corporate sponsors. Based on the research we can see distinct relationships between the attitudes of the stakeholders and the behavior of the stakeholders. However, we do see some inconsistencies, for example when asked “Is it important for you to be aware of the companies sponsoring the athletic department at the school you support? Thirty-nine percent were neutral, and forty-five percent said “No”. However, when asked if they were “more or less likely” to purchase goods or services from a corporate sponsor” the response was thirty-two percent being neutral, and sixty-one percent saying they were more likely to purchase goods or services from corporate sponsors.

Table 37

Descriptive statistics of attitudes/behaviors.

Statistic	Attitude/Behavior
Mean	4.61
Variance	.92
Standard Deviation	.96
Total Responses	792

Table 38

Responses collected for attitudes/behaviors.

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attitude/Behavior	15	15	21	258	410	53	20

One limitation on this question that could be retested in future research would be the defining of the term “important” as asked in the first question. The term “important” can range in meaning from individual to individual. Notwithstanding the need for clarification on the relative term, there is certainly an interesting variance between the attitude towards the corporate sponsors and the desire to support their products or services.

Limitations

Limitations of this study include the self-written survey. The survey instrument used as the unit of measure was not a pre-existing and published study that had been approved over time via multiple testing uses. The survey itself being exploratory in nature, called for a unique application of the theory for which a search for survey instruments resulted in no prior study models. As a result, there are potential weaknesses, as evidenced by the need to clarify two questions at the onset of the study. An additional limitation included the timing of this survey. The initial desire was to contact all the stakeholders over a three-week period of time. However, once the initial survey was sent, clarifying questions were requested, which caused the survey to be changed and also cost an additional week of time. Hence, as the survey was adjusted and resent, there was a smaller population in which to send the questionnaire and the amount of time to collect the results was also impacted. This reduction in time to complete the study also had an impact on the number of respondents. Because this study was an exploratory case study, significance testing would not have been generalizable across the overall sports marketing population.

Conclusion

This paper sought to research the impact the recent trend in outsourcing marketing rights by university athletic departments has had among stakeholders. In this case study, Ajzen's theory of planned behavior was used to derive a composite score to test if behavior intention was high or low as a result of the increased marketing efforts. As previously discussed, the need to generate revenue to fund programs and offset athletic expenses is a priority for athletic programs. With the current economic recession, there is an even greater need for athletic departments to remain financially stable. Aside from ticket sales and donor clubs, marketing programs are seen as an established program capable of raising revenue stream to help offset expenses. There has been a national trend for athletics departments to sell off their marketing rights to organizations whose core competency resides in sports marketing. In turn this effort has provided guaranteed revenues without the expenditure of significant resources. In selling these marketing rights, the amount of sponsorships has increased. The push to increase revenues is a careful balancing act and careful consideration must be given to not offend the key stakeholders.

Using Ajzen's theory of planned behavior, we can determine if the marketing efforts are leading stakeholders towards a positive or negative intention with regard to the recently outsourced marketing efforts. What was discovered over the course of this case study was that a weak negative behavior intentions score means that the marketing efforts are not being viewed as abhorrently disastrous to the stakeholders. However, there is a slight concern that if the trend continues, negative consequences will be the end result. Appropriate action would be to further study *why* the stakeholders feel this way. Once this is understood additional measures can be taken to ensure stakeholders are not slighted in the pursuit of financial gains.

Future Research Ideas

Possible future continuations of this study would include analyzing the normative belief factors the stakeholders have. This study showed that stakeholders have the largest negative response concerning the perceived expectations of the athletic departments over the marketing efforts that are being presented to them at these athletic events. Further research would greatly aid in adding to the understanding of *why* there is a perceived lack of agreement between what the athletic departments believe their stakeholder ought to embrace and, and *what* can be done to create a better connection between the stakeholders and the athletic departments. Additionally, further research could be done to discover the types of marketing efforts being utilized and how the stakeholders would prefer to see these marketing efforts utilized to better integrate them into the athletic events. The lack of being able to generalize the results was previously listed as a limitation, as such, a further research area would be to develop the questionnaire, and apply the framework presented into a truly statistically significant research study.

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8. Would you be more or less likely to regularly consume a product or service if it is an official sponsor of the athletic department?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Less Likely More Likely

9. Please respond to the following statements

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree

- The sponsors of athletic events expect me to purchase their products or services.
- My friends or family members expect me to purchase products or services from the companies who sponsor the athletic event.
- The university athletic team I support expects me to purchase products or services from the companies who sponsor the athletic event.

10. Please respond to the following statements

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Strongly Disagree Strongly Agree

- Purchasing a product or service from an official athletic sponsor connects me to the University
- The university expects me to attend athletic events regularly as a way to feel more connected to them and their sponsors.

11. Please respond to the following statements

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Less Likely More Likely

- Attending home games on a regular basis will influence the products or services I purchase.
- Attending home games on a regular basis will improve my opinion of the team and their sponsors.
- I feel more or less likely to appreciate the sponsor information I receive during a sporting event.

12. Please respond to the following questions:

1 2 3 4 5
Never Always

How often do you feel irritated by the advertisements you see at a sporting event?
How often do you try to ignore the advertisements you see at a sporting event?

Appendix B

Survey Results

1. Which of the following would you consider to be your favorite college sport to watch?

	Answer	Bar	Response	%
1	Football	0.746411	624	75%
2	Men's Basketball	0.16866	141	17%
3	Other	0.084928	71	8%
	Total		836	100%
Statistic	Value			
Mean	1.42			
Variance	0.75			
Standard Deviation	0.87			
Total Responses	836			

2. During an average season, how often do you attend the home games?

	Answer	Bar	Response	%
1	Rarely	0.021583	18	2%
2	Some home games	0.139089	116	14%
3	Most home games	0.342926	286	34%
4	All home games	0.496403	414	50%
	Total		834	100%
Statistic	Value			
Mean	3.31			
Variance	0.62			
Standard Deviation	0.79			
Total Responses	834			

3. Please respond to the following statements:

	Question	1	2	3	4	5	Responses	Mean
	1	2	8	16	152	619	797	1.27
	2	20	91	161	330	197	799	2.26
	3	16	100	188	313	179	796	2.32
	4	2	19	39	284	450	794	1.54
Statistic	1	2	3	4				
Mean	1.27	2.26	2.32	1.54				
Variance	0.33	1.06	1.04	0.52				
Standard Deviation	0.57	1.03	1.02	0.72				
Total Responses	797	799	796	794				

4. The use of advertisements at sporting events makes me feel:

	Answer	Bar	Response	%
	1	0.046308	37	5%
	2	0.108886	87	11%
	3	0.574468	459	57%
	4	0.193992	155	19%
	5	0.076345	61	8%
	Total		799	100%
Statistic	Value			
Mean	3.15			
Variance	0.77			
Standard Deviation	0.88			
Total Responses	799			

5. Is it important for you to be aware of the companies sponsoring the Athletic Department at the school you support?

	Answer	Bar	Response	%
1	Yes	0.158291	126	16%
2	Neutral	0.393216	313	39%
3	No	0.448492	357	45%
	Total		796	100%
Statistic	Value			
Mean	2.29			
Variance	0.52			
Standard Deviation	0.72			
Total Responses	796			

6. Purchasing a product or service from an official athletic sponsor makes me more or less likely to be connected to the University.

Answer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Response
1	19	611	100	18	15	16	14	793
Mean	2.37							
Variance	1.04							
Standard Deviation	1.02							
Total Responses	793							

7. Would you be more or less likely to purchase a product or service if it is from an official athletic sponsor?

Question	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Response	Mean
	15	16	21	423	223	66	29	793	4.43
Statistic									
Mean	4.43								
Variance	1.03								
Standard Deviation	1.02								
Total Responses	793								

8. Would you be more or less likely to regularly consume a product or service if it is an official sponsor of the athletic department?

	Question	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Response	Mean
		15	15	21	458	210	53	20	792	4.35
Statistic										
Mean	4.35									
Variance	0.91									
Standard Deviation	0.95									
Total Responses	792									

9. Please respond to the following statements

Table	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Responses
1	9	17	24	67	210	290	176	793
2	15	50	73	109	302	152	91	792
3	21	84	122	151	394	14	6	792
Statistic	1	2	3					
Mean	5.55	4.83	4.11					
Variance	1.53	2.00	1.44					
Standard Deviation	1.24	1.42	1.20					
Total Responses	793	792	792					

10. Please respond to the following statements

Answer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Response s
1	115	123	308	108	99	26	11	790
2	15	16	21	378	245	89	29	793
Statistic	1	2						
Mean	3.09	4.52						
Variance	1.89	1.10						
Standard Deviation	1.37	1.05						
Total Responses	790	793						

11. Please respond to the following statements

Answers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Response s
1	15	140	300	210	104	20	4	793
2	2	27	69	232	368	87	7	792
3	15	130	341	252	31	14	9	792
Statistic	1	2	3					
Mean	3.41	4.55	3.29					
Variance	1.18	0.93	0.97					
Standard Deviation	1.09	0.96	0.99					
Total Responses	793	792	792					

12. Please respond to the following questions:

	Question	1	2	3	4	5	Responses	Mean
	1	69	187	332	144	52	784	2.90
	2	14	73	284	340	73	784	3.49
Statistic	1	2						
Mean	2.9	3.49						
Variance	1.03	0.73						
Standard Deviation	1.02	0.85						
Total Responses	784	784						

13. Please rank the following options from 1 (being the BEST or least distracting) to 6 (being the WORST or most distracting) advertisements surrounding a game.

	Answer	1	2	3	4	5	6	Responses
	1	143	263	132	91	57	26	712
	2	414	133	68	44	27	26	712
	3	40	111	208	149	102	102	712
	4	81	117	143	173	106	92	712
	5	12	44	76	137	264	179	712
	6	22	45	85	117	155	287	712
	Total	712	713	712	711	711	712	
Statistic	1	2	3	4	5	6		
Mean	2.63	1.9	3.66	3.54	4.59	4.69		
Variance	1.81	1.84	2.02	2.34	1.53	2.01		
Standard Deviation	1.35	1.36	1.42	1.53	1.24	1.42		
Total Responses	712	712	712	712	712	712		

14. Please respond to the following statements on how advertisements effect your perception of a game:

Answer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Response s
1	11	10	123	169	323	111	41	788
2	11	83	146	317	134	86	11	788
3	22	103	221	194	186	31	31	788
4	57	246	195	213	35	23	19	788
5	19	23	58	183	250	232	23	735
6	12	44	76	137	264	179	23	788
Statistic	1	2	3	4	5	6		
Mean	4.62	3.99	3.81	3.09	4.79	4.67		
Variance	1.39	1.47	1.77	1.69	1.54	1.66		
Standard Deviation	1.18	1.21	1.33	1.30	1.24	1.29		
Total Responses	788	788	788	788	788	735		

15. I appreciate the information gained from advertisements during sporting events

	Answer	Bar	Response	%
1	Yes	0.263083	204	26%
2	No	0.736917	584	74%
	Total		788	100%
Statistic	Value			
Mean	1.74			
Variance	0.19			
Standard Deviation	0.44			
Total Responses	788			

16. Please respond to the following statements:

Answers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Response s
1	15	9	247	334	135	39	13	792
2	2	13	242	195	286	35	20	793
3	11	52	292	254	147	25	12	793
4	17	135	387	232	21	1	0	793
Statistic	1	2	3	4				
Mean	3.92	4.18	3.75	3.14				
Variance	1.04	1.13	1.14	0.65				
Standard Deviation	1.02	1.06	1.07	0.81				
Total Responses	792	793	793	793				

17. Please respond to the following statements:

Answers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Response s
1	2	48	262	259	211	7	4	793
2	202	247	144	100	95	5	0	793
3	11	98	334	294	51	3	2	793
Statistic	1	2	3					
Mean	3.84	2.56	3.37					
Variance	0.92	1.80	0.75					
Standard Deviation	0.96	1.34	0.86					
Total Responses	793	793	793					

18. Please choose the category that describes your age

	Answer	Bar	Response	%
1	18-25	0.428934	338	43%
2	26-35	0.068528	54	7%
3	36-45	0.115482	91	12%
4	46-55	0.387056	305	39%
5	56-65	0	0	0%
6	65+	0	0	0%
	Total		788	100%

19. Your gender:

	Answer	Bar	Response	%
1	Male	0.550251	438	55%
2	Female	0.449749	358	45%
	Total		796	100%

20. In what region of the country do you live?

	Answer	Bar	Response	%
1	East	0.075499	53	8%
2	South	0.059829	42	6%
3	Northwest	0.121083	85	12%
4	West	0.74359	522	74%
	Total		702	100%