An Examination of Consumer Perceptions of Sponsorship Authenticity Between a Major Beer Brand and Professional Women's and Men's Hockey Leagues

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An Examination of Consumer Perceptions of Sponsorship Authenticity Between a
Major Beer Brand and Professional Women’s and Men’s Hockey Leagues

by

Matthew Reid

A Thesis
Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies
through the Department of Kinesiology
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Master of Human Kinetics
at the University of Windsor

Windsor, Ontario, Canada

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An Examination of Consumer Perceptions of Sponsorship Authenticity Between a Major Beer Brand and Professional Women’s and Men’s Hockey Leagues

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

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ABSTRACT

Alcohol sponsorship of women’s professional hockey in North America began in 2019, yet men’s professional hockey has received financial support from alcohol brands for decades. The purpose of this thesis was to examine consumer perceptions of sponsorship authenticity as they relate to beer sponsorship of professional men’s and women’s hockey leagues. Moreover, this study examined the differences of gender on perceptions of authenticity towards the two alcohol and sport sponsorships, as well as two correlations: first, between alcohol consumption and sponsorship authenticity, and second, between attitudes towards alcohol sponsorship and sponsorship authenticity. A quantitative, cross-sectional design was utilized, and its sample consisted of Amazon’s Mechanical Turk (MTurk) workers who identified as being legal drinking age in Canada. Respondents were randomly assigned one of the two real sponsorships, which involved the same beer brand, they were prompted with a basic image and brief description of the sponsorship case, and this was then followed by a questionnaire. Results determined that consumers perceived the alcohol sponsorship involving the men’s professional league to be more authentic than alcohol sponsorship involving the women’s league. Regarding gender, males perceived the alcohol sponsorship with the men’s league to be more authentic than its sponsorship with the women’s league, but females exhibited no differences in their perceptions between the two sponsorship cases. A correlation between alcohol consumption and perceived sponsorship authenticity did not exist, while a correlation was found between attitudes towards alcohol sponsorship and perceived sponsorship authenticity.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY ........................................................................ iii
ABSTRACT ........................................................................................................ iv
LIST OF TABLES ................................................................................................ viii
LIST OF FIGURES ............................................................................................ ix
LIST OF APPENDICES ......................................................................................... x

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION ................................................................. 1
  Research Purpose ........................................................................................ 6
  Thesis Outline ............................................................................................... 6

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW ...................................................... 7
  Conceptualizing Sponsorship ....................................................................... 7
  Sponsorship Fit ............................................................................................ 10
  Authenticity .................................................................................................. 13
    Integrity ...................................................................................................... 19
    Credibility .................................................................................................. 20
    Continuity .................................................................................................. 21
    Symbolism .................................................................................................. 23
  Alcohol Sponsorship of Sport ..................................................................... 24
    Hypothesis 1: .......................................................................................... 27
  Attitudes Towards Sponsorship .................................................................. 27
  Attitudes Towards Alcohol ......................................................................... 29
    Hypothesis 2a: ........................................................................................ 30
    Hypothesis 2b: ........................................................................................ 30
Hypothesis 3a: ................................................................. 30
Hypothesis 3b: ................................................................. 30
Attitudes Towards Alcohol Sponsorship ........................................ 31
Hypothesis 4a: ................................................................. 32
Hypothesis 4b: ................................................................. 32

CHAPTER 3: METHODS ................................................................ 33
Participants and Data Collection .................................................... 33
Survey Instrument ........................................................................ 36
Horizontal Marketing Partnership Authenticity (HMP-A) Scale. ........ 36
General Questionnaire. ................................................................. 36
Data Analysis ............................................................................. 37
Context: A Brief History of Women’s Professional Hockey in Canada .... 38
Case Context: #ForTheGame .......................................................... 39

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS ............................................................... 42
Hypothesis 1 – Partnership Authenticity Differences ....................... 42
Hypothesis 2 – Authenticity and Gender .......................................... 44
Hypotheses 3 and 4 – Authenticity, Alcohol Consumption, and Attitudes Towards Alcohol Sponsorship .................................................... 45

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION ........................................................... 47
Hypothesis 1 ............................................................................... 47
Hypothesis 2 ............................................................................... 52
Hypothesis 3 ............................................................................... 53
Hypothesis 4 ............................................................................... 54
LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics.................................................................35
Table 2. HMP-A Factor Scores and MANCOVA Results..........................43
Table 3. HMP-A Scores by League and Gender of Participants................45
Table 4. Correlation Table for PWHPA Responses.................................46
Table 5. Correlation Table for NHL Responses........................................46
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Estimated Marginal Means of Factor Scores Using Brief HMP-A Scale……..44
LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A ............................................................................................................. 87
Appendix B ............................................................................................................. 89
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In 2015, beer sponsorship of sport in the United States by three of the most prominent beer corporations, AB InBev, MillerCoors, and Heineken, was estimated between $505 - $520 million across professional sport (IEG, 2017). The investments are, in part, a financial connection that grants particular branding rights and a presence in the spectating experience and promotion alongside sport. However, these overwhelming investments by beer corporations are predominantly for men’s professional sports leagues. Historically, alcohol brands have been primary sponsors of men’s sports (Collins & Vamplew, 2002). According to a report from SportCal (2018), alcohol sponsorship of sport was estimated to be worth $764.5 million and a majority of it was invested into men’s professional sports teams, leagues, and events. The same cannot be said of women’s professional sports leagues. Arguably, one of the key areas in which women’s sports struggle the greatest is sponsorship and beer (or any alcohol) sponsorship of women’s sports is largely unheard of.

Sponsorship in women’s sports, although increasing in recent years, still lags far behind that of men’s sports. Part of the reason for the unbalanced corporate funding relates to the fact that women’s sports receive less media coverage, which translates to less exposure for sponsors (Caple et al., 2011). Australia’s free-to-air television news is comprised of 81% men’s sports coverage, while women’s sports received only 9% coverage, and the remaining percentages are attributed to other sports and mixed-gender sports coverage (Lumby et al., 2014) demonstrating the stretch of women’s sport exposure, and therefore women’s sport sponsorship, as a global issue. The low visibility
levels of women’s sports have led to low levels of public exposure to women’s sports, female athletes, the teams and leagues, and their successes, and consequently low sponsorship interest (Caple et al., 2011). One major reason for the lack of sport coverage, although somewhat related to the sport media commercial complex and women’s sports (Fink, 2015), is that there are so few professional sport opportunities for female athletes (Cooky & Labvoi, 2012; Szto et al., 2021). This is despite 84% of general sports fans being interested in at least one women’s sport, and of those interested 51% are male and 49% are female (Nielsen, 2018). It is argued that increasing the visibility of women’s professional sports may assist in building the case for future sponsorship growth in their industry (Lough & Greenhalgh, 2019).

Moreover, the messages in alcohol brand promotional campaigns are largely associated with traditional forms of masculinity and ways to be a man (Gee & Jackson, 2012; Strate, 1992). For example, American beer brand Budweiser has long been associated with imagery of the frontier, rugged landscapes, Clydesdale horses, and the men who work hard on the land as farmers and outdoorsmen. Budweiser has a deep portfolio of (present and past) sport sponsorship, including: the NFL, MLB, MLS, the men’s USA hockey team, approximately 60 collegiate sports teams, golf tournaments, various types of auto racing events, and more (IEG, 2018). Taken together, the relationship between alcohol sponsorship and men’s sports is viewed as natural, interdependent, and an essential stronghold, while alcohol sponsorship of women’s sports is both uncommon and peculiar (Gee, 2021). Despite some progress towards equal support from sponsors and government funding, professional opportunities for female athletes remain insufficient (Szto et al., aop).
Beyond the disparate gender support by alcohol manufacturers, alcohol sponsorship of sport is rife with debates about the (in)appropriateness of alcohol being associated with sport. A number of studies investigating alcohol sponsorship of sport have uncovered a range of issues, including: strengthened brand affiliation for alcohol through the popularity of sport (Kelly & Ireland, 2019); awareness, preference, and consumption patterns of embedded advertisements (Kelly & Van der Leij, 2021); consumption of alcohol at an earlier age (Brown, 2016); hazardous drinking practices (O’Brien et al., 2014); increased crime and violence (Alcohol and Public Policy Group, 2010; Casswell & Thamarangsi, 2009); public health concerns (Palmer, 2011); attitudes towards brands (Biscaia et al., 2013); and gender norms and promotional culture (Gee & Jackson, 2010, 2012; Wenner & Jackson, 2009). With the primary context for many of these studies being men’s sports, a question remains of whether the same perceptions or outcomes are evident of alcohol sponsorship of women’s sport. This is largely unknown because alcohol sponsorship of women’s sport is in its infancy (e.g., Gee, 2021; Lough & Greenhalgh, 2019).

Since its inception, women’s sport has struggled for legitimacy. Research that explores the ways in which women experience gender discrimination in sport, including: fewer opportunities to participate (Szto et al., aop); less media coverage and exposure (Caple et al., 2011); unequal pay and other funding (Lough & Greenhalgh, 2019; Szto et al., aop); a lack of professional contracts and leagues (Cooky & Lavoi, 2012); funding and underrepresentation of women in leadership positions (Pfister & Radtke, 2009); and inequitable access to facilities (Szto et al., aop). But this is not without also considering the current insurgence of attendance at women’s sports events, such as the 2019
Women’s soccer World Cup in France (Lange, 2020), and a growing interest to sponsor women’s sport by alcohol brands. For example, in 2019, Budweiser Canada partnered with the Professional Women’s Hockey Players Association (PWHPA) and released an advertisement entitled “This Game Is For Us All: #ForTheGame”. They further announced that Budweiser was committed to sponsor the PWHPA as a step towards rebuilding a future for the women’s game (PWHPA, 2019a). The overall message of the advertisement was that hockey is “for us all” and served to launch the #ForTheGame hashtag. In essence, the ad was a ‘call to arms’ of corporations to sponsor women’s professional hockey (PWHPA, 2019a), which is argued as increasingly important to sustain league development given that the collapse of previous women’s sports leagues was largely due to inadequate financing (Lough, 1995). The sponsorship between Budweiser Canada and the PWHPA marked a small step towards equal funding for women’s sport, but it is not without considering whether the sponsorship relationship is viewed favourably.

Firms that engage in sponsorship understand that they need to authentically engage with their partners and consumers (Cornwell, 2019) out of fears that their actions are considered exploitative for commercial sales objectives (Carrillat & D’Astous, 2012; Meenaghan, 2001a). Initially, sponsorship, unlike typical television advertising, aimed to project notions of goodwill that sponsors hoped to leverage for their brand (McDonald, 1991; Meenaghan, 1991, 2001a). But firms are now re-orienting their approach to sponsorship from former understandings of goodwill and philanthropic gestures to achieve brand authenticity (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019). Acting beyond the interest of commercial sales objectives is to be consumer-focused (Cornwell et al., 2005), which
differs from conventional evaluations that have relied on comparisons of the respective attributes of each brand in the partnership (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019). Sponsorship fit is one concept that utilizes an attribute comparison approach to capture the quality of two entities joining based on subjective assessments (Mazodier & Merunka, 2012; Olson & Thjømøe, 2011; Speed & Thompson, 2000).

Numerous studies have interrogated ‘fit’ between sponsor and sponsee as measured by consumer attitudes (Kim et al., 2015; Mazodier & Merunka, 2012; Olson, 2010; Olson & Thjømøe, 2011; Rifon et al., 2004; Woisetschläger et al., 2010). However, according to Charlton and Cornwell (2019), authenticity is distinct from fit. They state that fit “requires one to compare the attributes of each brand for signs of compatibility, and examination of authenticity focuses more on the relationship itself. Two partners need not fit in order to be authentic” (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019, p. 285). Authenticity is beyond traditional sources of meaning in the consumer context; it is based on identity-related consumption (Beverland & Farrelly, 2010). Communication of the relationship is suggested to become vital in the process to satisfy consumers’ perceptions of authenticity (Morhart et al., 2015), that is, for consumers to assess deeper meanings and an alignment of brand identities in sponsorship (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019). Moreover, joint activities can help to shift focus from a brand’s commercial intentions to the consumers’ self-defining pursuits (Gilmore & Pine, 2007). The public nature of partnerships with characteristics of authenticity is argued to be able to communicate motives, goals, and intent (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019).
Research Purpose

It is unknown whether beer sponsorship of women’s professional hockey is viewed as authentic in comparison to the taken-for-granted assumptions of beer sponsorship of men’s sport, and men’s hockey in particular. As such, the primary purpose of this thesis was to examine consumer perceptions of sponsorship authenticity as they relate to beer sponsorship of professional men’s and women’s hockey leagues (i.e., the NHL and PWHPA, respectively). Four individual hypotheses have been developed and are stated in the Literature Review.

Thesis Outline

Beyond this Introduction chapter, this thesis consists of five chapters. Chapter two examines the literature related to sponsorship, sponsor fit, authenticity, attitudes towards alcohol, attitudes towards sponsorship, and attitudes towards alcohol sponsorship. Chapter three details the methodology used in data collection and analysis. Chapter four describes the results in relation to each of the four hypotheses. Chapter five provides an in-depth discussion on the meaning behind this study’s findings. Finally, chapter six provides a summary, future directions, and describes the limitations of this study.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptualizing Sponsorship

For this research, sponsorship is defined by Lee, Sandler, and Shani (1997) as:
The provision of resources (e.g., money, people, equipment) by an organization
directly to an event, cause, or activity in exchange for a direct association (link) to
the event, cause, or activity. The providing organization can then engage in
sponsorship-linked marketing to achieve either their corporate, marketing or
media objectives. (p. 162)

Academics have examined sponsorship-linked marketing in a variety of settings and
claim that it is vital for the success of: social causes (Bednall et al., 2001; Bingham &
Walters, 2013; Swinney, 2008; Uhrich et al., 2014), the arts (Carrillat et al., 2008; Finkel,
2010; Schuster, 1997), fairs and festivals (Andersson et al., 2013; Anderton, 2011;
Ballouli et al., 2018; Hutabarat & Gayatri, 2014), and sport (Greenhalgh & Greenwell,
2013; Jensen et al., 2016; Kubacki et al., 2018). Research on sponsorship in the sport
industry has examined tactics employed by small businesses (Mack, 1999; Slack &
Bentz, 1996), national and global corporations (Amis et al., 1999), as well as non-profit
sport organizations (Berrett & Slack, 2001). Corporations wanting to use sport
sponsorships to leverage their brand are steadily increasing what they are willing to pay
to gain access to sport audiences (Meenaghan, 2013).

Globally, sport sponsorship was estimated to be worth $62.7 billion in 2017 (IEG,
2018). In the same year, spending by North American brands on sport sponsorship was
$23.1 billion (IEG, 2018). The popularity of sport sponsorship may be linked to the
global appeal of sport as an unpredictable form of entertainment (Meenaghan & O’Sullivan, 1999) and the availability to consume sport in most countries due to global media corporations (Hutchins et al., 2019). In North America, there are a range of sports teams, leagues, and events that allow brands to connect with sport consumers. The four major men’s professional sports leagues in North America experienced a growth of 4.3% in overall 2017 sponsorship spending (IEG, 2017). The National Football League (NFL) often attains the most sponsorship revenue of the four major sports leagues, and in 2017 it acquired $1.25 billion of corporate sponsorship revenue, while Major League Baseball (MLB) amassed $892 million, the National Basketball Association (NBA) acquired $861 million, and the National Hockey League (NHL) collected $505 million in sponsorship-related revenues (IEG, 2017).

Referring to Dee’s et al. (2022) marketing mix, the five P’s include product, price, promotion, place, and public relations and are manipulated by sport marketers for target markets. Subsequently, sponsorship is categorized within promotions as an element of the communications mix along with advertising, personal selling, sales promotions, and publicity (Mullin et al., 2007). Since sponsorship is a means to communicate the relationship and to perform joint marketing activities, sponsors and the sport property often work together to achieve shared marketing goals.

Dees et al. (2022, p. 246) provide a list of twelve objectives that justify why companies select sport sponsorship as part of their overall marketing strategy:

(1) brand awareness;
(2) image enhancement;
(3) market segmentation;
(4) community relations;
(5) goodwill;
(6) media benefits;
(7) showcase products and services;
(8) sales objectives;
(9) competitive advantage and exclusivity;
(10) hospitality;
(11) entitlement or naming rights; and;
(12) athlete endorsement.

Practitioners and researchers alike concern themselves with sponsorship to build the value of brands. Building brand equity in sponsorship can be achieved through brand image transfer (Smith, 2004), by leveraging the brand associations and mindfully communicating these to consumers (Aaker, 1992, 1996).

The difficulty for sport marketers is in managing how consumers perceive the sponsorship relationship and each brand therein (Farrelly et al., 2006). Consumer attitudes towards sponsors can be shaped by factors such as brand loyalty, brand awareness, brand associations, and perceived quality (Aaker, 1996). Literature has also revealed that brand recall and brand recognition can be influenced by brand placement in televised sporting events (Cornwell et al., 2005; McDaniel, 1999; Olson & Thjømøe, 2009; Olson, & Thjømøe, 2012; van Reijmersdal et al., 2007; Walsh et al., 2008).

According to Fullerton (2017, p.115), advantages of brand association in sponsorship include “credibility, image, prestige, internal morale, distribution rights, and access to a live audience.” Thus, with potent messaging incorporated into sponsorship-linked
marketing, attributes of one brand will enable a lift in brand equity in the other brand (Keller, 1993). Given that an eventual corporate motive in marketing efforts is to increase revenue, it is essential to understand antecedents of sponsorship-linked marketing that positively influence consumer purchase intentions of sponsored products or services. One of the most prominent antecedents in sponsorship literature about the quality of compatibility between sponsor and sponsored property is known as fit.

**Sponsorship Fit**

A number of researchers discuss the perception of fit in sponsorship using a range of terms including: fit, congruence, alignment, similarity, familiarity, symmetry, and acceptability, which has led to variations in determining a concrete definition (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Koronios et al., 2016; Mandler, 1982; Meenaghan, 2002; Olson & Thjømøe, 2011; Rifon et al., 2004; Speed & Thompson, 2000). Scholars remark that the perceived match of brand attributes can influence consumer response towards the sponsor’s attributes when there is a heightened belief that the sponsor “fits” with the sport property (Gwinner, 1997; Waite, 1979). However, when consumers perceive there to be a mismatch between sponsor and sport property, the sponsorship-linked marketing activities seem to produce lower brand involvement (McDaniel, 1999; Olson, 2010; Olson & Thjømøe, 2011). The construct of fit was derived to determine the strength of cohesiveness (Gwinner & Bennett, 2008) between brand associations that “should affect (1) how easily an existing association can be recalled and (2) how easily additional associations can become linked in the brand node in memory” (Keller, 1993, p. 7). Interestingly, if a sponsor utilizes communications, rather than a static advertisement,
then they may sway perceptions of fit through the articulation of marketing messages (Olson, 2010; Olson & Thjømøe, 2011; Speed & Thompson, 2000).

The notion of (in)congruence was first introduced by Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955) as the “congruity principle,” which is fundamental for explaining someone’s ability to learn by comparing the alignment of characteristics between two or more objects. An ability to predict shifting beliefs and attitudes towards the brands involved is of a particular interest in consumer perception research for sport sponsorship. The concept of sponsor fit concerns itself with the (dis)similarities between sponsors and properties and the positive (and negative) image transfers between brand entities from perceived characteristics and utility of products and services (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999). Some issues with sponsor fit are that it considers only the quality of image transference from the consumer-perceived brand association, and it lacks consideration of the relationship between two entities and characteristic alignment externally, that is, with the consumer (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019; Morhart et al., 2015). Corporations should not only view horizontal similarities between themselves and their marketing partners but also consider comparing their values with that of consumers (Belk, 1988; Gilmore & Pine, 2007).

A high degree of fit, or a strong alignment between commercial brand and sport property, is said to provide an ease of making connections between brand associations in consumers. Therefore, establishing an effective partnership leads to improving consumer perceptions of a brand that can further influence intentions to purchase a brand’s products or services (Kim et al., 2015; Mazodier & Merunka, 2012; Olson, 2010; Olson & Thjømøe, 2011; Rifon et al., 2004; Woisetschläger et al., 2010). Mandler (1982) argues
that the value of congruence between sponsor and property “gives rise to valuations of familiarity, acceptability, and a basic sense of liking” (p. 3). Empirical analyses on the predictability of congruence reveals greater receptibility of high-fit sponsorships due to a simplicity in cognitive processing for the consumer (Kim et al., 2015; Mazodier & Merunka, 2012; Olson, 2010; Olson & Thjømøe, 2011; Woisetschläger et al., 2010). Conversely, low-fit sponsorships, or pairings that are seemingly incongruent, would require extra processing and are therefore less likeable (Kim et al., 2015; Woisetschläger et al., 2010), due to the extra effort required by the consumer to mentally process the brand association (Cornwell et al., 2005).

All is not lost when sponsorships lack a high degree of fit. Literature on sponsorship (in)congruency (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Mandler, 1982; Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989, Olson, & Thjømøe, 2011; Rifon et al., 2004) and authenticity (Beverland & Farrelly, 2010; Charlton & Cornwell, 2019; Joo et al., 2019; Morhart et al., 2015) argues that there are possibilities for dissimilar and complex brand associations to effectively generate positive emotions in consumers (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989). According to Mandler (1982) and Meyers-Levy and Tybout (1989), incongruency in advertising can be slightly more effective than congruent pairings. When a sponsorship is paired with a prominent event (Speed & Thompson, 2000), or if the sponsorship-linked communication is creative or funny (Masterson, 2005), incongruent pairings can outperform congruent ties. Moreover, Meyers-Levy and Tybout (1989) found that producing brand recall indicates that “evaluation is enhanced only when increased thought leads to resolution of the incongruity” (p. 52). By resolving the connection of a moderately unfit sponsor and property pairing it is thought to be
rewarding (Mandler, 1982; Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989); however, extreme incongruity should be avoided on the grounds that in order to resolve the brand association consumers can experience overbearing cognition (Meyers-Levy & Tybout, 1989).

In its application, fit is a subjective assessment of similarity, compatibility, or congruity (Mazodier & Merunka, 2012; Olson & Thjømøe, 2011; Speed & Thompson, 2000). However, Charlton and Cornwell (2019) argue that sponsorship fit is weak and ambiguous in determining the compatibility of partners due to increased persuasion knowledge (Friestad & Wright, 1994). Persuasion knowledge refers to a possible reduced effort by the consumer needing to be persuaded to believe their team receiving corporate support is good because their sport team may stand to benefit from it with the increased knowledge and comfortability from the increasing commercialization of sport (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019). Moreover, there is the added notion that partners need not be similar or dissimilar to be effective (Carrillat et al., 2010; Olson, 2010). From these arguments, researchers and practitioners cannot presume favourable consumer attitudes of the sponsorship relationship from fit alone (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019). Thus, authenticity is essential in marketing for group acceptance (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019).

**Authenticity**

Rather than focusing on signs of compatibility, Charlton and Cornwell (2019) argue that the Perceived Brand Authenticity (PBA) scale differs because it concentrates on the relationship itself and has predictability power for consumer acceptance. Authenticity is argued to be distinctly superior to fit because it includes the two elements, perceived sponsor credibility and altruism, which have shown to moderate effects of fit (Rifon et al., 2004). Partnerships engaging in corporate social responsibility (CSR)
receive positive feedback from consumers and are perceived as credible and altruistic regardless of the strength of fit (Rifon et al., 2004). A study on authenticity in brand extensions has demonstrated consumer feelings of legitimacy and regional relevance (Spiggle et al., 2012). Strengthening the usefulness of authenticity as a new construct, studies on brand extensions uncovered the presence of legitimacy and cultural continuity as further attributes of perceived authenticity (Spiggle et al., 2012). According to Gilmore and Pine (2007), authenticity in marketing follows as the latest in the natural progression that “in industry after industry, in customer after customer, authenticity has overtaken quality as the prevailing purchasing criterion, just as quality overtook cost, and as cost overtook availability” (p. 5). Additionally, brand strategy research recognized sincerity as existing within authenticity (Beverland, 2005) and cause-related marketing established the notion of sincerity in fit (Becker-Olsen et al., 2006).

Trilling (1972) conceptualizes sincerity as the consideration of any material to be pure when symmetry is achieved between self-identity and society, and when an individual’s challenge of that relationship succeeds in alignment the material is signalled as authentic. From Trilling’s concept, objects are categorized simply as either being authentic or fake. Yet researchers have defined authenticity in three ways. Two understandings that are similar to, but distinct from, one another are “indexical” and “iconic” authenticity (Grayson & Martinec, 2004). Categorizing an item as the original, rather than its copy, is known as “indexical authenticity” (Grayson & Martinec, 2004; Trilling, 1972). Perceived “iconic authenticity” appears in manufactured items that resemble their original and are considered authentic reproductions (Grayson & Martinec, 2004). A third definition is Handler and Saxton’s (1988) authentic experience, that is
“achieved in the practice of living history, is one in which individuals feel themselves to be in touch both with a ‘real’ world and with their ‘real’ selves” (p. 283). This means that existential authenticity is the form that emerges from an object or brand’s ability to act as an identity-related source (Morhart et al., 2015). Emerging from those definitions are three lenses through which consumer involvement with authenticity has been acknowledged by the literature: objectivism, constructivism, and existentialism (Berger, 1973; Grayson & Martinec, 2004; Leigh et al., 2006; Morhart et al., 2015; Stern 1994). Research suggests that authenticity is established on self-examination; humans look for what they believe is real within themselves and within their environment, and as a result they use their beliefs to direct daily decisions. Lifestyle choices, such as interacting with a company that aligns with a person’s subjective identity, are persuaded by how true, genuine, or authentic a company may be (Morhart et al., 2015).

Through each lens, an individual can define instances of authenticity and occurrences of fabrication. Within objectivism, Trilling postulated that an item is deemed authentic through its creation and is indexically distinguished as genuine; just as in art, which the final object can communicate pleasant or unpleasant emotions of the artist, created by the sum of their intentional brush strokes (1972), which consumers believe are cues for its originality. A constructivist authenticity is based on the social or personal perception of the “the real world”, known as iconic authenticity (Grayson & Martinec, 2004) or “commercially created authenticity” (Stern, 1994). An example of constructivist authenticity would be Mickey Mouse, an authentic cartoon character to early motion pictures and cultivated as a symbol for the Disney brand. Existentialists base the articulation of authentic cues upon an individual’s sense of self-identity, what they
believe is their place in society, and by how they project themselves into the world (Berger, 1973), by what people believe to be human, what it means to be happy, and what it means to be oneself (Steiner & Reisigner, 2006, p. 300). The interaction between all three of these philosophical lenses led to Morhart et al.’s (2015) conceptualization of perceived brand authenticity. In essence, Morhart et al.’s (2015) conceptual framework aligns with the objectivist lens indexical cues (i.e., evidence-based brand characteristics), the constructivist lens iconic cues (i.e., impression-based brand characteristics), and existential cues (i.e., self-referential brand characteristics) as drivers of PBA. As Morhart et al. (2015) assert:

Brand continuity is conferred through an objectivist lens when the brand creation date served as an indexical cue, through a constructivist lens when a consumer formed an overall impression of brand continuity from the brand’s imagery or design, or through an existential lens when consumers referred to the brand’s connection to their childhood and feelings of nostalgia. (p. 203)

The inclusion of all three lenses is important because they are intertwined and each provides input on conferring brands as authentic (Morhart et al., 2015).

Researchers examining brand marketing have analyzed authenticity in various contexts, with some studies offering differences in their conceptualizations. Authenticity has been discussed in relation to many fields of consumer research, including: commercial branding (Morhart et al., 2015), underdog branding (Siemens et al., 2020), family firms (Lude & Prügl, 2018), brand extensions (Spiggle et al., 2012), corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Alhouti et al., 2016; Joo et al., 2019), as well as celebrity endorsements, co-branding, cross-marketing, joint-sales promotions, product placements,
and sponsorships (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019). The scant literature about authentic sponsorships has provided some direction with the perceptions of stadium naming rights deals being largely viewed as commercially motivated (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019). Because the consumer understanding of authenticity consists of “both objective (real) and subjective factors (stylized or fictional)” (Beverland, 2005, p. 257), sponsors can downplay the sense of profiteering when mass marketing of the brand is rejected. This is accomplished when producers of marketing content highlight a brand’s “moral core” (Beverland & Farrelly, 2010) through a commitment to social causes, traditions, and fictional stories linked to their past (Beverland, 2005).

Given that authenticity has been analyzed several different ways by many researchers, there have also been multiple definitions in its various applications. Morhart et al. (2015) initially created a working multi-dimensional Perceived Brand Authenticity (PBA) scale, one that has been confirmed as valid and reliable, that includes the following dimensions: integrity, credibility, continuity, and symbolism. It has provided the foundation for much of the academic discussion about authenticity. Both Spiggle et al.’s (2012) specific authenticity measure for brand extensions and a uni-dimensional authenticity scale based on successful CSR programs created by Alhouti et al. (2016) are largely unused, mainly because they lack generalizability. Joo et al.’s (2019) study on CSR programs re-directed research to the scale by Morhart et al. (2015), but in the metric’s application it had been re-formulated specifically for CSR situations. Therefore, their scale is impractical in a sponsorship context. Further, it has been noted that to measure the authenticity of a sponsorship is to capture an evaluation of qualities of the relationship between the partners (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019).
Despite sponsorship authenticity having a focus on the relationship as a single entity, each corporation that enters a sponsorship comes with their independent reputations. Therefore, there is a concern on how these reputations link with consumer perceptions and the pre-conceived attitudes towards each brand (Moulard et al., 2014). Yet, authenticity in marketing relationships, such as sponsorship, differs from that of each individual brand’s authenticity. Since the activities of sponsorships are performed in tandem, they are also exposed to consumer perceptions, and can be judged on their meaningfulness together, as one (Olson, 2010). Overall, the reputation of individual brands can impact a relationship but is mainly determined by the least authentic brand (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019).

Corporate brands have realized the usefulness of genuine cues to signal an authentic experience in consumer minds (Beverland, 2005; Beverland et al., 2008; Charlton & Cornwell, 2019; Leigh et al., 2006; Morhart et al., 2015). Authentic branding can establish richer brand association knowledge, strength, and favourability towards customer-based brand equity (Keller, 1993). Given that the perceived brand authenticity (PBA) scale by Morhart et al. (2015) was developed for usage with single brands, its functionality with sponsorships is questionable. This thesis uses Charlton and Cornwell’s (2019) adaptation of Morhart et al.’s (2015) PBA scale, one that centres on the sponsorship relationship between brands (described by Charlton and Cornwell as Horizontal Marketing Partnership Authenticity), where integrity, credibility, continuity, and symbolism are examined as key dimensions. These dimensions and their relevance to sponsorship are discussed further in the following paragraphs.
**Integrity**

The integrity dimension “signifies the moral purity and responsibility of the brand” (Morhart et al., 2015, p. 203). This includes the notion that a brand expresses virtuousness by remaining true to their morals (Beverland & Farrelly, 2010). For example, in 2021, the Canadian grocery corporation, Empire, partnered with the Canadian Olympic Committee and donated pre-loaded ‘athlete grocery cards’ to support qualified athletes (Canadian Olympic Committee, 2021). Companies that take responsibility for their brand are considered to be much more than their products or services because they (1) have values and (2) behave in accordance with those values, thus demonstrating altruistic rationales (Beverland & Farrelly, 2010) for entering sponsorship agreements. Due to the bilateral nature of a partnership, either brand can affect the other. In the earlier example about the Canadian grocery store corporation supporting Canadian athletes, the sponsor’s brand follows its core values to nourish Canadians (Canadian Olympic Committee, 2021) by not only providing tangible support towards Canadian athletes, but also remaining connected to communities by nourishing those individuals that represent Canada on an international stage. Moreover, firms that are wishing to improve consumer attitudes by demonstrating integrity in their business practices may be faced with disloyal consumers if their claims fail to actualize. Though corporations may advertise that they operate on, or have certain strategic goals set on, a morally obligated baseline, authentic sponsorships are contingent upon the realization of their claims, otherwise fans believe they have been betrayed by the sponsor or advertising parties (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019).
This element is of interest given the continued debates about the appropriateness of alcohol sponsorship of sport (Casswell & Maxwell, 2005; Gee, 2020; McDaniel et al., 2001). Current sport sponsorships with beer brands are argued to be as controversial (and as morally irresponsible) as sport sponsorship deals with tobacco products in the 1980s and 1990s (Crompton, 1993). The controversial nature of alcohol sponsorship of sport is premised on the promotion of their brands like soft drink and fast-food companies (Peluso et al., 2019), while ignoring negative consequences related to alcohol consumption (Crompton, 1993). Yet, consumers who feel a strong connection with a sports team may feel that their team’s controversial sponsor’s moral appropriateness is irrelevant because of the perceived positive external benefits to the local community, for example financial investments (Peluso et al., 2019).

**Credibility**

The credibility dimension is based on being trustworthy and exhibiting accountability. Morhart et al. (2015) conceptualize the credibility dimension as “the brand’s transparency and honesty toward the consumer, as well as its willingness and ability to fulfill its claims” (p. 202). For example, in the surfing, snowboarding, and skateboarding sub-cultures consumers respond differently towards sport-related brands when they stick to or diverge from their core values and become more commercialized (Beverland et al., 2006). The literature on the delivery of promises and building brand reputation largely focuses on individual brands not sponsorship relationships. However, research examining credibility in CSR initiatives reveals that corporations must achieve the trust from employees and consumers through their overall business practices (Rifon et al., 2004). For instance, Kerdpitak et al. (2019) found that marketing communications for
green products builds credibility through focused efforts to protect the environment. Yet, a commitment to the environment by using less packaging was judged to be authentic because consumer expectations are satisfied (Kerdpitak et al., 2019). In that case, through concern for the environment, deliberate corporate actions aligned with consumers’ values and promises by the corporation were not betrayed (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019;Morhart et al., 2015). On the other hand, scandalous business practices, such as embezzlement and fraud, can stir mistrust in consumers, impacting corporate finances and brand reputation (Rifon et al., 2004). Research on advertisements has highlighted the possibility of changing the cognition of consumers towards sponsors when their motives and credibility are communicated (Rifon et al., 2004). Provided with longer term sponsorship agreements, the recognition, recall, and reputation of a brand is likely to be supported by repeat reminders of the partnership’s meanings, objectives, or achievements to instill perceptions of credibility (Walraven et al., 2014). Furthermore, Beverland’s (2006) research discovered that certain cues helped to determine what made some brands subjectively more authentic: when they remain truly linked to the sport, if their products are the best or perform as intended, or by what the reference group uses or wears.

**Continuity**

The continuity dimension refers to a brand’s unyielding personality through time. The perpetuity of a brand was asserted by Morhart et al. (2015) as the “timelessness, historicity, and its ability to transcend trends” (p. 202). This understanding of continuity parallels earlier research by Beverland (2005), who concluded that production practices, ensuring stylistic consistency, and appearing above commercial considerations proved to enhance the value of a brand. Charlton and Cornwell (2019) discuss Dale Earnhardt Jr.
retiring from NASCAR and his Nationwide insurance sponsorship that had been
cultivated over his career in the sport, as a moment for the relationship to adapt, but
continue. Although a one- or two-year sponsorship agreement may be beneficial for
initiating continuity of brand associations within sports (Cornwell et al., 2013), this is
now considered a short-term plan and produces minimal benefits. As previously stated, a
longer-term brand association increases brand recognition and recall (Cornwell et al.,
2013; Walraven et al., 2014). This opens the possibilities to combat waning brand
associations with additional consumer interaction opportunities (Walraven et al., 2014),
and for repeated activations for brand associations to develop brand recall (Cornwell et
al., 2013). As Nationwide continued the relationship with Dale Earnhardt Jr. beyond his
professional career in the sport, this preserved the brand’s image and longevity.

Brands that can manifest what Beverland (2006) refers to as “pedigree” are those
that are associated with higher quality because they have had the time to cultivate a
record of high performance. The focus in sponsorship is the shift to long-term
relationships. Although successful relationships with sport organizations can be short, if
it is not communicated to consumers strategically, the establishment of brand recognition
will be weak (Cornwell et al., 2013). Demonstrated best through a collection of
coordinated short-term investments by the partners of the sponsorship, displays of
commitment from long-term sponsorship organizations can establish an understanding
between one another, build trust, and enhance brand recall (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2005;
Nufer & Bühler, 2010; Walraven et al., 2014). Likewise, it is important to consider the
role of continuity in new sponsorship agreements in terms of perceptions of authenticity.
Symbolism

Iconic brands hold symbolism for individuals and are naturally recalled (Cornwell et al., 2013). Brand elements in memory are characterized as symbolism by Morhart et al. (2015) and are the “brand’s potential to serve as a resource for identity construction by providing self-referential cues representing values, roles, and relationships” (p. 203). Using freedom of expression, individuals potentially choose to attend events or select products that are consistent with or reflect their personal identity (Belk, 1988; Close et al., 2006). For example, in a study that asked a runner about Reebok, the participant responded that the brand fits in with their lifestyle and is a symbol of their vitality, independence, and self-efficacy (Fournier, 1998). In essence, the cultural meaning moves between the constituted world, the consumer good, and the individual consumer (McCracken, 1986).

Undoubtedly, sport sponsorships capitalize on consumer identities as fans of sports teams, leagues, events, and athletes. Sponsorships seek to “borrow and build” identity-brand symbolism as a derivative of the relationship between sponsor and sponsee (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019). When consumers identify with a charity the sponsoring organizations also benefit because they are seen to align with existing feelings of identification (Cornwell & Coote, 2005). Fahy et al. (2004) argue that when there is collaboration and production of inimitable resources (tangible or intangible), such as iconic symbols, both the sponsor and sponsored property can achieve a competitive advantage. When brands are highly iconic, they “carry a heavy load for consumers” because they have the “power to connect diverse elements of cultural knowledge and can act as reminders of culturally relevant values and beliefs” (Torelli et al., 2009, p. 109).
While many brands aim to employ this strategy, consumers (with their own experiences and knowledge) may perceive the messages or make the symbolic connections differently.

In summary, these four dimensions can help to articulate the authenticity of a brand pairing or sponsorship relationship. In a commercial sense, understanding and applying the fit construct has assisted sponsorship decision making. However, authentic relationships can outperform those that are considered to fit (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019). In order to explore the authenticity of beer sponsorship and sport, it is necessary to consider the relationship between alcohol, sport, and gender.

**Alcohol Sponsorship of Sport**

Sport and alcohol are historically-linked (Collins & Vamplew, 2002) and sociable commodities that in many cases are consumed together and often commercially paired, making their connection socially and culturally acceptable (Jackson, 2014). However, public health scholars believe that sport and alcohol should be separated (Casswell & Maxwell, 2005) because of many associated medical, psychological, and social issues that arise from alcohol consumption. These include heart disease, cancer, motor vehicle accidents, suicide, connections with violence, and complex, but negative impacts on home and work relationships (Alcohol and Public Policy Group, 2010; Bond et al., 2010; Burke & Maughan, 2000; Casswell & Maxwell, 2005; Casswell & Zhang, 1998; Kaufman, 1987; Obot & Room, 2005; Wilsnack et al., 2005). Although these public health issues exist, commercial connections between sport and alcohol remain strong.

Some research on alcohol sponsorship suggests that sport is, to some extent, financially dependent on the alcohol industry (Gee, Batty, & Millar, 2021). This
dependency is problematic when considering the wellbeing of sport participants, fans, and the wider community (O’Brien et al., 2015). Some scholars suggest that policy reforms restricting alcohol companies from associating with sport through sponsorships and other marketing strategies are the best ways to make social and cultural changes to the relationship between sport and alcohol (Casswell & Maxwell, 2005; Casswell & Thamarangsi, 2009; Casswell, 2019). Further, researchers exploring alcohol sponsorships in sport have examined: connections with consumption, brand image and consumer attitudes towards sponsors and sponsees, culture and gender, and policy and regulation of alcohol. In particular, Kelly et al. (2017) uncovered that male sportspeople were more likely to be sponsored by an alcohol brand than female sportspeople. This is, perhaps, not surprising given that alcohol, and beer specifically, is historically considered to be a “man’s drink”, and promotional culture by beer brands traditionally represents dominant forms of masculinity (Wenner & Jackson, 2009).

Producers of alcohol, especially beer, have invested heavily in sports and events through ownership and sponsorship (Palmer, 2011). Beer has been served at major league sports events since the inception of an early version of the MLB (Sugar, 1978). Brands are woven into the organizational fabric of some sport teams. In Canada, Interbrew, an alcohol corporation, previously held a majority ownership of the Toronto Blue Jays (Crompton, 1993) and the Montreal Canadiens are currently owned by the Molson brothers, the same owners as the Molson Canadian beer brand (Montréal Canadiens, 2009). In 2019, Anheuser-Busch partnered with the NHL, which made Budweiser the NHL’s official beer brand in Canada and Bud Lite the official beer brand in the United States (NHL Public Relations, 2019).
While sponsorship support is an endorsement of the sport property by the sponsor, on the other side of the relationship the sport property may need to examine its associations when the sponsor deals in questionable industries such as alcohol (Peluso et al., 2019). In circumstances of sponsorship with a respected sport or team, fans and audiences would believe a sport entity would not associate with a brand they disapproved of (Pracejus, 2004). Primarily, if a favourite sport or team is salient to a consumer, this implied endorsement effect, or presumed approval, of a sponsor would be more prominent (Pracejus, 2004). Differing implied endorsement levels of sponsorship are occasioned by the exposure in marketing communications, including imagery, messaging, and the subsequent consumers’ attitudes towards brands, particularly alcohol manufacturers (Kelly & Ireland, 2019). Consequently, communicating and promoting commodities, specifically alcohol, in and through sport transmits and guides the articulation of corporate nationalism and gender (Amis & Silk, 2010; Jackson, 2014), contributes to the re-construction of social inequities (Messner et al., 1993), circulates associations between sport and unhealthy industries (Peluso et al., 2019), as well as the many public health concerns alcohol has been attributed to (Casswell, 2019). Beyond the content that consumers or audiences articulate to produce implied endorsement, consumer attitudes towards alcohol sponsorship present challenges when confronted with information about corporate support from a beer brand.

Consumer perceptions, in summary, are the phenomenological study in marketing concerning individuals’ attitudes towards a brand (Fournier, 1998). Consumers acquire feelings towards a brand by the availability, cost, and utility of its products and services (Gilmore & Pine, 2007), by how it conducts itself (e.g., if the brand operates its business
in moral and ethical manners) (Gwartz & Spence, 2019), or how it projects itself through imagery and messaging to the market (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019; Morhart, et al., 2015). Positive attitudes can ultimately lead to the purchasing of a sponsoring brand’s products or services (Carrillat et al., 2005; Koo et al., 2006).

From a cursory view of sport sponsorship, there are observable differences when comparing the lists of top sports events, leagues, and teams receiving sponsorship support (IEG, 2015). Professional men’s sports leagues receive considerably more alcohol sponsorship revenue than professional women’s sports leagues (IEG, 2015; Lefton, 2009). Travers (2008) discussed inequities within the gendered economy of sport where sponsorship dollars are substantially less for professional female athletes than for male athletes. Professional male athletes obtain sponsorship deals that are tens of millions more dollars than professional female athletes (Travers, 2008). Given the financial differences in, and historical relationships of, alcohol brand support between men’s and women’s sports, the subsequent hypothesis is posed:

**Hypothesis 1:** Perceptions of authenticity toward beer sponsorship will be more positive for the NHL than the PWHPA, controlling for consumer involvement and alcohol consumption.

**Attitudes Towards Sponsorship**

The consumer’s evaluation of a sponsor is based on their attitude towards the entity (Keller, 2003; Meenaghan, 2001b). This idea is supported by Speed and Thompson (2000) who found that consumer attitudes can help determine sponsorship effectiveness. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) assert that beliefs are represented by the information an individual has about an object and this information forms their attitude toward that object.
Giner-Sorolla (1999), through his work on emotional attachment to brands, elucidated the differences between feelings and attitudes with the latter as a “summary evaluation” towards a brand which is “implicit in beliefs, feelings, behaviors and other components and expressions of attitudes” (p. 443). For the purposes of the current study, attitude is defined as a “psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor” (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993, p. 1). According to Biscaia et al. (2013), consumers with stronger feelings of connectedness towards sports teams tend to have more positive attitudes towards the team’s sponsors than consumers that feel less connected to sports teams. Adding to this, research by Gwinner et al. (2009) showed that when consumers who identify less with a sponsored team positive images tend to transfer less to a sponsoring company.

Meenaghan and Shipley (1999) determined that consumers perceive sponsorship as being less commercially motivated than advertising as a method of promotion. Meenaghan (2001a) suggested that audiences perceive sponsorships as indirect and tend to have a “halo effect” of goodwill or sincerity, while traditional advertisements are viewed as direct and exploitive. Audience permissible exploitation is believed to differ between advertising and sponsorship. Sponsorship-linked advertising is a way for alcohol brands to circumvent negative pressures and leverage the permissibility of consumers because of the goodwill nature that consumers believe sponsorship holds (Meenaghan & Shipley, 1999). Carrillat and D’Astous (2012) signaled the importance of sponsorship parsimony, which suggests that consumers have a limited amount of goodwill beliefs when sponsorship and advertising are combined. Based on the persuasion knowledge model, if sponsorships are suspected as a tactic for “persuasion attempts”, then
individuals may discount their previously held beliefs of the sponsorship’s goodwill (Friedstad & Wright, 1994). According to Carrillat et al. (2008), the greater the perceived exploitation by the sponsor’s brand, the higher likelihood that consumers’ persuasion knowledge will be activated. When a sponsoring brand is not considered to be over-exploiting its partnership, consumers will continue perceiving its motives as altruistic (Carrillat & D’Astous, 2012). The increasing commercialization has made persuasion attempts inauthentic and, in turn, triggers audiences and consumers to seek out what is real, true, and genuine (Beverland & Farrelly, 2010). Strategically speaking, Cornwell et al. (2005) suggest that sponsorship-linked marketing activities are a type of marketing communication that is effective because it is consumer-focused.

**Attitudes Towards Alcohol**

When brands are consumer-focused, they understand that consumers will have varying attitudes towards their products based on their prior experiences – awareness, familiarity, and involvement with the brand – which can impact the processing of public messages (Cornwell et al., 2005). Children and teens are aware of consequences and risks that come with the consumption of alcohol products; however, they are also aware that “commercials link drinking beer to fun, friends, and other positive attributes” (Wallack et al., 1990, p. 85). Youth awareness of alcohol advertising has been found to influence the formation of more favourable beliefs, knowledge, and intentions to consume alcohol as an adult (Grube & Wallack, 1994). Despite the health and social issues beer and alcohol brands are associated with, they are still successful in being viewed in a favourable light (Zinser et al., 1999). McCarty et al. (1983) found that individuals’ positive attitudes toward heavy and moderate beer drinking correlated strongly with increased beer
consumption. In a longitudinal study by Morgenstern et al. (2011) on adolescent alcohol consumption, favourable attitudes toward alcohol partially mediated the positive relation between initiation to drinking to baseline alcohol advertisement exposure. In considering gender as a variable in attitudes towards drinking, studies reveal that boys respond more favourably towards alcohol-related brand marketing than girls (Andsager et al., 2002).

Despite the alcohol industry’s primary target demographic (i.e., adult males), research suggests that alcohol consumption rates for men and women are becoming equal (Kuntsche et al., 2011). Further, Kropp et al. (1999) found that beer drinkers have more favourable attitudes towards beer sponsorship than non-drinkers. In light of attitudes towards alcohol by males and females and contemporary drinking patterns, the following hypotheses are posed:

**Hypothesis 2a:** Males will perceive beer sponsorship of the NHL to be more authentic than beer sponsorship of the PWHPA, controlling for consumer involvement and alcohol consumption.

**Hypothesis 2b:** Females will perceive beer sponsorship of the NHL to be more authentic than beer sponsorship of the PWHPA, controlling for consumer involvement and alcohol consumption.

**Hypothesis 3a:** There will be a positive relationship between alcohol consumption and perceptions of authenticity toward beer sponsorship of the NHL, controlling for consumer involvement.

**Hypothesis 3b:** There will be a positive relationship between alcohol consumption and perceptions of authenticity toward beer sponsorship of the PWHPA.
Attitudes Towards Alcohol Sponsorship

Even when a stronger connection to questionable advertising exists, such as individuals having an interest in or are involved with events, this does not have a significant effect in relation to shaping public opinions toward the association of questionable sponsorship and sports (McDaniel & Mason, 1999). According to McDaniel and Mason (1999), public opinions of beer sponsorship with sport are more accepting than tobacco brand sponsorship. Further, Crompton (1993) asserts that the public and sport managers are accepting of beer sponsorship controversy because: (1) they are unwilling to surrender the substantially large financial support provided by beer manufacturers, and (2) although beer sponsorship and advertising are linked to the consumption of alcohol products, there is no connection with the abuse of beer.

Regarding the perceptions of alcohol sponsorship as an ethical marketing practice, no gender differences have been found by researchers (McDaniel, Kinney, & Chalip, 2001). Additionally, positive attitudes towards sponsoring alcohol brands were found in university sportspeople, and both binge drinking and alcohol abuse were correlated with liking for sponsoring brands (Kelly et al., 2014). While alcohol sponsorship in sport is required to include health-related messaging to inform and remind drinkers of alcohol consumption consequences, in controlled environments these types of messages alongside alcohol branding do not reduce alcohol brand recall, recognition, and likelihood of brand choice in young people (Kelly et al., 2018). As such, the final hypothesis is posed:
Hypothesis 4a: There will be a positive relationship between attitudes toward alcohol sponsorship and perception of authenticity towards beer sponsorship of the NHL.

Hypothesis 4b: There will be a positive relationship between attitudes toward alcohol sponsorship and perception of authenticity toward beer sponsorship of the PWHPA.
CHAPTER 3

METHODS

The purpose of this chapter is to give an overview of the methods used to examine perceptions of authenticity toward beer sponsorship of the NHL and PWHPA. The participants and survey instrument is explained and data analysis is discussed.

Participants and Data Collection

Participants were recruited from Amazon’s Mechanical Turk (MTurk), which is a digital community for individuals to complete ‘Human Intelligence Tasks’ online (Peer et al., 2014). Individuals completing tasks through MTurk were offered monetary compensation for completing the study and will receive payment from the researchers to their MTurk accounts. The selection of MTurk for participant gathering was due in part for its capacity to allow data collection to occur over a large geographic region, thus improving heterogeneity of the participant pool. In addition, applying certain assurances within the study’s design, such as tracking user IP addresses and including attention check questions in the data collection design, can help to produce high degree of data quality. By tracking MTurk participant IP addresses researchers were able to eliminate any duplicate survey completions by workers from the overall study’s responses. With the inclusion of attention check questions, participant responses were improved by eliminating low-quality MTurk participants who wished to race through the survey (Peer et al., 2014).

This study’s required respondent threshold was met using high quality participants through the configuration of MTurk, this had allowed the study to be offered to demographics that met certain criteria. Because this study is based on the presentation
of corporate relationships that include a beer brand, participants that are legal drinking age at the time respondents performed the survey. Since the sponsorship case contexts used in this study have been promoted in USA and Canada, the MTurk participant sourcing software was restricted in its design to accept participants from the Americas to remain bound to a similar geographical border.

After obtaining clearance from The Research Ethics Board (REB) at the University of Windsor, data collection began. All data for this study were collected using the online survey platform Qualtrics. The survey was launched the week of March 21, 2022, and remained open until May 2, 2022. A total of 344 participant responses were collected; 172 for each case context (PWHPA and NHL). Research suggests that although ANCOVA and MANCOVA analyses are robust statistical procedures, it is highly recommended for group under investigation to have an equal sample size to make for a strong analysis (Fields, 2009). There were 236 participants who identified as male and 107 participants who identified as female. Participants’ ages ranged from 20 to 75 ($M = 35$) and they consumed, on average, 5.44 alcohol-based drinks in an average week. Respondents followed the sport of hockey reporting 11 hours on average each week (e.g., watching TV, attending live games, reading news, playing fantasy hockey, etc.). Among our respondents, 78% stated they follow the PWHPA, while 91% mentioned they follow the NHL. Prompted awareness results showed that 116 were aware of Budweiser-PWHPA sponsorship and 110 were aware of Budweiser-NHL sponsorship. For further descriptive statistics, see Table 1.
Table 1

Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Sample (n)</th>
<th>Mean (m)</th>
<th>Standard Deviation (s.d.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>236</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>107</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not identify</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>9.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aware of Sponsorship</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PWHPA-Budweiser</td>
<td>116 (67%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NHL-Budweiser</td>
<td>110 (40%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hockey Followership (hours per week)</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PWHPA Followership (hours per week)</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>7.77</td>
<td>8.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NHL Followership (hours per week)</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>7.89</td>
<td>11.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Involvement in Hockey (1-7)</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol Consumption (drinks per week)</td>
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<td>5.44</td>
<td>5.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes towards Alcohol Sponsorship (0-10)</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>5.82</td>
<td>1.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After reviewing the information and consent form, participants were presented with one of the sponsorship case contexts (either the NHL or the PWHPA; see Appendix A). This research uses descriptions of actual sponsorships rather than hypothetical sponsorships, which are suggested to be considerably more effective at measuring overall consumer evaluations of sponsorships (Biscaia et al., 2013). These descriptions were provided to ensure participants have a basic understanding about the relationships. After reading the case context, participants will be asked to complete the Horizontal Marketing Partnership Authenticity (HMP-A) scale based on the sponsorship case they read (see Appendix B). Participants were only required to complete one of the two cases to save
time and to retain their focus long enough for high-quality responses. Upon completing the HMP-A scale, participants completed a general questionnaire with items that included demographics (e.g., participants will self-identify their gender and age) and measures of: consumer involvement, beer consumption and alcohol consumption, attitudes toward sponsorship, and attitudes towards alcohol sponsorship (see Appendix B).

**Survey Instrument**

*Horizontal Marketing Partnership Authenticity (HMP-A) Scale.* The HMP-A is a 16-item questionnaire that measures authenticity of sponsorship relationships (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019). Each item in the scale will be preceded with the phrase, “The relationship between Budweiser and [NHL or PWHPA]…”, to which participants respond the degree to which they *strongly agree* or *strongly disagree* on a 7-point Likert scale. This study will use the long form of the HMP-A scale to examine consumer receptibility towards each of the four dimensions of authenticity: integrity, credibility, continuity, and symbolism (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019).

*General Questionnaire.* This was comprised of an 8-item scale that measures the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII) conceptualized by Zaichkowsky (1985) and applied in a sponsorship context by Grohs and Reisinger (2014). The PII used in this study is an adapted version of Zaichkowsky’s work and includes a 5-item, 7-point Likert scale. Also included in the general questionnaire was a 1-item write-in box to determine how much beer participants consume, another 1-item write-in box to determine how much alcohol participants drink to consider other consumption interests (e.g., to determine if a participant is a non-beer (alcohol) drinker, an occasional beer (alcohol) drinker, or a regular beer (alcohol) drinker) (adapted from Kropp et al., 1999), a 3-item scale that
measures attitudes towards sponsorship on a 5-point Likert scale anchored by *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree* (adapted from Alexandris & Tsiotsou, 2012), and a 6-item scale that measures attitudes towards alcohol sponsorship on a 9-point Likert scale anchored by *strongly disagree to strongly agree* (adapted from Kropp et al., 1999).

While some research has utilized general terms for their variables and questions to participants (for example Kelly & Van der Leij, 2021), the phrasing of questions presented to participants are important to prompt specific thoughts in individuals’ minds. For instance, since the current research pertains to sponsorship between sport leagues and a beer brand it is important to specify in the survey questions that the research is inquiring about participant perceptions related to beer, not wine or hard liquor. This is necessary as McCarty et al. (1983) found that individuals’ who have favourable attitudes towards alcohol drinking, an umbrella question which could include beer, wine, and hard liquor, correlated more strongly with wine than beer drinkers. Another example, but for consumption patterns, it is suggested that attitudes toward heavy and moderate beer drinking correlated strongly with beer consumption and not other forms of alcohol (McCarty et al., 1983). For the purposes of this study, questionnaire items related to alcohol will be adapted to specifically state beer instead of only providing them with the general term of alcohol. Respondents self-reported the number of alcoholic beverages they consumed in any given week.

**Data Analysis**

After gathering the data, we performed a series of comparisons using the two-case context, beginning with a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). For our ANOVA, the planned comparison between the two sponsorships was performed to provide an
overview towards Hypothesis 1. Initially, the means from each case’s HMP-A Brief scale were compared to determine the possible outlook of perceived positivity levels towards the sponsorships’ authenticity (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019). Second, a MANCOVA was used to determine which contributing factors towards their overall authenticity (HMP-A) score, and whether or not those scores between the two sport leagues are significantly different (at the .05 level). We then used four factor scores provided by each of the four HMP-A variables – acting as four dependent variables – MANCOVA was used to answer Hypothesis 1. Further, this helped to explain in what ways consumers perceive the authenticity within the sponsorships. For our deeper analysis, we used MANCOVA by including gender as an additional independent variable and allows us to determine the outcome for Hypothesis 2. A separate correlation matrix was operated for each sponsorship case that included the variables corresponding with Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4.

Prior to our multiple comparisons, we recorded descriptive statistics from our two survey versions and organized factor means for each of the dependent and independent variables with which we used to operate our comparison tests. The descriptive tables from our first output were used to determine if we have enough data avoid Type 1 error.

Context: A Brief History of Women’s Professional Hockey in Canada

Beginning in the season 1992-’93, the Central Ontario Women’s Hockey League (COWHL) was the only professional women’s hockey league in North America with only three teams competing. The three teams were from various districts of Toronto, Ontario, Canada (Syren, n.d.). In 1998 the COWHL evolved into the National Women’s Hockey League (NWHL). The western provinces of Canada developed the Western
Women’s Hockey League (WWHL) in 1994. Due to growing pains from league boundaries, the COWHL and NWHL had planned to merge and grow to become the largest women’s professional hockey league in the world. The Canadian Women’s Hockey League (CWHL) was set to flourish (Syren, n.d.). However, due to disagreements within and between leagues both leagues in 2007 when those leagues became unable to support themselves the Canadian Women’s Hockey League (CHWL) was founded (Syren, n.d.).

Expenses to players, like travel and equipment, were often covered by players (Syren, n.d.). Most times the players would earn a small payout from winning the championships (Syren, n.d.). Ticket revenue shares that were demanded by the league were raised through team fundraisers (Syren, n.d.). The CWHL had ended through a weekly call with management of the league in March of 2019. When the league closed, the Professional Women’s Hockey Players Association was created (PWHPA, 2019b).

**Case Context: #ForTheGame**

With the future of women’s professional hockey uncertain after the termination from the lack of funding, the need became more apparent for equality in professional women’s hockey competition. Remaining women from the collapsed leagues organized themselves which resulted in the PWHPA and its mission is: “to promote, advance, and to support a single, viable professional women’s ice hockey league in North America” (PWHPAa, 2019). The organization acts as “a united voice to coordinate training and programming that will also collaborate with common-purposed organizations to make ice hockey more inclusive” (PWHPAa, 2019). Even the events that were most successful for the CWHL, the meager results were not enough to sustain a women’s professional
hockey league, such as the All-Star game which saw the biggest sales with only 6,000 tickets sold (Syren, n.d.). It is noted in the interviews of Szto et al.’s (aop) research that for most professional women hockey players that the dream to play in the NHL while growing up could never be realized, and that the Olympics for years has been the apex for many women hockey players. Becoming a professional hockey player has never truly been a viable option for women. Since its inception, the PWHPA has been active in the promotion of a sustainable professional women’s ice hockey league in North America that can provide players with health care, fair wages, adequate mental and physical breaks between games, and one that would not force players to pay out-of-pocket for necessities, such as gym memberships, equipment, and gas (Szto et al., aop).

The #ForTheGame advertisement with Budweiser was meant to be a call-to-action for other organizations to support equality. The PWHPA, and its membership base, has pledged to not hold any games in a league until a sustainable league and fair working conditions are agreed upon (Szto et al., aop). The PWHPA has discovered barriers to enter media as an additional issue, making it more difficult to shine a light on this issue of inequality and this organization’s progress. There was an objective to align the movement synergistically with localized NHL teams and media outlets; the Toronto Maple Leafs and Sportsnet have each provided insufficient contracts to the PWHPA which included airing only one game a year and allocating limited promotional capacity to the women’s game (Szto et al., aop). By broadcasting professional women’s hockey games, it serves to create a foothold for opportunities for future generations (Szto et al., aop).

Beer has become a quintessential part of the sports, particularly the hockey culture in Canada. Budweiser, as a major brewer, has embedded itself within the hockey
sponsorship domain for some time, and has experienced success with its red goal light promotion associated with the men’s National Hockey League (NHL). Budweiser’s parent organization, AB InBev, has established a partnership with the NHL (NHL Public Relations, 2019). Since the NHL extends across North America and in the intents of regional strategy with the NHL, Budweiser has taken the lead in Canada, and Bud Light in the USA (NHL Public Relations, 2019). In 2019, Budweiser expanded its sponsorship portfolio within hockey by forming the partnership to support women’s hockey through the PWHPA (PWHPA, 2019b). By supporting the NHL and the PWHPA, Budweiser’s sponsorship effectively envelops the highest level of professional hockey for both men and women in North America.
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This study aimed to determine if beer sponsorship with a men’s professional hockey league is perceived as more authentic than with a women’s professional hockey league, using the HMP-A scale. A one-way multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted with four dependent variables, the HMP-A dimensions: credibility, continuity, symbolism, and integrity. Higher scores from the four dependent variables reflect more positive sponsorship authenticity. Given there were equal group sizes, homogeneity assumptions were reached.

Before conducting MANCOVA, the data were examined for univariate and multivariate outliers, with possible observations for credibility, continuity, integrity, and symbolism. MANCOVA assumptions were tested and Tukey’s method, at 1.5 times interquartile range, showed some outliers. The assumption for homogeneity of regression was tested and violated by an interaction effect found between sponsorship and alcohol consumption. As such, scatter plots were generated and a small number of heavy alcohol consumers were observed as outliers, which provided the conditions for the interaction and made it safe to proceed with the violation. The assumption of normality was accepted because skewness and kurtosis values existed within a satisfactory range (-3 and +3).

Hypothesis 1 – Partnership Authenticity Differences

For hypothesis 1, alcohol and beer consumption as well as consumer involvement were covariates. Having both consumption types as covariates demonstrated multicollinearity (.85) between the two. Because beer consumption was limited to one type of alcohol beverage, and alcohol consumption was defined to respondents as any
alcohol beverage, including: wine, liquor, and beer, proceeding with only alcohol consumption as the covariate resulted in a larger sample size than using just beer consumption. The sample collected for each sponsorship case was even. Additionally, Levene’s test showed that the equality of variance assumption was violated by all four variables for both sponsorships, and the Box’s M Test for the variance-covariance assumption was found significant ($p < .001$) and therefore also violated. Pillai’s Trace was significant for both continuous covariates which provided evidence that our covariates had an effect on the model.

Results from MANCOVA indicated that the covariate alcohol consumption had a significant effect on the league, ($F (1, 340) = 33.28, p < .001$). There was also a significant effect of consumer involvement on the league, ($F (1, 340) = 30.71, p < .001$). There was also a significant effect of sponsorship on levels of HMP-A scores when controlling for both alcohol consumption and consumer involvement. Table 2 displays factor scores that show that the NHL-Budweiser partnership had larger mean scores, across all four dimensions, than the PWHPA-Budweiser partnership, which fully supports H1. All four dimensions of HMP-A were significant.

**Table 2**

*HMP-A Factor Scores and MANCOVA Results*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HMP-A Dimensions</th>
<th>PWHPA-Budweiser</th>
<th>NHL-Budweiser</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$n$</td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
<td>$n$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credibility</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuity</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolism</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrity</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hypothesis 2 – Authenticity and Gender

A two-way analysis of variance was performed to explore the effect of the hockey league and gender on HMP-A scores. Participants were divided into two groups based on their gender (male = 236, female = 107). There was a statistically significant main effect for gender, \( F(1,339) = 6.49, p = .01 \), however the effect size was small (partial eta squared = .02). Provided the weak effect with the interaction, plots of the means for the interaction were generated, which indicated the presence of an interaction (see Figure 1). Levene’s test of equality of variance was significant, therefore the assumption was violated.

Figure 1.

Estimated Marginal Means of Factor Scores Using Brief HMP-A Scale

The interaction effect between sponsored league and gender was statistically significant, \( F(3,339) = 10.05, p < .001 \). Regarding the HMP-A scores by gender, males
perceived the sponsorship of Budweiser and the NHL to be significantly more authentic than the sponsorship of Budweiser and the PWHPA’s, which supported H2A. (see Table 3). Whereas, female perceptions between the two sponsorships was non-significant, therefore H2b was not supported (see Table 3).

**Table 3**

*HMP-A Scores by League and Gender of Participants*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>PWHPA-Budweiser</th>
<th>NHL-Budweiser</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Females (M = 5.22, SD = .99) was higher than males (M = 4.79, SD = 1.45).*

**Hypotheses 3 and 4 – Authenticity, Alcohol Consumption, and Attitudes Towards Alcohol Sponsorship**

A pair of correlation matrices were generated to determine Pearson’s coefficient between HMP-A scores, alcohol consumption, and attitudes towards alcohol sponsorship within each of the sponsorship cases. For the PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorship case, HMP-A scores and alcohol consumption were found to have a significant moderate strength negative correlation (see Table 4). For the NHL-Budweiser sponsorship case, between HMP-A scores and alcohol consumption there was a non-significant correlation (see Table 5). There was no support found for both H3a and H3b. Within the PWHPA-Budweiser’s sponsorship case between HMP-A scores and attitudes towards alcohol sponsorship, there was a significant moderate positive correlation (see Table 4). As for the NHL-Budweiser’s sponsorship case, between HMP-A scores and attitudes towards
alcohol sponsorship there was a significant, but weak positive correlation (see Table 5).

The evidence of a positive correlation found between HMP-A scores and attitudes toward alcohol sponsorship within each sponsorship cases support both H4a and H4b.

Table 4

*Correlation table for PWHPA responses*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. HMP-A Score (brief scale)</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Alcohol Consumption</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>5.92</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>-.52**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Attitudes towards Alcohol Sponsorship</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>.45**</td>
<td>.25**</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* *p* < .05. **p** < .001.

Table 5

*Correlation table for NHL responses*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. HMP-A Score (brief scale)</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Alcohol Consumption</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>5.32</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Attitudes towards Alcohol Sponsorship</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>.37**</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* *p* < .05. **p** < .001.
CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION

The purpose of this thesis was to examine consumer perceptions of sponsorship authenticity of a beer sponsor for professional men’s and women’s hockey leagues, controlling for alcohol consumption and attitudes towards alcohol sponsorships. Participants were asked about their perspectives on Budweiser’s sponsorship of either the NHL or the PWHPA. It is important to note that the study recruited consumers that held an interest in sports, so respondents likely felt at least somewhat positive about the leagues/brands presented. Therefore, the potential effects of a negatively perceived sponsor may have been muted. Overall, for the primary focus of this study, perceptions of sponsorship authenticity towards the two relationships were quite positive. The NHL’s relationship with Budweiser was seen as more positive than the PWHPA’s partnership. This chapter offers a critical discussion of the findings.

Hypothesis 1

Results for this hypothesis determined that the NHL-Budweiser sponsorship had more authenticity than the PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorship (H1 was supported). This is not surprising given that Budweiser’s partnership with the NHL is not the first beer brand to sponsor men’s professional hockey. Molson Canadian is another beer brand that has well-established sponsorship links with hockey in Canada (Jackson, 2014). Through consistent, historical, corporatized cultural messages of the association of beer with men’s professional sports, “ideological outposts” (Coakley, 2017) have been deeply embedded and integrated into consumers’ perceptions of alcohol and sport and, arguably, beer with masculinity (Wenner & Jackson, 2009). Therefore, it is likely that the
naturalized association between beer and men’s hockey that corporations have spent billions of dollars on and decades investing in serves as a strong “ideological outpost” (Coakley, 2017) in consumers’ minds, leading to greater authenticity for the NHL-Budweiser sponsorship.

When considering each of the four HMP-A dimensions individually, the credibility dimension was scored the highest for both the NHL-Budweiser and the PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorships. However, the credibility score was higher for the NHL-Budweiser sponsorship than the PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorship. In their development of the HMP-A scale, Charlton and Cornwell (2019) also found credibility to be the highest scored authenticity dimension. Morhart et al. (2015) conceptualize credibility as “the brand’s transparency and honesty toward the consumer, as well as its willingness and ability to fulfill its claims” (p. 202). The credibility dimension is also linked to consumer trust towards sponsorship (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019). Walraven et al. (2014) state that repeat reminders of the partnership’s meanings, objectives, or achievements can instill perceptions of credibility. It is possible that this dimension was the highest scoring because Budweiser and other beer brands from its parent company, Anheuser-Busch, are extensively linked with sport in North America through sponsorship relationships. Therefore, perceptions of trust towards the Budweiser brand related to sport in general may be associated with the level of credibility perceived of the NHL-Budweiser and PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorships, although this was not measured. It is possible that prior knowledge of Budweiser’s longstanding partnership with some individual NHL teams (Carp, 2017; Vancouver Canucks, 2011; Winnipeg Jets, 2011) may have had an influence on some consumer perceptions of credibility on the two
league-level sponsorships. The traditional connection between beer and hockey (Jackson, 2014) explains credibility’s rank and authenticity score towards both the league-wide NHL-Budweiser sponsorship and the newly initiated PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorship. While this may highlight the potential credibility of Budweiser, in the partnership literature it is also important to consider that both parties contribute to the credibility of the sponsorship relationship (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019). This may be where the difference in perceived credibility between the leagues evidences itself given that the NHL has had a longer history to establish trust and transparency compared to the PWHPA, which was only founded in 2019. Overall, participants viewed both the NHL-Budweiser and the PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorships as believable, honest, and trustworthy partnerships.

Continuity received the second highest score for the NHL-Budweiser sponsorship, yet it was ranked third for the PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorship. This dimension is described by Morhart et al. (2015) as a brand’s “timelessness, historicity, and its ability to transcend trends” (p. 202). Beer has a long-standing relationship with sport (Collins & Vamplew, 2002), and hockey in particular. The beer and hockey relationship – more specifically, men’s hockey – has stood the test of time, and Budweiser is likely benefiting from this historical connection, especially since this sponsorship with Budweiser is relatively new. By forming a long-term contract, Budweiser’s partnerships can develop a history and a legacy (Cornwell et al., 2013) across all professional hockey in North America. Rather than short-term contracts, long-term sponsorship contracts display commitment through building trust over time between the partnerships and consumers and this enhances recall (Chadwick & Thwaites, 2005; Nufer & Bühler, 2010; Walraven
et al., 2014). While Budweiser may be extending the life of the connection between beer and hockey’s masculinity, a narrative is developing about beer’s connection with women’s hockey. Yet, the continuity score’s ranking was not the same for each sponsorship, because the relationship between Budweiser and the PWHPA is young and, in the minds of consumers, still requires time to grow. The Budweiser brand has been able to leverage the long-standing beer and hockey connection through their sponsorship with the NHL, and this connection perhaps transfers to the women’s league as a partner of hockey in general. That is, Budweiser has continued the history of the beer-hockey connection and has been able to transcend trends by behaving differently than other beer brands before them, by being a sponsor of all professional hockey, regardless of gender. The dimension of integrity was ranked third for the NHL-Budweiser sponsorship, but it was ranked second for the PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorship. Integrity “signifies the moral purity and responsibility of the brand” (Morhart et al., 2015, p. 203). Moral appropriateness of beer sponsorship of sport has been questioned by many public health advocates (Casswell & Maxwell, 2005; Peluso et al., 2019). Alcohol sponsorship of sport conflicts with morality given that many youth are spectators of sport and research has found that exposure to alcohol marketing can initiate alcohol consumption or encourage youth to drink at a younger age (Davies, 2009; De Bruijn et al., 2012; Morgenstern et al., 2011). Yet, respondents in this study did not question the integrity of the sponsorships. Rather, they demonstrated positive attitudes towards both sponsorship pairs. The mean score for integrity was slightly higher than a neutral value for the NHL-Budweiser sponsorship ($M = 5.08$), ranking third, and for the PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorship ($M = 4.6$), ranking second, among the dimensions. The score being slightly more positive than
a neutral value could note that respondents may be mindful of the appropriateness, but, also that they differ in their perceptions about the inappropriate nature of beer brands sponsoring sport from public health advocates (Casswell & Maxwell, 2005; Casswell & Thamarangsi, 2009; Casswell, 2019). However, it is possible that respondents ranked the integrity dimension second for the PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorship, because they perceived this as equalizing the playing field regarding financial support between women’s and men’s professional sport. Although it is likely that Budweiser’s sponsorship of women’s professional sport does not provide equal amount of support as its sponsorship of men’s professional sport, consumers may see this sponsorship as something imperative to women’s professional hockey. Simply put, participants may have perceived that Budweiser acted with a moral compass in sponsoring the PWHPA. It is pertinent to note that this score is only for Budweiser’s partnerships and did not represent the whole alcohol beverage industry.

The symbolism dimension was ranked last for both sponsorships, yet still had a higher-than neutral HMP-A score. Morhart et al. (2015) conceptualize symbolism as the “brand’s potential to serve as a resource for identity construction by providing self-referential cues representing values, roles, and relationships” (p. 203). Both sponsorships were perceived as iconic, but, by way of their more positive HMP-A scores, it was unsurprising that the NHL-Budweiser sponsorship was more symbolic than the PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorship. The sponsorships are leveraging self-referential cues to the relationship alcohol has with hockey and respondents acknowledged alcohol’s symbolic role alongside hockey. The strong connection beer brands have had with the NHL in the league’s history have perpetuated the notion in promotional culture that beer is a man’s
drink (Strate, 1992), and men drink beer and participate in and spectate hockey (MacDonald, 2014; Scholes-Balog et al., 2016). Since the contract for these partnerships began in 2019, it is a relatively young partnership and participants may not yet be convinced of a symbolic meaning manifested by the relationships (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019).

**Hypothesis 2**

Results for this hypothesis determined that male participants perceived the NHL-Budweiser sponsorship to be more authentic than the PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorship (H2a was supported), and female participants perceived no difference in authenticity between the NHL-Budweiser sponsorship and the PWHPA-sponsorship (H2b was not supported). The finding from female participants is surprising and introduces the notion that perhaps female respondents in this study believed that Budweiser’s sponsorship of any hockey is authentic, regardless of the gender of the sport league, because of their familiarity of the beer-hockey association. This speaks to Giacalone et al.’s (2015) results that suggest that sport is a context that consumers deem appropriate for beer brands they are familiar with. Moreover, and drawing on Stüber’s (2014) findings, it may be possible that female participants view beer and hockey as gender-neutral, therefore leading to undifferentiated perceptions of authenticity for the NHL-Budweiser and PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorships.

It was no surprise that males perceive the NHL-Budweiser relationship to be more authentic. The NHL is an established sport entity with a presence in mainstream media stemming a century, and over that time it has developed culturally engrained attitudes in consumers that lean towards maintaining male-centric sport. The standard deviations for
male perceptions on the HMP-A scale towards the PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorship was large, \((SD)= 1.67\). The range in scores suggest that many men in this study, although perceiving beer brand sponsorships to be authentic when sponsoring either men’s or women’s sport leagues, still believe that beer and hockey are more authentic when men’s hockey is the context. There is a strong historical social connection between hockey as a masculine activity (Macdonald, 2014) and beer as a masculine produce (Gee & Jackson, 2012). It is possible that male participants view the NHL-Budweiser sponsorship as more authentic because the relationship upholds traditional representations of a dominant form of masculinity (Jackson, 2014). These male respondents may view the NHL-Budweiser sponsorship as a way to hold on to those strong stereotypical associations in an authentic way. In a sense, it may indicate their preference to retain the beer-hockey association exclusively as a ‘male space’ and maintaining the perception that hockey is an accepted and natural activity for men to play than women (Gruneau & Whitson, 1993), and beer brands are accepted and natural sponsors of men’s sports (Collins & Vamplew, 2002).

**Hypothesis 3**

Results from this hypothesis determined that a positive relationship between alcohol consumption and perceptions of authenticity of the NHL-Budweiser sponsorship and the PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorship did not exist (H3a and H3b were not supported). Surprisingly, there was a negative correlation found between alcohol consumption and HMP-A scores towards both leagues, which suggests that those participants who reported drinking smaller quantities of alcohol perceived the sponsorship to be more authentic and those that consumed larger quantities of alcohol perceived the sponsorship relationships to be less authentic. These results are the opposite of what Kropp et al. (1999) found,
where beer drinkers were more likely to have positive attitudes toward beer sponsorship. As well as Morgenstern et al.’s (2011) study that found that adolescents’ favourable attitudes toward alcohol partially mediated the positive relation between initiation to alcohol consumption and alcohol advertisement exposure. In this study’s findings, a large standard deviation was present in alcohol consumption due to some outliers, and those outliers may have had a greater influence on the correlation between alcohol consumption and HMP-A scores. Some observed instances of heavy drinkers consumed 10 or more alcohol beverages on average each week, much more than the average respondent. These outliers accounted for 18% of males and 8% of females. Notably, there were also 8% of males and 9% of females who drink on average zero alcohol beverages each week.

Similar to the comparison between female and male perceptions of authenticity, the outliers with a higher average number of drinks per week were males. The alcohol consumption outliers who had more than 10 drinks in an average week were found to score their perceived authenticity much lower than the neutral point, namely the sponsorships were perceived as inauthentic. Regardless of the number of alcohol drinks consumed each week, consumers still hold positive attitudes towards beer sponsorship of both hockey leagues. Having a positive view is a moral concern surrounding the relationship of exposure to alcohol sponsorship of sport and alcohol consumption (Brown, 2016).

**Hypothesis 4**

Results from this hypothesis determined that a positive relationship existed between participants’ attitudes towards alcohol sponsorship and their more authenticity for both the NHL-Budweiser sponsorship and the PWHPA-Budweiser sponsorship (H4a
and H4b were supported). Since the HMP-A scores were above a neutral value, consumers may not feel strongly about a moral appropriateness towards a sport league’s controversial sponsorship, which is supported by previous research (Peluso et al., 2019). Beer brands sponsor many sports teams, leagues and events, therefore, there may be greater tolerance of and acceptability of beer sponsorship of sport, leading to a higher level of perceived authenticity between a beer brand and sport entity. Moreover, the current prevalence of beer sponsorship in sport may lead to a desensitization of attitudes that alcohol sponsorship of sport should be negative (Kelly et al., 2018). The normalization of alcohol sponsorship is reason to pursue continued discussion of its moral appropriateness in sport marketing strategies (Peluso et al., 2019). Alcohol sponsorship of sport is “contested terrain” (Cody & Jackson, 2014), in which questioning the occurrence of alcohol sponsorship of sport is difficult considering interconnectedness of the two commodities and its acceptance among the public and sport managers (Crompton, 1993). Additionally, it is likely that consumers are less critical of alcohol sponsorship of sport than public health advocates, because of the perceived external benefits the sponsorship creates for local communities (O’Brien et al., 2015; Peluso et al., 2019), or even from their love of beer.
In conclusion, the results from this study featured positive levels of sponsorship authenticity for both men’s and women’s professional hockey leagues when partnered a major beer brand. From the consumer perspective, the findings indicated that, at this time (in 2022), beer sponsorship paired with a men’s professional hockey league is more authentic than with a women’s professional hockey league. The four dimensions of authenticity did not receive the same scores in the two sponsorship contexts, but similarities did exist. The two authenticity dimensions, credibility and symbolism, were found to have the same ranked order among the two sponsorships (first and last, respectfully). While the other two dimensions, integrity and continuity, were scored differently depending on the sponsorship. Findings of particular interest suggested that while males perceive beer sponsorship of the NHL to be significantly more authentic than beer sponsorship of the PWHPA, females did not perceive differences in the authenticity levels between the two sponsorships.

When considering the relationship between the perceived authenticity of alcohol brand sport sponsorships and alcohol consumption rates, an unexpected occurrence appeared. Contrary to previous research, those who consumed little alcohol held authenticity towards the sponsorships, and those who stated they consumed more alcohol perceived less authenticity within the sponsorships. Previous research has stated that positive attitudes toward alcohol advertising are linked with higher consumption rates (Kropp et al., 1999), so the authenticity concept should be revisited in controversial sponsorship scenarios to determine if similar results are found. Since these results
contradict previous research on the relationship between marketing and alcohol consumption, activist organizations that seek added regulation of alcohol sponsorship may want to further explore how authenticity modifies consumer perceptions. Given the results, it can be inferred that consumers hold positive attitudes toward alcohol sponsorship in certain cases because they regard the sponsorship relationship between sport and alcohol as authentic. Regarding the relationship between alcohol sponsorship and perceptions of sponsorship authenticity, prior research demonstrated that sincere motives of sponsor involvement can develop positive consumer attitudes (Ko et al., 2017; Rifon et al., 2004). Moreover, beer and hockey have held an intertwined relationship in Canada through each of their connections to masculinity (Jackson, 2014), which may compound the influence of sincerity (or contribute to perceptions thereof). As anticipated, positive attitudes towards alcohol sponsorship were positively correlated with perceptions of sponsorship authenticity.

This study addressed several gaps in the research. First, just as Charlton and Cornwell (2019) had validated the HMP-A scale to replace the traditional fit concept, this research added to the scant literature which exists that measures consumer perceptions of authenticity in sponsorship settings, and sport sponsorships specifically. Second, as the commercialization of sponsorship strives to become (more) authentic, this research supported the advancement of the sponsorship moderator authenticity that helps to measure sponsorship success from the consumer perspective (Cornwell & Kwon, 2020). Finally, this research addressed Palmer and Toffoletti’s (2019) need for empirical exploration to uncover nuanced understandings of the relationship between sport consumers and beer. In this vein, this research demonstrated an insightful change in the
context of the sponsorship of women’s hockey, more specifically alcohol sponsorship of women’s professional sport. The sponsorship between Budweiser Canada and the PWHPA being viewed favourably marked a small step towards positive sport consumer sentiment towards sponsorship of women’s sport (Palmer & Toffoletti, 2019). Inclusivity is a desirable characteristic to be perceived with sponsorships, and this study supports funding for women’s sport (Szto et al., 2021). As the sponsorship continues, and if authenticity is maintained, the sponsorship relationship between alcohol brands and women’s professional sport will likely be viewed even more favourably.

**Limitations**

One limitation of the study may have been the response rate of female participants. Although this may have been the natural fallout from the MTurk platform used to collect responses and the types of users on their system, the male to female ratio was natural for typical sport industry research. Additionally, males outnumber females in interest toward spectating and participating in sports in general. The response rates likely do not reflect the true viewership and fan identification of women’s professional sports, of which males are still higher (Deaner et al, 2015). This study examined Budweiser’s partnerships with the NHL and the PWHPA, so the results may not be generalizable for other beer or alcohol brands. Consumers may be more familiar towards Budweiser as a beer brand and the two leagues examined as sport properties. New brands or other alcohol-related brands may not have similarly cultivated perceptions towards the association between their brand and hockey, or sport in general, with masculinity. The findings from this research may not be discernable with other industries, or perhaps other sports that do not have the same gender interplay that hockey contains.
While covariates were applied when the full HMP-A scale was utilized, they were eliminated for the brief scale’s use. The covariates, consumer involvement and alcohol consumption, made the measurement of gender differences in perceived authenticity challenging. Outliers within each of the covariates, by each gender, may have been responsible for the added difficulties, but this was difficult to measure and beyond the aim of this study.

Finally, this study prompted respondents with a logo and brief description for the sponsorship they were randomly assigned for their questionnaire. The perceived authenticity of either sponsorship could have been higher or lower if respondents were tested for familiarity towards the brands involved and the differences in their motives to sponsor each league (Rifon et al., 2004). If respondents held higher amounts of familiarity and demonstrate more developed attitudes towards a sponsorship, it is possible that they would have shown more positive perceived authenticity. So, undeveloped attitudes towards the sponsorship may have produced less perceived authenticity.

**Future Research**

Within Brown’s (2016) meta-analysis, it was found that links exist between awareness of alcohol sport sponsorship and increased consumption rates, however there is little research on attitudes towards alcohol sponsorship and consumption. Therefore, additional research is recommended to examine the connection between attitudes towards alcohol sponsorship and alcohol consumption since the findings in this study were not expected. As part of this study, consumption rates were used as a covariate, but there is an opportunity by examining the direct effects of authenticity and consumption rates. As
an attitudinal moderator, future research on authenticity should examine if it impacts alcohol consumption.

Previous research has found that consumption behaviours between women and men have become more proportional (Kuntsche et al., 2011). Yet, in 2002, it was found that boys respond more favourably towards alcohol-related brand marketing (Andsager et al., 2002). Through the examination for H2, when no control variables were applied, the HMP-A scores indicated that women score the alcohol related sponsorships more positively than men. Future research on attitudes towards sponsorships should apply the HMP-A scales and test gender differences which, in some industries, may find similarities to this study’s findings.

It is possible that as public interest increases and more women participate in sport, there will be more media exposure and sponsorship opportunities. Although this research was based on professional hockey, it is highly suggested to re-visit authenticity in sponsorship contexts in various levels of women’s sport. Further research on sponsorship in women’s sport contexts would supplement reasonings for more brands to sponsor women’s sport.
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Koo, G.-Y., Quartermen, J., & Flynn, L. (2006). Effect of perceived sport event and sponsor image fit on consumers’ cognition, affect, and behavioral intentions “the primary motivation for the development of schema theory was to offer an
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https://doi.org/10.1080/00913367.2004.10639151


www.sportcal.com/Reports/Search/


APPENDIX A

CASE CONTEXTS

PWHPA and Budweiser

The sponsorship between these two organizations began in 2019 and is the first beer sponsor for the Professional Women’s Hockey Players Association (PWHPA). Budweiser’s longstanding support of hockey at all levels joins the PWHPA in solidarity to support the goal of advocacy and awareness for the future of the women’s game. By sponsoring the PWHPA, Budweiser became the first beer sponsor (Rody, 2019) to endorse the PWHPA’s mission to “promote, advance, and support a single, viable professional women’s ice hockey league” (PWHPA, 2019b).
In 2019, Anheuser-Busch announced that Budweiser would be Canada’s national beer sponsor for the National Hockey League (NHL). Budweiser’s longstanding support through 24 local NHL franchises is elevated to the league level because of this agreement. The Budweiser brand sponsorship enables the capacity of their marketing activities to reach national and international fans through the NHL’s various media and internet platforms (NHL Public Relations, 2019).
**APPENDIX B**

**Full Questionnaire**

*Consent form is displayed here*

Do you consent to these terms?
- No
- Yes

Are you of legal drinking age within the province or state you reside?
- No
- Yes

In 2019, Anheuser-Busch announced that Budweiser would be the official beer sponsor for the Professional Women’s Hockey Players Association (PWHPA). This is the first support by a beer brand that women’s professional hockey has received.

Did you know about this sponsorship before right now?
- No
- Yes
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In an average week, about how many total hours do you spend following the sport of hockey in general (e.g., watching on TV, attending live games, reading news, playing fantasy hockey)?

________________________________________________________________

About how many of those hours per week are spent following the PWHPA specifically?

________________________________________________________________

In 2019, Anheuser-Busch announced that Budweiser would be Canada’s national beer sponsor for the National Hockey League (NHL). Budweiser’s new support at the league level increases its support beyond the 24 agreements the brand held with various NHL franchises.
Did you know about this sponsorship before right now?
○ No
○ Yes

The relationship between Budweiser and the NHL...

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adds meaning to people's lives.

has moral principles.

reflects important values people care about.

is considerate of people.

In an average week, about how many total hours do you spend following the sport of hockey in general (e.g., watching on TV, attending live games, reading news, playing fantasy hockey)?

________________________________________________________________

About how many of those hours per week are spent following the NHL specifically?

________________________________________________________________

Using the scale of Strongly disagree to Strongly agree, please indicate your response to the following statements:

1) Beer companies make good sponsors for sporting events.

   o Strongly disagree
   o Disagree
   o Moderately disagree
   o Mildly disagree
   o Neither agree nor disagree
   o Mildly agree
   o Moderately agree
   o Agree
   o Strongly agree
   o No answer

2) A beer company is a suitable sponsor for a professional hockey league.

   o Strongly disagree
   o Disagree
   o Moderately disagree
   o Mildly disagree
3) Major sporting events should not allow beer companies to be sponsors.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Moderately disagree
   - Mildly disagree
   - Neither agree nor disagree
   - Mildly agree
   - Moderately agree
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree
   - No answer

4) Government should make laws to prevent beer companies from sponsoring sporting events.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Moderately disagree
   - Mildly disagree
   - Neither agree nor disagree
   - Mildly agree
   - Moderately agree
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree
   - No answer

5) I think all beer advertising should be banned.
   - Strongly disagree
   - Disagree
   - Moderately disagree
   - Mildly disagree
   - Neither agree nor disagree
   - Mildly agree
   - Moderately agree
   - Agree
   - Strongly agree
   - No answer
Using the scale of Strongly disagree to Strongly agree, please indicate your response to the following statements:

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<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
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<td>Sponsorships improve the image of a hockey league.</td>
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The sport of hockey is …

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On average, how many alcoholic drinks (beer, wine, spirits, etc.) do you consume in a week?

________________________________________________________

On average, how many beers do you consume in a week?

________________________________________________________

Please provide your current age.

________________________________________________________
Please identify your gender:
________________________________________________________________

Please select your current relationship status.
  o Single
  o In a relationship, living together
  o Married
  o Separated
  o Common law
  o Widowed
  o Divorced
  o Other, not listed above

If you selected 'Other, not listed above' for the previous question about your current relationship status, please fill in a response that meets your current situation.
________________________________________________________________

Please provide your average annual income.
________________________________________________________________

What is the highest level of education you have completed?
________________________________________________________________

Which province/state do you reside?
  o Alberta
  o British Columbia
  o Manitoba
  o New Brunswick
  o Newfoundland and Labrador
  o Nova Scotia
  o Ontario
  o Prince Edward Island
  o Quebec
  o Saskatchewan
  o Northwest Territories
  o Nunavut
  o Yukon
  o Alabama
  o Alaska
  o American Samoa
  o Arizona
Arkansas
Baker Island
California
Colorado
Connecticut
Delaware
Florida
Georgia
Guam
Hawaii
Howland Island
Idaho
Illinois
Indiana
Iowa
Jarvis Island
Johnston Atoll
Kansas
Kentucky
Kingman Reef
Louisiana
Maine
Maryland
Massachusetts
Michigan
Midway Atoll
Minnesota
Mississippi
Missouri
Montana
Navassa Island
Nebraska
Nevada
New Hampshire
New Jersey
New Mexico
New York
North Carolina
North Dakota
Northern Mariana Islands
Ohio
Oklahoma
Oregon
Palmyra Atoll
Pennsylvania
Puerto Rico
- Rhode Island
- South Carolina
- South Dakota
- Tennessee
- Texas
- US Virgin Islands
- Utah
- Vermont
- Virginia
- Wake Atoll
- Washington
- West Virginia
- Wisconsin
- Wyoming

If this survey has made you feel uncomfortable for any reason and you would like assistance, please utilize the contact information below for the organization within your country. Both organizations are free services and available 24/7, 365 days a year. Each of the organizations listed provides assistance and care to those that can experience challenges for themselves and those that experience challenges with friends and family who may be alcohol and/or drugs users (e.g., verbal and physical abuse assistance).

If you are within Canada:
Wellness Together Canada Assistance available 24/7. Call: 1-866-585-0445
Immediate Crisis Support: Text WELLNESS to 741741 Website: www.wellnesstogether.

If you are within the USA:
American Addiction Centers Assistance available 24/7.
Call: 1-866-954-2176
Live Chat is available at the website provided below.
Website: americanaddictioncenters.org
VITA AUCTORIS

Name: Matthew Reid
Place of Birth: Windsor, Ontario
Year of Birth: 1991

University of Windsor, Windsor, Ontario 2013, BHK