

Does Advertising Mitigate the Negative Effects of Losing on
Satisfaction and Conative Aspects of Sport Attendance?

A Case Study in Intercollegiate Athletics

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Abstract

Smith (1993) determined that advertising tends to mitigate a negative trial effect among low product-involvement consumers when it precedes the trial but has no impact on beliefs and attitudes when the trial is positive. This case study investigated the effect of advertisements on sport consumers' satisfaction and conative loyalty in spectating sport. Specifically, we examined spectators who were novice attendees at an intercollegiate men's basketball game (n = 206). Two groups (home-team winning, home-team losing) were investigated to determine whether advertising mitigated the negative product-trial effect (losing). The results indicated that although advertising did not mitigate losing specific to immediate satisfaction with the game outcome or decision to attend, it did seem to mitigate losing on conative loyalty.

Keywords: Advertising, Satisfaction, Conative Loyalty, Consumer Behavior

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Men's basketball attendance for the National Collegiate Association of Athletics (NCAA) has grown since 1994, showing a 15.5% increase over that period (Figure 1) and setting new attendance records in 2007 (NCAA.com, 2008). NCAA women's basketball has also seen growth over the last decade as total attendance reached a new record of 10.88 million fans in 2007 (Figure 2). This is slightly over a 25% increase since the 1999-2000 season (NCAA.com). However, during these times of attendance growth, TV ratings for the NCAA tournament showed a downward trend from 1998 to 2003 where they bottomed out at a rating of 5.0. Since that 31.5% drop, ratings have improved through 2005 (the last year we were able to find the data) by 38% exceeding 1999 levels. This could be an indication of a turn-around for tournament ratings. However the ratings for the Men's Championship game which had shown an even more precipitous decline over the 1998-2004 period (38.2%) and then a jump in 2005 to a 15.0 rating, did not show continued improvement through 2006 or 2007, as figures dropped back to ratings in the 11s and 12s (Figure 3; Trail & James, 2008). This seems to indicate that the 2005 tournament and championship game were anomalies in a downward trend of ratings. The regular season TV ratings for NCAA Women's basketball have varied slightly, but have consistently been in the 1.1 to 1.3 range since 1996, although they did set a record high of 1.47 in 2004. Championship game ratings have fluctuated fairly substantially since 2000 with a high of 4.3 in 2004 and a low of 2.3 in 2007, but the fluctuations seem to be more dependent on the teams playing than any trend of fan interest in women's basketball (Trail & James, 2008).

At any time, but especially in times of fluctuations in attendance and ratings, sport marketers need to assess the effectiveness of their advertising plans. Advertising has been one of

the major communication tools that sport organizations have utilized to reach their target markets, and have spent a fair amount of money doing it. For example, the NFL spent almost \$1 million to advertise their American Bowl in Tokyo, Japan in 2003 (Kaplan, 2003). However, most NCAA athletic departments do not spend anywhere near as much. For example, Rutgers University's Athletic Department's advertising budget is approximately \$500,000 annually and must cover all teams (Strauss, 2005). From the Equity in Athletics Disclosure Act (EADA) reports, it is evident that athletic department budgets continue to increase (EADA, 2007). From 2005 to 2006, for NCAA Division 1-A teams, the average budget increased 9%, from \$34.6 million to \$37.6 million. A small part of that increase may be due to increasing advertising budgets as athletic departments try to increase consumption of their products. However, an increase in money spent on advertising may not be advantageous and may not give a good return on investment. Overall, U.S. general advertising spending growth has slowed considerably since 2000 when it was growing at a 13% rate. In 2007 it was estimated to only grow 2.6% to \$153.7 billion (U.S. Ad Spend, 2007). This may be because organizations are realizing that advertising may not be effective in increasing consumer purchasing. Especially now, in what is a period of economic turmoil, sport managers and marketers must examine the effectiveness of all of their advertising strategies.

Mawson and Coan (1994) noted that National Basketball Association marketing directors indicated that advertising was an important communication technique. However, the level of importance placed upon advertising as a strategy was greater for directors of low attendance franchises than for directors of high attendance franchises. This suggests that advertising is perceived by marketing directors to be an effective tool for increasing attendance at sporting events, especially in negative conditions (losing records). In contrast, Siegfried and Eisenberg (1980) found that advertising had little effect on attendance in minor league baseball. Similarly, Fink, Trail, & Anderson (2002) found that the perceived importance of advertising on the influence

of attending collegiate basketball games was low for spectators at both men's and women's games. However, Cianfrone and Zhang (2006) found that advertising did increase brand awareness. Due to limited research relating to the effectiveness of advertising in sport related situations, especially in intercollegiate sport, sport marketers have little sport specific data to utilize in creating effective advertising strategies. Although research has shown varying effects of advertising on general consumer behavior, additional sport-specific research is necessary.

Low-involvement Hierarchy Model

Vakratsas and Ambler (1999) suggested that low-involvement hierarchy models of marketing/advertising are a viable alternative to the hierarchy of effects models on which much of marketing and advertising is based. Low-involvement specifically refers to low *behavioral* involvement, not cognitive or affective involvement. Hierarchical effects models have been examined within marketing and advertising for over a century (Barry & Howard, 1990). These models are typically based on the idea that cognition precedes affect, which precedes conation (intentions), which precedes purchase behavior (see Barry, 1987; Barry & Howard, 1990; Lavidge & Steiner, 1961; Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999). In contrast, the low-involvement models typically suggest that individuals proceed through the stages of cognition, then experience, then affect, and then repurchase behavior. However, cognition may be nothing more than passing awareness (i.e., mere recognition) in low-involvement situations. This may make the initial product usage experience the primary factor influencing repurchase behavior (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999). In terms of sport consumption, an individual is cognitively aware of a game or event. The individual then goes to the game (the experience) and then has an affective response, or an affective/cognitive response such as satisfaction. Following the event, based on the satisfaction, the individual may decided to purchase team merchandise, team apparel, or tickets to another

game in the future. These repurchase intentions are known as conative loyalty (Trail, Fink & Anderson, 2003).

This information is critical to sport marketers in their attempt to sell games to consumers who have low behavioral involvement. Given that the product usage experience (e.g., satisfaction with attending the game) may be the most important factor that determines consumers' future repurchase behavior (Alba, Hutchinson, & Lynch, 1991; Deighton, Henderson, & Neslin, 1994; Marks & Kamins, 1988; Oliver, 1997; Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999), and if positive or negative consumption experience is determined by game outcome (Trail et al., 2003), then sport marketers may have little control over repurchase behavior. Based on the low-involvement hierarchy model, it is possible that a new customer to a stadium might not return for another game if the home team loses the game on the individual's first visit. In addition, single-game consumers are the segment of spectators that have been decreasing the most (NSGA.com, 2007). Thus, to increase patronage from new customers, marketers need to mitigate the possible effect of a negative product trial or a negative experience for new customers at an event if possible.

Smith (1993) examined the effect of advertising on a negative product trial (i.e., a negative initial consumption experience). He tested whether source of information (ad only, trial only, and ad plus trial), information sequence (ad/trial and trial/ad), and favorability of trial (positive and negative), influenced consumers' product evaluation. Smith found that experience had a larger impact on beliefs and attitude formation than advertising. However, advertising tended to mitigate a negative trial effect when it preceded the trial but had no impact on beliefs and attitudes when the trial was positive.

Although the influence of advertisement on subsequent trial experience has been studied (e.g. Marks & Kamins, 1988; Olson & Dover, 1979; Smith & Swinyard, 1982), Smith's (1993) research tested how consumers integrate product information from two different sources

(advertising and product experience). For the sports marketer, applying the low-involvement hierarchy effects model specific to Smith's results suggests that when advertising precedes attendance for new spectators, it should mitigate the effects of a negative game outcome on future intentions of consumption (conative loyalty). However, advertising should have little or no effect on conative loyalty for new spectators experiencing a positive-game outcome.

Satisfaction Model

As we noted above, the low-involvement hierarchy model depicts that the product consumption experience elicits affect or satisfaction with the purchase, which then leads to repurchase intentions (conative loyalty). Oliver (1989; 1993; 1997) has examined this relationship extensively. In a test of their satisfaction model, Oliver and Burke (1999) determined that satisfaction explained 47.4% of repurchase intentions at restaurants. Harris and Goode (2004) found additional support for this relationship in that satisfaction explained 8% of the repurchase intentions in online book purchases and Da Silva and Alwi (2006) found that 19% of loyalty intentions were explained by satisfaction. Specific to sport consumption, Trail et al. (2003) found that satisfaction explained 11% of the variance in conative loyalty. Caro and Garcia (2006) also found a significant relationship between satisfaction and conative loyalty at a sporting event.

In all of these cases, satisfaction has typically been measured unidimensionally under the assumption that general satisfaction is the best way to determine future intentions. However, that may not necessarily be the case. Oliver (1993) suggested that there may be at least two types of satisfaction: satisfaction with attributes of the product and general satisfaction with the decision of the purchase. Oliver (1993) noted that the product-attribute satisfaction subscale was distinct from the general measure of satisfaction because the correlation between the two was only moderate ($r = .50$). Specific to sport behavior, satisfaction has typically been measured generally as noted above. In the Trail et al. (2003) research, they used three items to measure general satisfaction:

satisfied, satisfied with the outcome, and satisfied with the performance of the team, but the internal consistency was low for the scale. Trail, Anderson, and Fink (2005) modified the satisfaction item "I am satisfied" to read "I am satisfied with my decision to attend," (p. 104). In evaluating the factor loadings of the items, Trail et al. (2005) noted that the "Satisfaction with the decision to attend" item had more unique variance associated with it than common variance, which may indicate that satisfaction with the decision to attend is distinct from satisfaction with the outcome supporting Oliver's (1993) distinctions. Distinct aspects of satisfaction might have differential effects on conative loyalty.

Thus, the purpose of this investigation was to use the low-involvement hierarchy model along with Oliver's (1996) satisfaction model to determine if pregame advertising mitigated the effects of a negative outcome (attending a game in which the home team lost) on conative loyalty through satisfaction. To achieve this objective we compared two groups of low behavioral-involvement sport spectators (novice attendees) on two slightly different models. Group 1 consisted of the spectators who saw the home-team win (positive trial) and Group 2 consisted of the spectators who saw the home-team lose (negative trial). Model 1 depicted both a direct and an indirect relationship between the Influence of Advertising and Conative Loyalty (behavioral intentions), with the indirect relationship depicting Advertising influencing Satisfaction with the Decision to attend the game, and then Conative Loyalty (Figure 4). Model 2 was the same as the first, except we used Satisfaction with the Outcome of the game instead of Satisfaction with the Decision to attend the game (Figure 5). Each group was tested on each model.

Method

Sample and Procedure

Data were collected from spectators at a large Midwestern university at two home men's intercollegiate basketball games. Both games were in the latter half of the conference season.

There had been 11 home games before the first game surveyed. The second game surveyed was the following home game. The arena had 42 seating sections. During the first game, questionnaires were distributed to the spectators in the even numbered sections of the arena. At the second game, the questionnaires were distributed to spectators in the odd numbered sections in an attempt to prevent distributing survey to the same individuals and to get a representative sample. Spectators were approached as they entered each section prior to the game starting and asked if they were attending to watch the home team or to watch the visiting team. If they were going to watch the home team, they were then asked if they would be willing to complete a survey about why they attended the game. Very few chose not to do so. All subjects were informed that the IRB had given approval for the research. We contacted as many potential respondents as possible up until 15 minutes before the game started. If those at the second game had done the survey at the first game they were excluded the second time.

The respondents were asked to complete the scale measuring the influence of advertising on their ticket purchase prior to the game. After completion of this scale, the respondents were asked to hold on to the questionnaire until the end of the game and then complete the satisfaction items and conative loyalty items. The questionnaires were collected as the respondents exited the building. The instructions for completion of the survey were included in the questionnaire. Out of 669 surveys distributed at the two games, a total of 478 usable surveys were returned, a return rate of 71.4%. From these 478, we culled the 206 respondents that met our criteria of low behavioral involvement: having attended two or fewer games during the season, including the present game. For 75% of this group, this was their first game. From the group of 206, 123 individuals attended the game that the team won and 83 attended the game that the team lost. Females comprised 42% of the relevant sample, a majority of respondents were Caucasian (95.5%), and the average age was 41.9 years ($SD = 13.2$).

Instrument

We used Fink et al.'s (2002) advertising scale, which consisted of 4 items measuring how influential advertising was on the respondent's decision to purchase a ticket to the game. The response format was a 7-point scale from 1 (not at all influential) to 7 (very influential). We used two items from Trail et al.'s (2005) satisfaction scale. The first was "I was satisfied with my decision to attend this game" and the second was "I was satisfied with the outcome of the game." We also used the four items from Trail et al.'s (2005) conative loyalty scale measuring future behavioral intentions such as attending games, buying merchandise, and supporting the team. The satisfaction items and the conative loyalty items were scored on a 7-point response format ranging from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (7). The advertising scale (Fink et al., 2002) and the conative loyalty scale (Trail et al, 2005) have shown adequate internal consistency and construct reliability previously. Demographic questions were also included.

Data Analysis

First, we performed a confirmatory factor analysis using RAMONA in SYSTAT 7.0 to examine construct reliability and discriminant validity of the advertising scale, the conative loyalty scale, and the two satisfaction items. We used ANOVA tests to determine whether the two low-involvement groups (spectators at the game when the home team won vs. spectators at the game when the home team lost) differed across all of the variables as a validity check. We then used RAMONA again to test the two structural models depicted in Figures 4 and 5 for both (winning game and losing game) low-involvement spectator groups. We used several model fit indices including the root-mean-square-error (RMSEA [ϵ_a] values $< .06$ indicate good fit; Hu & Bentler, 1998), the test of close fit ($H_{0\text{ close}}$; e.g., Browne & Cudeck, 1992), the chi-square test statistic per degree

of freedom (χ^2/df , values 2.0 – 5.0 indicate good fit; Bollen, 1989), and the percentage of residuals greater than .01 (< 10% indicate good fit; Bagozzi & Yi, 1988).

Results

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and ANOVA Tests

The results of the CFA indicated that the measurement model had good fit. The point estimate of RMSEA was .056 and the test for close fit was not rejected ($p = .336$). Only 3.5% of the residuals were greater than .1. The Chi-square per degree of freedom value was 1.64. The two factors had good internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha for Advertising scale = .90 and Conative Loyalty = .87) and construct reliability (AVE = .697 and .655 respectively; Table 1). Both factors and the two satisfaction items showed discriminant validity as well (Table 2). The two low-involvement groups did not differ by pre-game level of influence of Advertising ($F = 1.584, p = .210$; winning game $M = 2.08$, losing game $M = 2.35$), but did by post-game Satisfaction with Decision to Attend ($F = 15.915, p < .001; \eta^2 = .07$; winning game $M = 6.45$, losing game $M = 5.88$), Satisfaction with Outcome ($F = 133.03.584, p < .001. \eta^2 = .40$; winning game $M = 5.96$, losing game $M = 3.30$), and Conative Loyalty ($F = 4.246, p = .041, \eta^2 = .02$; winning game $M = 4.71$, losing game $M = 4.35$).

Structural Models

Model 1W, tested on the spectators at the game in which the home team *won*, fit the data well (Table 3). The path coefficient between Advertising and Satisfaction with Decision to Attend was not significant ($\beta = .079$), but each path from Satisfaction to Conative Loyalty and Advertising to Conative Loyalty was ($\beta = .281$ & $.267$, respectively). Combined, Advertising and Satisfaction with Decision explained 16.2% of the variance in Conative Loyalty.

Model 1L, tested on the spectators at the game in which the home team *lost*, fit the data adequately (Table 3). All paths in the model were significant. The path coefficient between Advertising and Satisfaction with Decision to Attend was negative ($\beta = -.307$). The path from Satisfaction to Conative Loyalty was positive ($\beta = .404$) as was the path from Advertising to Conative Loyalty ($\beta = .404$). Combined, Advertising and Satisfaction with Decision explained 22.6% of the variance in Conative Loyalty. Advertising explained about 16% of the variance in Conative Loyalty directly and about 1.5% indirectly through Satisfaction. The path between Advertising and Satisfaction with Decision to Attend was significantly different in Model 1L from Model 1W in which spectators attended the winning game. This can be determined by noting that the confidence intervals for the two beta weights for these paths do not overlap between the two models (Table 3). The other paths do not significantly differ.

Model 2W, tested on the spectators at the game in which the home team *won*, fit the data well (Table 3). The path coefficient between Advertising and Satisfaction with Outcome was not significant ($\beta = .067$), but each path from Satisfaction to Conative Loyalty and Advertising to Conative Loyalty was ($\beta = .180$ & $.277$, respectively). Combined, Advertising and Satisfaction with Outcome explained 11.6% of the variance in Conative Loyalty.

Model 2L, tested on the spectators at the game in which the home team *lost*, fit the data reasonably (Table 3). The path coefficient between Advertising and Satisfaction with Outcome was not significant ($\beta = .106$), nor was the path from Satisfaction to Conative Loyalty ($\beta = .132$). However, the path from Advertising to Conative Loyalty was ($\beta = .265$). Combined, Advertising and Satisfaction with Outcome explained 9.5% of the variance in Conative Loyalty. No paths significantly differed between the two groups on Model 2.

Discussion

The focus of the study was to examine whether advertising mitigated negative trial effects on satisfaction and conative loyalty (future repurchase intentions) for low behavioral-involvement consumers. Specifically, we investigated whether pre-game advertising mitigated the effect of attending a game in which the home team lost versus when the home team won, on spectators who were attending a game for the first or second time. We also made a distinction between satisfaction with the decision to go to the game, a measure of general satisfaction of the experience of attending, and satisfaction with the outcome of the game, a product specific satisfaction.

The results indicated that although there were no differences in pregame influence of advertising by spectator group, not surprisingly there were differences in post-game satisfaction (both with decision and with outcome) and in conative loyalty, with those that went to the winning game higher in all aspects. We also found that satisfaction with decision to attend the game was only marginally related to satisfaction with the outcome of the game. The shared variance between the two satisfactions was about 9%, indicating that 91% of satisfaction with the decision to attend the game was determined by something else other than the outcome. This is a very important finding in that it acknowledges the findings of Oliver (1993) that there may be a general satisfaction with the decision to purchase or consume the product which is distinct from satisfaction with product attributes. This discovery is important to the model testing that we have done in the present research as we show below.

The models indicated that, in the situation where there was a *positive outcome* (i.e., the home team winning), advertising had no effect on either the satisfaction with the decision to attend the game or the satisfaction with the outcome of the game for low-behavioral involvement spectators, supporting this aspect of the low-involvement hierarchy model (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999). In addition, there was no significant relationship between advertising and satisfaction with

the outcome of the game for spectators who attended the game in which the home team lost. However, in the situation where the home team lost (*a negative outcome*) and the spectators were asked about their satisfaction with their decision to attend the game, there was a significant and negative relationship between advertising and satisfaction. What this means is that as the influence of advertising as a motivating factor to attend the game increased the satisfaction with the decision to attend the game decreased. On the face of it, this result seems to indicate a lack of support for the low-hierarchy model. However, this negative relationship is specific to the satisfaction with the decision to attend that particular game and not necessarily anything beyond that. Thus, examining the relationship between advertising and conative loyalty (the behavioral intentions) may be a better test of whether advertising mitigates a negative consumption experience.

In evaluating the relationship between advertising and behavioral intentions, we determined that in Model 1W, advertising explained a little over 7% of the variance in intentions when low-involvement spectators watched the team win. This gives supplementary support for the idea that for sport spectators, the experience may have a greater impact on beliefs, attitudes, and choices, than advertising (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999). However, when the team lost, the mitigating effect of advertisement was apparent as advertising explained 16.3% of the variance in intentions (shown in Model1L). That is, as there was an increase in the perception of advertising as a motivating factor to attend games, the likelihood of future game attendance, merchandise purchasing, and team support increased. This relationship was much more apparent in the spectators who watched the team lose (a potentially negative consumption experience) than in the spectators who watched the team win (a potentially positive consumption experience). Thus, these results do support the idea that advertising will have a mitigating effect upon a negative product experience for low behavioral-involvement consumers as espoused by Smith (1993). We must emphasize the caveat though that there definitely seems to be a distinction between the immediate

satisfaction with the decision to consume the product (the game) and the more long-term process of conative loyalty. This distinction may be unique to sport as a product, unlike soft drinks, which were tested in the previous research (Smith, 1993).

The low-involvement theory hypothesizes that cognition precedes experience, which precedes affect (Vakratsas & Ambler, 1999). In addition, the product experience is the primary factor, not the cognitive choice or the affective response. As noted in the introduction, in terms of sport consumption, an individual may be cognitively aware of the advertising promoting a game or event. The individual then goes to the game (the experience) and then has an affective response following the event. Our results showed that the individuals who attended the game for the first or second time indicated that advertising had little influence on their decision to attend (low mean scores, see Table 1), which was similar to Fink et al.'s (2002) findings which showed that collegiate basketball spectators perceived the importance of advertising to be low thus indicating some other motivating factor may be present.

In general, these spectators were satisfied with their decision to attend and indicated that they were likely to attend again (again see mean scores in Table 1). These results do not conflict with the low-involvement hierarchy model because they show that the attendance experience may be a primary factor in determining affect and future intentions. As satisfaction with the decision to attend increased, conative loyalty increased, supporting Oliver's (1996) satisfaction theory, the low-involvement theory, and Trail et al.'s (2005) findings as well. Furthermore this was even more apparent in the game in which spectators watched the team lose. This means that even when the team was losing, if the spectators still enjoyed their overall experience they were more likely to intend to come back. Additional support came from Model 2 in that satisfaction with the outcome of the game had little influence on future intentions (less than 4% of the variance in each case).

These results do not necessarily contradict the findings by Siegfried and Eisenberg (1980) who determined that advertising seemed to have little effect on attendance in minor league baseball because Siegfried and Eisenberg focused on actual attendance and not intentions as we did. Thus, advertising may influence conative loyalty, which then may influence actual attendance; that is, intentions may mediate the relationship between advertising and actual attendance. This might be at least slightly reassuring to Mawson and Coan's (1994) NBA marketing directors who thought that when the team was losing, more advertising would increase attendance.

The implications for marketers of sport organizations are the following. If these results are correct, before a large amount of money is spent on advertising, marketers need to determine whether advertising is having the desired effect, not just assume that it is. It does seem though as advertising may have at least a small effect against losing over the long-term, at least for those spectators who have low behavioral involvement. However, again this needs to be substantiated. Obviously as most marketers already realize it is important to diversify communication platforms and not use the whole marketing budget on advertising. For example, pre-game events in which fans are encouraged to bring, or rewarded for bringing, people that have never attended a game, might be successful. As Mullin et al. (2000) noted, once the spectator is in the door, then it is possible to propel them up the escalator model to future game attendances. It might behoove marketers to promote the atmosphere of the event and the association with the team, not team successes.

Limitations and Future Research

There are several limitations to this study. The first is that the low-involvement hierarchical theory has typically been applied to instances of general product consumption, such as consumer goods, and not to the consumption of sport games or events. Thus, future research needs to continue to extend the examination of this theory to the realm of sport. Second, even though a

majority of these spectators indicated that this was the first game they had attended that year (low behavioral involvement); their identification levels (a cognitive aspect) were above the midpoint of the scale, indicating that they were at least a little bit identified with the team. Perhaps these individuals typically watched the games on television but did not attend. Along the same lines, it could be argued that because these individuals had already committed time and money (presumably) to attending the game, they were at least to some extent vested in the team. These aspects may all have confounding effects on the results, unlike some of the experimental studies cited above. Third, because this was not an experimental study, we did not manipulate or control the advertising effects. Although this could be viewed positively because it is a real world situation, it may explain some of the variation between our results and those of Smith (1993). Fourth, because of the limited generalizability of this study, it is not clear whether the advertising for this particular college team might be an anomaly or not.

In sum, our results showed some evidence of support of the low-involvement hierarchy model and some evidence of advertising mitigating the effects of a negative experience. Thus, marketers are encouraged to determine whether or not they are getting a positive return on their advertising dollar.

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Table 1

Means, Standard Deviation, Point Estimates (β), Standard Errors (SE), t-values for Scale Items, and Alpha Coefficients (α), and Average Variance Explained Values (AVE) for Sub-Scales for Total Sample.

Scales	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	β	SE	<i>t</i>	α	AVE
Advertising	2.191	1.527				.90	.697
Newspaper ads for (team) games	2.057	1.680	.719	.037	19.41		
(Team) television commercials	2.307	1.777	.921	.018	51.91		
Radio ads for (Team) games	2.344	1.819	.872	.022	39.85		
(Team) billboard ads	2.055	1.691	.814	.027	29.64		
Conative Loyalty	4.561	1.237				.87	.655
I am more likely to attend future games	5.320	1.356	.589	.049	12.07		
I am more likely to purchase the team's merchandise	4.153	1.457	.875	.022	39.76		
I am more likely to buy (Team) clothing	4.056	1.549	.926	.018	51.01		
I am more likely to support the (Team)	4.715	1.433	.758	.029	28.17		

Satisfaction

I am satisfied with my decision to attend	6.219	1.055
I am satisfied with the outcome of the game	4.886	2.082

Table 2

Correlations among Subscales and Items from CFA Analysis

	1	2	3	4
1. Advertising	--			
2. Conative Loyalty	0.28	--		
3. Satisfaction with Decision to Attend	-0.15	0.28	--	
4. Satisfaction with Outcome	0.05	0.23	0.31	--

Table 3

Fit Measures and Latent Path Coefficients for All Four Models

	<i>df</i>	F_o	ϵ_a	$(\epsilon_{aL}; \epsilon_{aU})$	ECVI	χ^2	χ^2/df	Advertising ->		Satisfaction ->		Advertising->	
								β	$(\beta_L; \beta_U)$	β	$(\beta_L; \beta_U)$	β	$(\beta_L; \beta_U)$
Model 1W*	25	.060	.049	(.000; .093)	.593	32.312	1.29	.079	(-.079; .233)	.281	(.144; .417)	.267	(.125; .409)
Model 1L*	25	.205	.091	(.037; .137)	.998	41.842	1.67	-.307	(-.481; -.133)	.404	(.231; .577)	.404	(.223; .585)
Model 2W*	25	.054	.054	(.000; .096)	.605	33.803	1.352	.067	(-.086; .221)	.180	(.037; .323)	.277	(.132; .421)
Model 2L*	25	.139	.074	(.000; .124)	.931	36.369	1.45	.106	(-.083; .294)	.132	(-.053; .317)	.265	(.076; .454)

* Model 1W = Model 1 (Satisfaction with Decision to Attend – Home Team Won), Model 1L = Model 1 (Satisfaction with Decision to Attend – Home Team Lost), Model 2W = Model 2 (Satisfaction with Outcome – Home Team Won), Model 2L = Model 2 (Satisfaction with Outcome – Home Team Lost).

Figure Caption

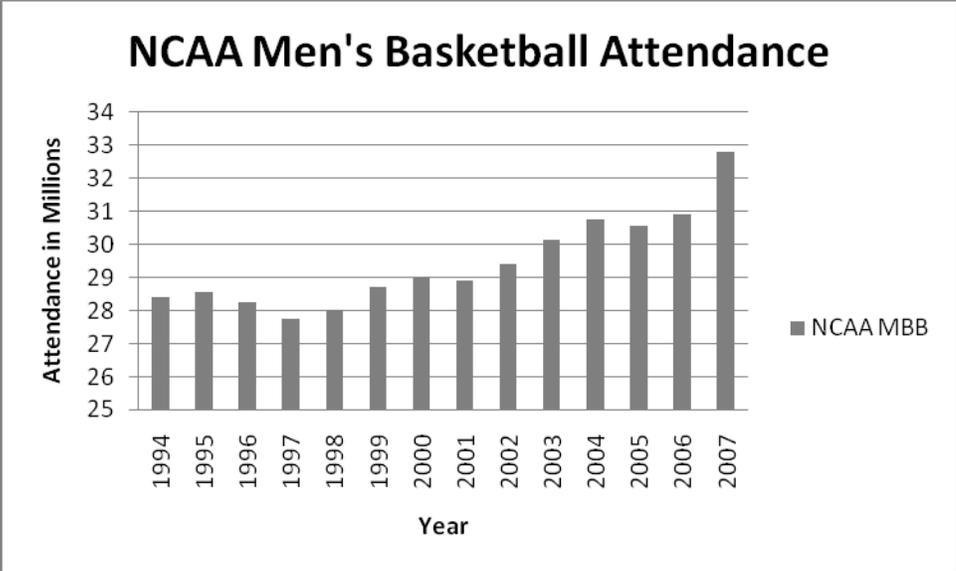
Figure 1. Attendance for NCAA Men's Basketball.

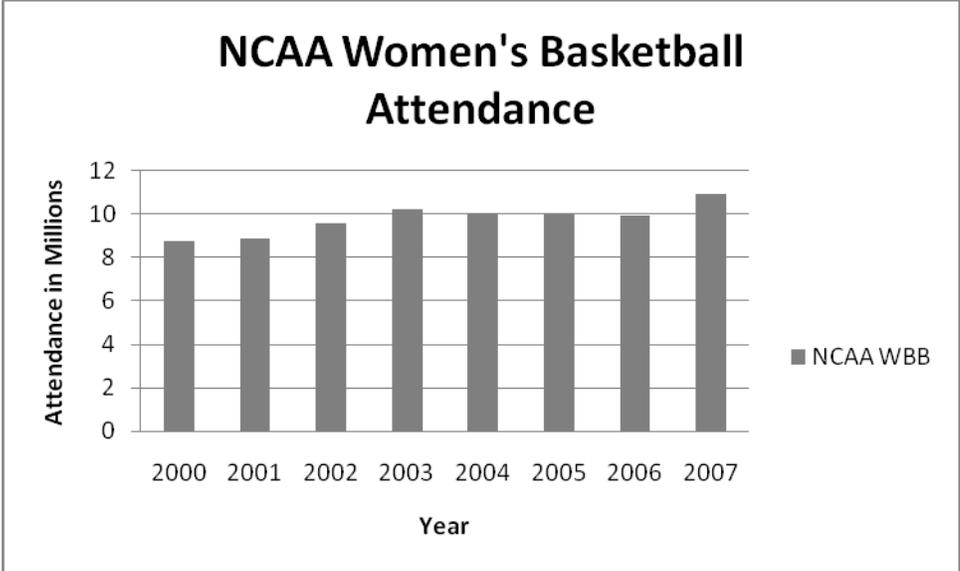
Figure 2. Attendance for NCAA Women's Basketball.

Figure 3. TV Ratings for NCAA Men's Basketball Tournament and Championship Game.

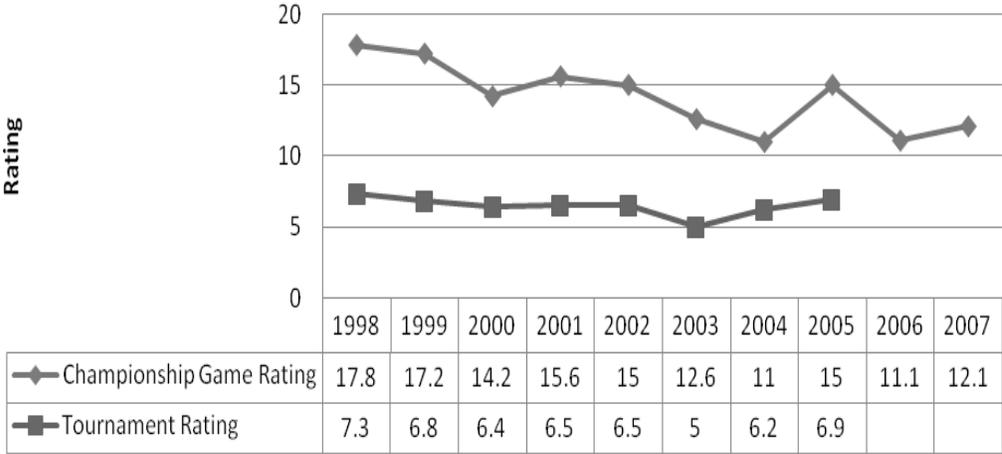
Figure 4. Model 1 depicting relationships among influence of advertising, satisfaction with the decision to attend the game, and conative loyalty (behavioral intentions) for both groups: those that attended a game in which the home team won (positive trial) and those that attended a game in which the home team lost (negative trial).

Figure 5. Model 2 depicting relationships among influence of advertising, satisfaction with the outcome of the game, and conative loyalty (behavioral intentions) for both groups: those that attended a game in which the home team won (positive trial) and those that attended a game in which the home team lost (negative trial).

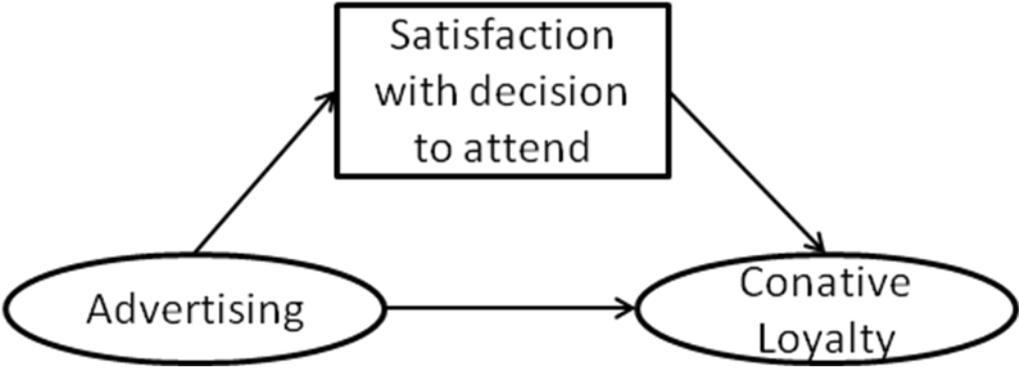




TV Ratings for NCAA Men's Basketball Tournament and Championship Game



Model 1



Model 2

