

PROMOTING CAUSE SPONSORSHIP ON CORPORATE WEB
SITES: PERCEIVED CONTROL OF NAVIGATION, NATURAL FIT,
AND CREATED FIT

A Dissertation

Presented to

The Faculty of the Graduate School

University of Missouri

In Particular Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

by

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JULY 2011

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dissertation entitled

**PROMOTING CAUSE SPONSORSHIP ON CORPORATE WEB
SITES: PERCEIVED CONTROL OF NAVIGATION, NATURAL FIT,
AND CREATED FIT**

Presented by Ye Wang

a candidate for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy,

and hereby certify that, in their opinion, it is worthy of acceptance.

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DEDICATION

To my parents, Wang Defu and Zhang Liulian, who define me.

To my husband Sun Lin, who has helped me through tough times.

To my sons, Sun Binhua and Sun Binwei, who have supported me with their sweet smile.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Traveling thousands of miles away from my hometown, I chose to begin my journal of academic pursuit in a “hard” way. I thought this journal could be difficult, but people with big hearts turn it into magic work. Taking this opportunity, I would like to acknowledge some of them.

First, I would like to express my sincere appreciation to my dissertation chair, adviser, and mentor Dr. Shelly Rodgers. I began to work with her on research since I first came to the master program at the J-school. She helped me start my life here and gave me intellectual inspirations. At the same time, I am impressed by her dedication to research, education, and family. I have learned from her the essential skills of being a scholar and a teacher. She encouraged me at times that I felt lost. She showed her consideration and understanding when I was pregnant. She led me to the field of strategic communication and helped me to identify my research interests and area. For the past five years, she helped me go through a lot of difficulties, and never refrained from sharing her true opinions and advice with me.

I also want to thank Dr. Glen Cameron for his support and inspiration. He led me into the area of health communication in news media. Working as his research assistant, I had the opportunity to explore my own ideas. When I have questions, he is always willing to help. It is very lucky for me to have Dr. Cameron on my committee. He generously allowed me to use his office space for my proposal meeting and defense.

The next person that I want to thank is Dr. Esther Thorson. I have taken a lot of good steps thanks to her insightful advice on my dissertation. Her help was especially crucial for designing the experiments for my dissertation. Her advice on manipulation and measurement significantly improve the quality of my research. In

addition to her help on research, she also wrote letters of recommendation for my job search.

Dr. Maria Len-Rios is also an important person in my Ph.D. program. She is the first person with whom I shared the first and earliest idea of my dissertation. She generously gave me a lot of advice on research. With her help, I start exploring the areas of cause-related marketing and corporate social responsibility. These experiences build a solid foundation for my dissertation.

Dr. Steven Osterlind is one of the best statistic teachers that I can ever have. He has this magic to turn difficult statistic concepts into simple languages. I have learned from him how to do quality research by applying appropriate statistical procedures. He is also a very generous person, who helped me a lot of times. Without him, the last two years of my Ph.D. program could not be the same.

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Dr. Shelly Rodgers, Dissertation Committee Chair

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present research is to examine the role of perceived control of navigation in online sponsorship-linked marketing. Specifically, the proposed research examines the influence of three independent variables - perceived control of navigation, degree of natural fit, and created-fit type - on cognitive elaboration, attitude formation, and purchase intention in the context of cause sponsorship-linked marketing on corporate Web sites. Applying schema congruity theory (Mandler, 1982) and the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002), the present research conducts two experiments. Experiment 1 examines the influence of 1) level of perceived control of navigation (IV1) and 2) degree of natural fit (IV2) on the following dependent variables: the number of positive and negative thoughts about the sponsor and the sponsorship, attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the sponsor's brand, attitude toward the sponsorship, and purchase intention. Experiment 2 examines the influence of 1) level of perceived control of navigation (IV1) and 2) created-fit type (IV2) on the following dependent variables: the number of positive thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship, attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the sponsor's brand, attitude toward the sponsorship, and purchase intention. The results from Experiments 1 and 2 were compared to examine whether created fit could enhance consumers' reactions for

natural fit. The results showed that perceived control of navigation could influence attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the brand and purchase intention. When perceived control of navigation was high, Type II created fit was significantly associated with fewer negative thoughts about the sponsorship, and more positive attitude toward the brand, attitude positive attitude toward the sponsorship, and higher purchase intention than low natural fit sponsorship. Theoretically, these results suggest that perceived control of navigation can influence brand attitude and purchase intention through attitude toward the Web site. Created fit, as a strategy drawing upon central route to persuasion depends upon high perceived control of navigation. Practically, this study suggests that corporate Web site is an ideal platform for communicating sponsorship associations, and created fit, assisted by Web-based interaction, can open up promising opportunities for companies that are of low fit with social causes.

Chapter I.

INTRODUCTION

For some time advertising scholars have been interested in the study of interactivity (e.g. McMillan, 2007; Sundar, Kalyanaraman, & Brown, 2003; Sundar & Kim, 2005). While various definitions of “interactivity” have been proposed by the functional (McMillan, Hoy, Kim, & McManhan, 2008), the perceptual (e.g. McMillan & Hwang, 2002; Song & Zinkhan, 2008; Wu, 2006), and the contingent (Rafaeli, 1988; Sundar, Kalyanaraman, & Brown, 2003; Sundar & Kim, 2005) view of interactivity, the present research draws from the perceptual view and adopts McMillan and Hwang’s (2002) and Wu’s (2006) definitions of Web-based interactivity. Wu (2006) defined Web-based perceived interactivity as “a psychological state experienced by a site-visitor during his or her interaction with a Web site” (p. 91). McMillan and Hwang (2002) defined interactivity as:

“Web-based interactivity involves communication among persons, the ability those persons have to control information and participate in active communication, and time – to load the message, to find information, to communicate with others, and the loss of time as the user gets caught in the flow of computer-mediated communication. Users’ perceptions of the direction of communication, control, and time are central to how interactive they perceive Web sites to be” (p. 34).

Web-based interactivity is a key factor that influences online sponsorship-linked marketing. Through online interaction, online sponsorship-linked marketing can reach a wider audience than the traditional strategy of sponsorship promotion, such as sponsoring events (Weeks, Cornwell, & Drennan, 2008). Previous studies on

online sponsorship-linked marketing concentrate on the influence of relevance and congruency in the context of online news Web sites (Rodgers, 2003, 2007; Rodgers, Cameron, & Brill, 2005) as well as sponsorship leveraging and activation in the context of corporate Web sites (Harvey, Gray, & Despain, 2006; Weeks, Cornwell, & Drennan, 2008). Built upon these efforts, the proposed research identifies Web-based interactivity as a key concept of online sponsorship-linked marketing through corporate Web sites. Examining a key concept of sponsorship “fit,” the current study opens up new opportunities by examining the psychological effects of communicating cause sponsorships on corporate websites. The proposed research examines interactivity in combination with “fit,” which is a frequently examined concept in sponsorship-linked marketing.

The present research examines the influence of three independent variables - perceived control of navigation, degree of natural fit, and created-fit type – on cognitive elaboration, attitude formation, and purchase intention. The context is cause sponsorship-linked marketing on corporate Web sites. Cause sponsorship is a growing area of sponsorship in recent years (Klayman, 2011) with more companies promoting cause sponsorship on their corporate Web sites. For example, P&G’s Web site has a section called “sustainability,” which advocates social causes that P&G is involved with, including sponsoring Feed America. While traditional sponsorship has an extensive scholarly literature that examines the effects of sponsorship on audience processing, few studies have examined the use and promotion of sponsorships online (see Rodgers, 2003). The Internet, with its unique interactive features, represents a fertile area in which to examine the effects of Web-based interactivity of cause sponsorship-linked marketing on audience processing. Unlike traditional sponsorships, which are examined predominantly in the context of sporting events (e.g., NASCAR,

Olympics, etc.), cause sponsorships on the Internet enable two-way communication with consumers who are interested in a company's cause sponsorship-linked marketing efforts. Thus, for corporate Web sites, such as P&G, Ford, and others, it is important to isolate which sponsorship features are the most important for understanding sponsorship effects online and what effects those features have on audience processing.

Applying schema congruity theory (Mandler, 1982) and ELM (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002), the proposed research attempts to fill this gap by conducting two experiments. Experiment 1 examines the influence of perceived control of navigation and degree of natural fit on cause sponsorship-linked marketing on corporate Web sites. Experiment 2 addresses the influence of perceived control of navigation and created-fit type on cause sponsorship-linked marketing on corporate Web sites. Combining data from Experiments 1 and 2, the present study also addresses a third research question, i.e., whether created fit can enhance consumers' attitudinal and behavioral reactions for natural fit under the condition of high versus low perceived control of navigation.

Experiment 1 employs a 2 (level of perceived control of navigation) x 2 (degree of natural fit) x 2 (message repetition) mixed factorial design with degree of natural fit (low vs. high) as a between-subjects factor and level of perceived control of navigation (low vs. high) and message repetition as within-subjects factors. Experiment 2 employs a 2 (level of perceived control of navigation) x 2 (created-fit type) x 2 (message repetition) mixed factorial design experiment with created-fit type (Type I created fit vs. Type II created fit) as a between-subjects factor. Level of perceived control of navigation (low vs. high) and message repetition are within-subjects factors. All IVs in Experiments 1 and 2 are manipulated (versus measured).

Specifically, Experiment 1 examines the influence of 1) level of perceived control of navigation (IV1) and 2) degree of natural fit (IV2) on the following dependent variables: the number of positive and negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship, attitude toward the sponsorship, and attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the sponsor's brand, and purchase intention. Experiment 2 examines the influence of 1) level of perceived control of navigation (IV1) and 2) created-fit type (IV2) on the following dependent variables: the number of positive thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship, attitude toward the sponsorship, attitude toward the sponsor's brand, and purchase intention.

The remainder of the present study is organized as follows. First, a review of perceived interactivity and perceived control of navigation is provided. Second, schema congruity theory is reviewed and applied to the affect-transfer effect of perceived control of navigation. Third, ELM is applied to explain the cognitive effect of perceived control of navigation. Fourth, natural fit and created fit are discussed relative to effects on consumer attitude and behaviors in relation to cause sponsorship and in combination with perceived control of navigation. Last, the method, results, and discussions are provided.

Chapter II.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The context of this study is cause sponsorship-linked marketing on corporate Web sites. Sponsorship refers to “a cash and/or in-kind fee paid to a property (typically a sports, entertainment, non-profit event or organization) in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with the property” (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005, p. 21). The proposed research draws on this definition of “sponsorship” to define cause sponsorship-linked marketing. However, the definition does not specify *cause* sponsorship, which is a unique type of sponsorship. No known definition of cause sponsorship exists in the academic literature, so the present research draws on existing definitions from the trade literature. Cause sponsorship is considered as one type of sponsorship, in addition to sports sponsorship, arts sponsorship, and entertainment sponsorship (IEG, 2000). Pat Coyle, president of Coyle Media, provides a definition of cause sponsorship: “a brand is clearly identified as a cause supporter” (Coyle, 2007). Joe Water, Director of the Cause Marketing for Boston Hospital points out that cause sponsorship can be defined as “a partnership between a non-profit and a for-profit for mutual profit” (Water, 2010). Based on these industry definitions, the proposed research defines cause sponsorship as one type of sponsorship in which firms form partnerships with social causes or non-profits committing to social causes for mutual benefit.

In 2010, the global spending on sponsorship as a whole grew to \$48.7 billion (Klayman, 2011). Spending on cause sponsorship in 2010 increased by 6.1%, which was above the overall growth rate of 5.2% for all types of sponsorships combined in 2010 (Klayman, 2011). Thus, it is clear that cause sponsorship is growing in

popularity in the traditional realm but cause sponsorship is becoming an important part of the sponsorship landscape, specifically on corporate Web sites (Weeks, Cornwell, & Drennan, 2008). Corporate Web sites have become part of “the orchestration and implementation of marketing activities for the purpose of the building and communicating an association to a sponsorship” (Cornwell, 1995, p. 15) – i.e., sponsorship-linked marketing. As an online channel for marketing communications, corporate Web sites provide opportunities for companies to interact with cause sponsorship audiences at the mass-media audience level (Weeks, Cornwell, & Drennan, 2008). Given this background, corporate Web sites present an opportunity to examine the role of perceived interactivity – examined in the next section – in cause sponsorship-linked marketing.

2.1. Interactivity, perceived interactivity, and perceived control of navigation

“Perceived interactivity” or “interactivity,” sometimes used inter-changeably in the literature, is one of the unique features of Internet advertising (McMillan, 2007). The proposed research conceptualizes “perceived interactivity” within the boundaries of “Web-based interactivity” defined by McMillan and Hwang (2002) and Wu (2006). Perceived interactivity has received perhaps the most attention in the Internet advertising literature (Sundar & Kim, 2005), since perceived interactivity has a strong association with consumers’ attitude and behaviors (McMillan, 2002). However, despite the vast and growing literature on this concept, perceived interactivity is arguably the least understood concept in the Internet literature (Rodgers & Thorson, 2000).

To avoid confusion, the proposed research differentiates perceived interactivity from interactivity. “Interactivity” in the proposed research designates a more general concept, whereas perceived interactivity is conceived as being more

specifically about the perceptual view of interactivity. There are three predominant views of interactivity, including the functional view, the contingent view, and the perceptual view (Kioussis, 2002; McMillan, 2002; McMillan & Hwang, 2002; McMillan, Hoy, Kim, & McManhan, 2008; Song & Bucy, 2006). The functional view defines interactivity based on technological features (McMillan, Hoy, Kim, & McManhan, 2008); the contingent view defines interactivity based on the responsiveness of the communication process (Rafaeli, 1988; Sundar, Kalyanaraman, & Brown, 2003; Sundar & Kim, 2005); and, the perceptual view defines interactivity based on user perception (e.g. McMillan & Hwang, 2002; Song & Zinhan, 2008; Wu, 2006). Interactivity, defined by the functional view, is often called function-based interactivity. The contingent view is also called process-based interactivity in the literature (McMillan & Hwang, 2002). Interactivity, defined by the perceptual view, is often called “perceived interactivity” and is the preferred concept used by the present research.

Perceived interactivity is a multi-dimensional concept (McMillan & Hwang, 2002; Wu, 2006). According to Wu (2006), perceived interactivity consists of perceived control, perceived responsiveness, and perceived personalization of the Web site. Perceived control refers to users’ perception of the ease or difficulty of interacting with the Web site (Wu, 2006). Perceived control consists of control over site navigation, pace of interaction, and content being accessed (Wu, 2006). Control over site navigation is called “control navigation” in McMillan and Hwang (2002). As shown here, terms are often mixed or some times different terms mean the same thing in the Internet advertising literature. To reduce confusion and to highlight the relationship between control over Web site navigation/control navigation and perceived interactivity, the present study uses the term “perceived control of

navigation.” Thus, perceived control of navigation is a component of “perceived control,” which is a key dimension of “perceived interactivity” (Wu, 2006). In a practical sense, marketing and communications practitioners must understand effects of navigation in corporate Web sites that promote cause sponsorship since poor navigation in a Web site may affect how consumers react to the cause sponsorship, the brand, and ultimately, the Web site itself (see Rodgers, 2003).

Although at least one prior study has examined multiple dimensions of perceived interactivity as part of a single study (e.g., Wu, 2006), the results may be difficult to interpret since it is unclear which dimension affects which audience processes, or outcomes. An arguably “superior” approach is to isolate a single dimension of perceived interactivity to gain a clear understanding of its influence on audience processing. Given the difficulty involved with examining multi-dimensional concepts, the proposed research chooses to focus on one aspect of perceived interactivity, which is perceived control of navigation.

Perceived control of navigation is defined, in the present research, as the ease or difficulty with which users can figure out where they are on the Web site and then choose their course of visit to the Web site (Wu, 2006). Hence, the present research defines perceived control of navigation in a similar manner to that of Wu (2006) who initially defined perceived control, since Wu’s (2006) definition reflects the theoretical origins of perceived control, specifically perceived control of behavior that comes from the perceptual view on interactivity – consistent with the preferred view that guides the present research. Perceived behavior control is a more general concept in the theory of planned behavior, which refers to people’s perception of the ease or difficulty of performing the behavior of interest (Ajzen, 1991). Perceived behavior control is similar to perceived control of navigation in that both concepts refer to the

perceived ease/difficulty of performing a behavior. However, perceived control of navigation differs in that the context is specific to Web sites. As such, a major argument forwarded here is that to navigate the Web site, the user must understand his/her position on the Web site compared to known locations or patterns and locate a particular piece of information. Hence, users' perceived control of navigation continually changes during a Web site visit to the extent that Web site navigation assists or deters users' understanding of his/her position on the site and locating a particular piece of information. In this sense, perceived control of navigation differs from the more general concept of perceived control of behavior since Web sites represent a fluid context in which consumers' perceived control of behavior – specifically, navigation – is dependent on the organization of various textual and non-textual forms of information online and the linkages between them (Coyle & Gould, 2002).

Perceived control of navigation and navigability are two related but different concepts. Navigability is a concept in computer science, defined as an important attribute of usability that denotes the ease with which user find desired information as they move through a Web site (Zhou, Leung, & Winoto, 2007). Perceived control of navigation and navigability are different since navigability concentrates on the designing aspect of Web site navigation, and perceived control of navigation emphasizes users' perception of navigating a Web site. Specifically, navigability refers to a set of general rules of Web site design, especially rules of designing Web site structure, such as what is the optimal average number of clicks to get to a require page (Zhou, Leung, & Winoto, 2007). However, perceived control of navigation refers to users' feeling of the ease and difficulty of navigating a Web site (Wu, 2006). In addition, analyzing Web site structures, such as the complexity of the Web site

structure and the length of path leading to a particular Web page, is a common method of measuring navigability (Zhou, Leung, & Winoto, 2007). In contrast, self-reported questionnaires are a common method of measuring perceived control of navigation. The above comparison shows that perceived control of navigation places more emphasis on users' psychological experience than navigability. Since users' psychological experience has a stronger association with users' attitude and behavior intentions than designing features, the present study chooses perceived control of navigation as the key concept.

As argued earlier, to navigate a Web site, the user must understand his/her position on the Web site compared to known locations or patterns. Subsequently, perceived control of navigation could be high or low. Low perceived control of navigation refers to situations in which the user feels a Web site visit requires a lot of effort to figure out where they are on the Web site and choose their course of action. High perceived control of navigation refers to situations where the user feels a Web site visit requires little to no effort to figure out where they are on the Web site and choose their course of action. The following sections discuss the effects of high versus low perceived control of navigation on audience processing.

2.2. Effects of perceived control of navigation

The present study postulates that perceived control of navigation has two effects on the formation of attitude toward the brand and purchase intention. Briefly, the first effect refers to the process that perceived control of navigation influences attitude toward the brand and purchase intention by transferring attitude toward the Web site onto the cause sponsorship. According to the hierarchy-of-effects model, attitude toward the advertisements can lead to changes in attitude toward the brand,

which in turn lead to changes in purchase intention (McGuire, 1969; Rodgers, Thorson, & Jin, 2009). Therefore, perceived control of navigation can influence attitude toward the brand and purchase intention through attitude toward the Web site. This process is called the affect-transfer effect of perceived control of navigation in the present study. The affect-transfer effect of perceived control of navigation is explained in detail in Section 2.2.1.

Second, perceived control of navigation is a determinant of cognitive ability of processing sponsorship messages conveyed on the Web site. Since positive and negative thoughts about the sponsor as a result of cognitive processing can influence brand attitude and purchase intention (Liu & Shrum, 2009; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002), perceived control of navigation can influence brand attitude and purchase intention by facilitating or inhibiting consumers' cognitive ability (Liu & Shrum, 2009). Specifically, when perceived control of navigation is facilitating cognitive processing, central processing of sponsorship messages will increase (Liu & Shrum, 2009; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002). The quality and features of the sponsorship are more likely to make difference in terms of attitude toward the brand and purchase intention. For example, low natural-fit sponsorship is more likely to elicit negative attitude toward the brand and lower purchase intention than high natural-fit sponsorship when perceived control of navigation is high than low. On the contrary, when perceived control of navigation is inhibiting cognitive processing, central processing of sponsorship messages will decrease (Liu & Shrum, 2009; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002). The quality and features of the sponsorship are less likely to make difference in terms of attitude toward the brand and purchase intention. This process is called the cognitive effect of perceived control of navigation in the present study, which is

explained in detail in Section 2.2.2. The two effects of perceived control of navigation is summarized in Figure 1.

This model of the effects of perceived control of navigation is different from Liu and Shrum's (2009) Dual-Process Model of Interactivity Effects although both models incorporate the facilitating and inhibiting effects of interactivity during the actual use of perceived control of navigation. The differences between this model and Liu and Shrum's (2009) model are two-fold. First, Liu and Shrum's (2009) model shows that the mere presence of interactivity is a positive peripheral cue while this model points out that the effects of perceived control of navigation are present only in the actual use of interactivity. Second, in contrast to Liu and Shrum's (2009) model, this model points out that brand attitude and behavior intention are determined by the combination of the inhibiting and facilitating effects of perceived control of navigation on central processing and the effects of transferring attitude toward the Web site during the actual use of the Web site. The following two sections further explicate the affect-transfer effect and the cognitive effect of perceived control of navigation.

2.2.1. The affect-transfer effect of perceived control of navigation

The affect-transfer effect of perceived control of navigation refers to the process that attitude toward the Web site as a result of high and low perceived control of navigation are associated with attitude toward the brand and purchase intention. Previous studies showed that high-perceived control of navigation could lead to positive attitude toward the Web site while low perceived control of navigation can lead to negative attitude toward the Web site. For example, by collecting responses to corporate Web sites from a group of MBA students, third party-ratings, and a

software agent in 1997, 1999, and 2000, Palmer (2002) found that ease of navigation is significantly related to the success of corporate Web sites. Kang and Kim (2006) pointed out that a negative perception of navigability could make consumers feel the Web site is less informative and entertaining. In addition, studies on online retailing Web sites also suggest that perceived control of navigation is the key to the success of a Web site. For example, Gommans, Krishnan, and Scheffold (2001) argued that ease of navigation is one of the critical factors that can influence consumers' loyalty to the retailing Web site. Szymanski and Hise (2000) found that perceived ease of navigation is the second most important factor that influenced consumers' satisfaction with the online shopping experience (the first was convenience) (Szymanski & Hise, 2000).

While most research identifies perceived control of navigation as an important factor that influences consumers' attitude toward the Web site, only a few studies explain the psychological mechanism of high versus low perceived control of navigation and its influence on consumers' reaction. To bridge this gap, the proposed research applies schema congruity theory (Mandler, 1982) to explain the relationship between high versus low perceived control of navigation and attitude toward the Web site.

Schema congruity theory assumes an associative network of memory (Heckler & Chelders, 1992) in which knowledge is stored in the form of a schema. A schema refers to any mental presentations of structure of knowledge (Mandler, 1982). There are different schemas defined at various levels of abstraction, for example media-based ad schemas, ad genre schemas, product category ad schemas, and brand ad schemas (Stoltman, 1990). In the context of a Web site, "a Web site schema is defined as the consumer's set of beliefs about information, and routes to those

locations, for a specific Web site” (Bellman & Rossiter, 2006, p. 39). The extent to which the information structure of a Web site matches the Web site schema is called “congruity” (Bellman & Rossiter, 2006).

High and low congruity is associated with high and low perceived control of navigation. When the information structure of the Web site matches the activated Web site schema, the level of congruity is said to be high (Bellman & Rossiter, 2006). When the actual information structure of the Web site is highly congruent with the activated Web site schema, users feel that it requires a lesser amount of cognitive resources to figure out the site’s navigation (Mandler, 1982). Consequently, perceived control of navigation is high. On the contrary, when the actual information structure of the Web site does not match the activated Web site schema, the level of congruity is said to be low (Bellman & Rossiter, 2006). When the actual information structure of the Web site is of low congruity with the activated Web site schema, users feel that it requires more effortful cognitive processing of the site-navigation (Mandler, 1982). Consequently, perceived control of navigation is low.

This study points out that high and low congruity depends upon two general aspects of Web site schema: semantic Web site schema and structural Web site schema. Semantic Web site schema refers to users’ expectations about distal related content based on meanings of proximal cues on a Web site. An example of semantic Web site schema is users’ expectations of categorical consistency of Web site content. For example, clicking on the navigation item of “Corporate Philosophy” indicates that the user expects to read about the companies’ philosophy. In contrast, structural Web site schema refers to users’ expectation about the path that leads to a particular piece of information. An example of structural Web site schema is in-site navigation aids, such as the backward button (Bellman & Rossiter, 2006). Typically, users expect to

use the “back” button to go back to the previous page (Bellman & Rossiter, 2006).

When the back button is missing from the Web site the actual information structure of the Web site is of low congruity with the activated Web site schema (Bellman & Rossiter, 2006).

Consequently, high and low perceived control of navigation is dependent upon the congruity of semantic Web site schema and structural Web site schema. Take users’ expectation of categorical consistency as an example of semantic Web site schema. When users’ expectations of categorical consistency of Web site content is violated by the actual information structure of the Web site, users will feel it is difficult to figure out where they are on the Web site and find it difficult choose their course of action on the Web site. In these instances, perceived control of navigation will be low. When users’ expectation of categorical consistency of the Web site content is met, users will feel it is easy to figure out where they are on the Web site and choose their course of action. Consequently, perceived control of navigation in these instances will be high. Take in-site navigation aids as an example of structural Web site schema. When the Web site does not have the expected in-site navigation aids, users will feel it is difficult to navigate the Web site, and perceived control of navigation is subsequently low. When the Web site has the expected in-site navigation aids, users will feel it is easy to navigation the Web site, and perceived control of navigation is subsequently high.

Low congruity between Web site schema and the actual information structure of a Web site has been used to explain the relationship between perceived control of navigation and consumer attitude and behaviors toward advertising (Bell & Rossiter, 2006; Coyle & Could, 2002). By conducting three field experiments, Bell and Rossiter (2006) found that Web site schema congruency, i.e., the congruency between

a consumer's Web site schema and the actual structure of a particular site, is associated with higher ratings of the ease of navigation, a more favorable attitude toward brands advertised on the site, and the quality of consumers' purchase-decisions. By asking participants to write down their experience of navigating a particular Web site, Coley and Gould (2002) found that consumers have specific and sophisticated expectations about Web site navigation. Their results showed that violation of the expected schema of Web site navigation might severely undermine advertisers' ability to keep consumers from switching to other Web sites (Coyle & Gould, 2002).

Built upon these findings, and according to schema congruity theory, high-perceived control of navigation is predicted to be more likely to elicit positive attitude toward the Web site as compared to low perceived control of navigation. When the actual information structure of the Web site is highly congruent with the activated Web site schema, users feel that it requires a lesser amount of cognitive resources to figure out the site's navigation, which is the defining feature of high-perceived control of navigation (Mandler, 1982). Since less effortful cognitive processing is more likely to trigger positive affect (Mandler, 1982), high perceived control of navigation is more likely to elicit positive attitude toward the Web site. In other words, the ease with which the user navigates through the Web site is more likely to lead to positive attitude toward the Web site. On the contrary, low perceived control of navigation is more likely to trigger negative attitude toward the Web site as compared to high-perceived control of navigation. Since low perceived control of navigation is associated with low congruity, low perceived control of navigation involves more effortful cognitive processing of the site-navigation (Mandler, 1982). The frustration, as a result of effortful cognitive processing, is likely to trigger negative affect, and

therefore leads to negative attitude toward the Web site. In other words, the frustration from the experienced difficulty necessary to figure out the navigation of the Web site leads to negative consumer attitude. Therefore, the present study hypothesizes that:

H1: Attitude toward the Web site is more positive when perceived control of navigation is high versus low.

Attitude toward the Web site, like attitude toward advertisements, can influence attitude toward brands being advertised on the Web site according to the hierarchy-of-effects (HOE) model (Rodgers, Thorson, & Jin, 2009). HOE model is a classic advertising framework, which has a well-established framework that helps to understand the relationship between consumer attitude toward advertising, the advertised brand, and purchase intention (Rodgers, Thorson, & Jin, 2009). HOE indicates order of processing stages of consumer's responses to advertisements (McGuire, 1969; Rodgers, Thorson, & Jin, 2009). Attitude toward the Web site is the basis of change in terms of attitude toward the brand.

Specifically, when attitude toward the Web site is low, attitude toward the brand advocated on the Web site are also likely to be low. Translating this logic, the present study hypothesizes that:

H2: Attitude toward the brand are more positive when perceived control of navigation is high versus low.

Continuing the logic afforded by the HOE models, purchase intentions are higher when attitude toward the advertisement and/or attitude toward the brand are also high. Therefore, if attitude toward the advertised brand is low, we would expect purchase intent or purchase behavior to be low as well, as predicted by HOE (Rodgers, Thorson, & Jin, 2009). Thus, when perceived control of navigation is low, negative

attitude toward the brand as a result of negative attitude toward the Web site will lead to lower purchase intention. Therefore, the present study hypothesizes that:

H3: Purchase intention is higher when perceived control of navigation is high versus low.

Figure 2 summarizes the affect-transfer effect of perceived control of navigation. The following section concentrates on the cognitive effect of perceived control of navigation.

2.2.2. The cognitive effect of perceived control of navigation

The cognitive effect of perceived control of navigation points out that perceived control of navigation is a determinant of consumers' ability of cognitive processing. Specifically, in the context of cause sponsorship-linked marketing communication, perceived control of navigation is a determinant of cognitive ability of processing sponsorship messages.

Within the theoretical framework of the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM), ability of cognitive processing is one of the determinants of peripheral route processing and central route process. ELM is a theory about mass media persuasion (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002). It helps to explain the relationship between media message features, such as quality of arguments, consumer traits, such as involvement, and attitude formation and behavior intention (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002). The core of ELM is central route processing and peripheral route processing (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002). Central route to persuasion:

“involves effortful cognitive activity whereby the person draws on prior experience and knowledge in order to carefully scrutinize all of the information

relevant to determining the central merits of the position advocated” (Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002, p. 165).

According to Petty, Priester, and Briñol (2002), central route processing can lead to attitude change that is predictive of behaviors. On the contrary, the peripheral route to persuasion does not involve effortful cognitive processing (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002). Rather, persuasion can occur by a peripheral route in which simple cues, such as the presence of a celebrity or easy Web site navigation, can influence consumers’ attitude (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002).

Within the framework of ELM, perceived control of navigation is conceptualized as a determinant of cognitive ability to process sponsorship messages on a corporate Web site (Liu & Shurm, 2009). Cognitive ability is a necessary condition for central route processing (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002). When perceived control of navigation is low, cognitive processing of Web site navigation is an effortful process so users will have less cognitive resource available to elaborate on messages conveyed through the Web site. As a result, users are distracted from cognitive processing of sponsorship messages. On the contrary, when perceived control of navigation is high, cognitive processing of Web site navigation is an effortless process so users will have more cognitive resource available to process information related to the Web site and conveyed on the Web site, such as sponsorship brands and messages on the Web site. As a result, users can concentrate on central route to persuasion, which forms attitude based on cognitive elaboration.

Therefore, perceived control of navigation is a moderator which sets up two conditions for the cognitive processing of sponsorship brands and messages on the

Web site: low perceived control of navigation associated with lower cognitive ability of processing sponsorship messages and high perceived control of navigation associated with higher cognitive ability of processing sponsorship messages.

Figure 3 summarizes the cognitive effect of perceived control of navigation. It should be noted that this graph does not show the relationship between perceived control of navigation and attitude toward the sponsor's brand and purchase intention since attitude toward the brand and purchase intention are further influenced by "fit" between the sponsor and sponsored social cause given the specific situation of cause sponsorship-linked marketing on corporate Web sites.

To further explicate the cognitive effects of perceived control of navigation in the context of cause sponsorship-linked marketing, the following part examines fit, an important advertising cue in sponsorship-linked marketing, under high versus low perceived control of navigation.

2.3. Fit

Fit is the most frequently examined theoretical concept examined in the sponsorship literature (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005). In Cornwell, Weeks, and Roy's (2005) review of studies on sponsorship, studies on fit were the largest category of sponsorship studies. The concept of fit has various names in the literature, such as matching, congruency, relatedness, and similarity (Cornwell, Weeks, & Roy, 2005). Fit also has been used to name a particular type or aspect of fit. For example, perceived fit, created fit, natural fit, and so on.

Fit, in the sponsorship and brand extensions literatures, has been defined in various ways. For instance, fit is defined based on function-based similarities (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Jagre, Watson, & Watson, 2001), image-based similarities

(Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Jagre, Watson, & Watson, 2001), target audience-based similarities (Cornwell & Maignan, 1998; Nichols, Roslow, & Laskey, 1994), shared meaning (Cornwell & Smith, 2001), or a combination of these factors (Poon & Predergast, 2006). Briefly, Gwinner and Eaton (1999) defined function-based similarities as similarities between the function of the sponsor's product and the sponsored event, and image-based similarities are defined as similarities between the image of the event and the image of the brand. Cornwell and Smith (2001) defined congruity as shared meanings between the social cause and the sponsor. Cornwell and Maignan (1998) and Nichols, Roslow, and Laskey (1994) defined fit in terms of the shared target audiences of the event and the brand.

To avoid confusion, the proposed research adopts the terms “natural fit” and “created fit” as two key concepts of this study. Natural fit refers to the extent to which a firm and a sponsored cause are perceived as being congruent “whether that congruity is derived from the mission, products, markets, technologies, attributes, brand concepts, or any other key association” (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006, p. 155). Created fit is defined as non-salient associations between a sponsor and a sponsee (i.e., the company, cause or event being sponsored) that are highlighted in the marketing communication of the sponsorship (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006; Bridges, Keller, & Sood, 2000).

The proposed research examines natural fit for the following reasons. First, compared with created fit, natural fit has been examined more frequently in the scholarly literature. Those results have yielded mixed findings in that high natural fit sometimes yields the most positive outcomes as compared to low natural fit and sometimes vice versa (Jagre, Watson, & Watson, 2001). Thus, by examining a theoretical concept from the traditional sponsorship literature and applying it to an

online context, the proposed research extends the existing literature and provides another context in which to examine the concept of fit. Second, from a practical standpoint, natural fit offers companies a low-risk sponsorship since the sponsor's product, image, etc. is assumed to share similarities with the sponsored social cause.

The proposed research also examines created fit because contrary to natural fit— which creatively speaking, has only a few opportunities to describe and explain their corporate sponsorships to potential audiences, the sponsor must actively promote the connection between its product and sponsored cause – created fit (Rifon, Choi, Trimble, & Li, 2004). Created fit occurring in corporate websites can explain the purpose or motive in sponsoring events or causes that either “match” the sponsored product or, importantly, that do not “match” the sponsored product. This point will be elaborated on in a future section. The point is that while an abundance of studies have examined what is essentially “natural fit”, few studies have examined “created fit” which opens up new avenues for brands that want to associate with social/health causes that may or may not relate directly to their product – and it is, indeed, a trend in the strategic communication industry.

Because natural fit has a fairly well defined literature, the next section begins with a discussion of natural fit as it pertains to cause sponsorships, as well as the specific arguments forwarded in this research and the accompanying hypothesis, followed by a discussion and hypothesis development related to created fit. At the end, this study also compares the effects of natural fit and created fit under the conditions of high versus low perceived control of navigation.

2.3.1. Natural fit

Natural fit is also called perceived fit in the literature. The notion of *perceived fit* was introduced by Park, Milberg, and Lawson (1991) who defined perceived fit as a process of categorization by which consumers determine whether it is suitable to categorize a new product under a given brand (Park, Milberg, & Lawson, 1991). It was noted earlier that some definitions do not use the term “perceived fit” per se but, indeed, draw on a perceptual view of fit. For instance, d’Astous and Bitz (1995) defined fit in terms of “perceived symbiosis between the sponsor and the event” (p. 9). McDaniel (1999) defined fit as perceived match (or similarity) between the sponsored event or organization’s image attributes, the sponsor’s image attributes, and/or the function of a product. Simmons and Becker-Olsen (2006) used the term “natural fit” to refer to perceived fit. Following Simmons and Becker-Olsen’s (2006) practice, the proposed research adopts the term “natural fit” to refer to “perceived fit.”

To focus on natural fit rather than antecedents of natural fit, the proposed research also adopts Simmons and Becker-Olsen’s (2006) definition of natural fit. The sponsorship literature differentiates natural fit and its antecedents. Antecedents of natural fit refer to associations that serve as the basis for natural fit. Association, also called categorical association, refers to relational information about a brand with other categories stored in the associative networks of memory, for example product category-based associations, brand image-based associations, or any brand or product-specific associations (Bridges, Keller, & Sood, 2000). Speed and Thompson (2000), Bridges, Keller, and Sood (2000), and Fleck and Quester (2007) pointed out that function-based similarities, image-based similarities, target audience-based similarities, and shared meanings are the basis upon which natural fit are established. Simmons and Becker-Olsen’s (2006) definition particularly makes a distinction between natural fit and its antecedents. Therefore, the proposed research adopts their

definition, which is the extent to which a firm and a sponsored cause are perceived as being congruent “whether that congruity is derived from the mission, products, markets, technologies, attributes, brand concepts, or any other key association” (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006, p. 155).

Natural fit can range from a high to a low level depending on the psychological salience of sponsorship associations in the associative networks of memory based on schema congruity theory (Bridges, Keller, & Sood, 2000; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). There are salient associations and non-salient associations between a sponsor and a sponsee. Sponsorships based on salient associations are perceived as being a high natural fit, while sponsorships not based on salient associations are perceived as being a low natural fit (Bridges, Keller, & Sood, 2000; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). For example, Ford as a car brand has a salient association with car races. Consequently, a sponsorship involving Ford and NASCAR is an example of high natural fit. On the contrary, breast cancer is a female-specific disease caused by malignant tumors in the breast tissue. The association between Ford and breast cancer is not salient. Therefore, a sponsorship involving Ford and Susan G. Komen Breast Cancer Foundation is an example of low natural fit.

Low natural fit is likely to trigger negative thoughts related to the sponsor, and high natural fit is likely to trigger positive thoughts related to the sponsor. This is in line with previous studies on the influence of low versus high natural fit on cognitive elaboration. Some of these studies conceptualize natural fit as a moderator of the relationship between sponsorship-linked marketing and consumers’ attitude and behavior changes (McCraken, 1989; Gwinner, 1997 cited from Cornwell & Smith, 2001). For example, within the theoretical framework of meaning transfer, natural fit moderates the process of transferring the meaning of the sponsored event to the

meaning of the sponsor's brand (Gwinner & Waton, 1999). Specifically, if there are salient associations between the sponsor and the sponsored event, the meaning transfer will be stronger (Gwinner & Waton, 1999). If there are not salient associations between the sponsor and the sponsored event, the meaning transfer will be weaker (Gwinner & Waton, 1999). The strength of the meaning transfer determines consumer's attitude and behaviors toward the sponsor's brand (Gwinner & Waton, 1999). In their study, Gwinner and Watson (1999) found that either an image or functional based fit between the sponsor and sponsored event could enhance the meaning transfer process. While Gwinner and Watson (1999) conceptualizes natural fit as a moderator of the meaning-transfer process, Rifon, Choi, Trimble, and Li (2004) concentrated on its influence on one type of sponsor-related thoughts: sponsor motives. They found that high natural fit generated more consumer attributions of altruistic sponsor motives than low natural fit (Rifon, Choi, Trimble, & Li, 2004). In addition to the study on thoughts about the sponsor, Simmons and Becker-Olsen (2006) found that high natural fit generated more positive thoughts about the sponsorship than lows natural fit (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). All in all, previous studies indicate that natural fit can influence cognitive elaboration about the sponsor and the sponsorship, and consequently impact on attitude formation.

Among various cognitive elaboration surrounding the sponsor, two types of thoughts are associated with the formation of brand attitude. The first type is thoughts about the sponsor's brand. According to ELM, positive and negative thoughts about the sponsor's brand are directly associated with attitude toward the sponsor's brand (Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002; Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Specifically, low natural fit will be likely to elicit negative thoughts about the sponsor's brand, like low natural fit could elicit more consumer attributions of extrinsic sponsor motives. High

natural fit will be likely to elicit positive thoughts about the sponsor's brand, like high natural fit could elicit more consumer attributions of intrinsic sponsor motives.

Translating this logic, the present study hypothesizes that:

H4a: Low natural fit generates more negative thoughts about the brand than high natural fit.

H4b: High natural fit generates more positive thoughts about the brand than low natural fit.

In addition to thoughts about the sponsor's brand, ELM also indicates that positive and negative thoughts about the sponsorship are directly associated with attitude toward the sponsorship (Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002), which, in turn, influences attitude toward the sponsor's brand (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Specifically, low natural fit will be likely to elicit negative thoughts about the sponsorship, and high natural fit will be likely to elicit positive thoughts about the sponsorship. Therefore, the present study hypothesizes that:

H5a: Low natural fit generates more negative thoughts about the sponsorship than high natural fit.

H5b: High natural fit generates more positive thoughts about the sponsorship than low natural fit.

Since the numbers of positive and negative thoughts determine related attitude, the present study further predicts that:

H6: High natural fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the sponsorship than low natural fit.

H7: High natural fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the brand than low natural fit.

According to HOE, attitude toward the brand is associated with purchase intention, the present study poses the following hypothesis:

H8: High natural fit is associated with higher purchase intention than low natural fit.

However, the above discussion based on previous studies does not consider the influence of perceived control of navigation on sponsorship-linked marketing. Since perceived control of navigation can influence consumer's ability of cognitive elaboration, (Liu & Shrum, 2009; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002), it is possible that perceived control of navigation can alter the influence of natural fit on positive and negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship, and consequently attitude toward the brand and the sponsorship. To bridge this gap, the present study analyzes the influence of natural fit on consumers' reactions to sponsorship under the conditions of high versus low perceived control of navigation.

When perceived control of navigation is high, consumers will have the cognitive ability necessary for central route processing. Specifically, when perceived control of navigation is high, the number of positive and negative thoughts determines attitude related to the sponsorship and the brand. This cognitive processing is a process of making positive or negative connections between the sponsors and the sponsored social cause (Cornwell & Smith, 2001; Gwinner & Waton, 1999; Rifon, Choi, Trimble, & Li, 2004), like consumer attributions of extrinsic and intrinsic sponsor motives. As pointed out before, low versus high natural fit can influence the valence of cognitive elaboration. Therefore, low natural fit will trigger people to think negatively about the sponsorship and the brand, while high natural fit will trigger people to think positively about the sponsorship and the brand.

On the contrary, when perceived control of navigation is low, there will be limited cognitive resource processing sponsorship messages. Consumers cannot concentrate on cognitive elaboration. Therefore, the difference between high and low natural fit in terms of the amount of positive and negative thoughts will be mitigated. Or in other words, consumers are so distracted that they are not able to make either positive or negative connections between the sponsor and the sponsored organization, and consequently generate significantly different amounts of positive or negative thoughts about the sponsor when perceived control of navigation is low. Translating the above logic, the present study hypothesizes that:

H9a: Low natural fit generates more negative thoughts about the brand than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference in negative thoughts between low and high natural fit is smaller when perceived control of navigation is low.

H9b: High natural fit generates more positive thoughts about the brand than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference in positive thoughts between low and high natural fit is smaller when perceived control of navigation is low.

H10a: Low natural fit generates more negative thoughts about the sponsorship than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference in negative thoughts between low and high natural fit is smaller when perceived control of navigation is low.

H10b: High natural fit generates more positive thoughts about the sponsorship than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference in positive thoughts between low and high natural fit is smaller when perceived control of navigation is low.

The amount of positive and negative thoughts determines whether related attitude is positive or negative when central route to persuasion takes place (Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002). Therefore, when perceived control of navigation is low, low natural fit is associated with more negative attitude toward the brand and the sponsorship than high natural fit. In contrast, when perceived control of navigation is high, persuasion is not mainly through central route processing. Affect-transfer effect of perceived control of navigation will take place. Consumers will switch their attention to perceived control of navigation rather than natural fit. Since perceived control of navigation is low, people will tend to think negatively about both high and low natural-fit sponsorship. Therefore, there will be no difference between low and high natural fit in terms of attitude toward the sponsorship and the sponsor when perceived control of navigation is low. Thus, the proposed research poses the following hypothesis:

H11: High natural fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the brand than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference in attitude toward the brand between low and high natural fit does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

H12: High natural fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the sponsorship than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference in attitude toward the brand between low and high natural fit does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

As noted earlier, and according to the hierarchy-of-effects (HOE) model, attitude toward the brand is the basis for purchase intention (Rodgers, Thorson, & Jin, 2009). Consequently, when attitude toward the brand is low, purchase intention is also

likely to be low. Based on the hierarchy-of-effects model, the proposed research poses Hypothesis 6:

H13: Low natural fit is associated with lower purchase intention of the brand than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference in purchase intention between low and high natural fit does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

Figure 4 summarizes the cognitive effect of perceived control of navigation and its relationship with high versus low natural fit.

Natural fit accounts for most traditional sponsorship promotions, such as sponsorship of sporting events. A limitation of traditional sponsorship promotions is that these contexts provide few opportunities for corporate sponsors to describe and explain their sponsorships to the audiences (Rifon, Choi, Trimble, & Li, 2004). As a result, traditional sponsorships are typically quite short and to the point, containing a logo, a brand name, and sometimes a slogan (Rodgers, 2003). Corporate Web sites provide a unique context in which brands may advertise their products, services, or ideas. Specifically, corporate sponsors may promote created fit on their corporate Web site and, as the results of having more space in which to create this “fit”, corporate sponsors may take the time and space necessary to explain its association with a given sponsor cause, event, etc. Created fit within the context of a corporate Web site is examined next.

2.3.2. Created fit and created-fit type

Created fit opens up opportunities for sponsors that lack salient associations with a particular social cause by enabling low-salient brands to sponsor social causes that have low to no relevance to their product or service category. Created fit can

increase the number of positive thoughts about the brand by highlighting favorable sponsorship associations that are not salient in the activated schema (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Consequently, increased positive thoughts about the brand lead to improved attitude toward the brand (Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002).

Created fit is important to social cause-related sponsorship since companies are likely to be involved with cause sponsorship in which there are no apparent associations between the company and the social cause (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). With the increase of the public interest in corporate social responsibility, sponsoring a standard set of causes (e.g., health care, education, environment, etc.) becomes a common public relations and advertising practice. However, companies may not have a high degree of natural fit with social causes that the society expects companies to support (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Therefore, it is necessary to examine “created fit” to open up more opportunities for cause sponsorship. Common strategies for creating created fit are product-related donations and messages that explain how the firm “matches” with the cause (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006).

Created fit is also important to sponsorship promotion on corporate Web sites. Created fit must utilize the advertising space provided by corporate Web sites to establish the link between a sponsor and a sponsored social cause. Created fit offers favorable associations between the sponsor and the sponsored social - since corporations commonly promote their “community” efforts in a positive fashion on corporate Web sites. The success of created fit relies on whether consumers will “buy” these positive associations and think positively about the sponsor. Therefore, created fit also takes advantages of Web-based interactivity to improve cognitive processing of created fit. Specifically, created fit requires high-perceived control of navigation to produce the intended positive effects on consumers in the context of corporate Web

site. For instance, if the Web site navigation is perceived ease to use, consumers will not waste any efforts on figuring out where the content that establishes the link between the company and a social cause is. Consumers will be able to easily find content that creates created fit and read it carefully. Consequently, consumers will give credits to the company's cause sponsorship.

Previous studies showed that created fit could enhance the effects on consumers' attitude and behaviors for natural fit (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Specifically, created fit can mitigate the negative effects of low natural fit. In their study, Simmons and Beck-Olsen (2006) compared the effects of natural fit and created fit on attitude toward the sponsorship, brand equity, and persistence of sponsorship effects. They found that created fit increases the favorability of responses relative to sponsorship of low natural fit (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Built upon Simmons and Becker-Olsen's (2006) study, this present study further differentiates two types of created fit.

As noted earlier, the sponsorship literature has used similar terms to mean different things and different terms to mean the same thing. Given that few studies have examined created fit – and the mix of terms in the existing literature – to reduce confusion by using terms that may be redundant with earlier studies (but that mean different things than used here), the present research chose to use “generic” terms to identify two types of created fit examined here, specifically, Type I created fit and Type II created fit. Type I created fit refers to non-salient associations highlighted in the marketing communication for a sponsorship that already has salient associations between the sponsor and the sponsored organization. Type II created fit refers to non-salient associations highlighted in the marketing communication of a sponsorship that does not have salient associations between the sponsor and the sponsored organization.

To orient the reader, the remainder of the research is organized as follows: Section 2.3.3 discusses perceived control of navigation and Types I and II created fit. Section 2.3.4 examines perceived control of navigation, Type I created fit, and high natural fit. Section 2.3.5 looks at Type II created fit, and low natural fit.

2.3.3. Types I and II created fit and perceived control of navigation

In theory, Type II created fit is more likely to produce the optimal effects on consumers than Type I created fit. Since Type II created fit involves a sponsorship in which the sponsor does not have an apparent association with the sponsored, Type II created fit is less expected than Type I created fit. According to schema congruity theory, the lack of expectancy may trigger a higher level of cognitive processing (Mandle, 1982). Therefore, Type II created fit may trigger a higher level of cognitive processing than Type I created fit. Since both Type II and I created fit provide favorable details about the sponsor, Type II created fit is more likely to elicit more positive thoughts about the sponsor than Type I created fit. In layman's term, Type II created fit may arouse consumers' curiosity and make them think more about the favorable details about the sponsor. Translating this logic, the present study hypothesizes that:

H14: Type II created fit generates more positive thoughts about the brand than Type I created fit.

H15: Type II created fit generates more positive thoughts about the sponsorship than Type I created fit.

Since the numbers of positive thoughts is associated with the formation of related attitude, the present study further predicts that:

H16: Type II created fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the sponsorship than Type I created fit.

H17: Type II created fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the brand than Type I created fit.

According to HOE, attitude toward the brand is associated with purchase intention, the present study poses the following hypothesis:

H18: Type II created fit is associated with higher purchase intention than Type I created fit.

It should be noted that how Type II created fit influences the processing of sponsorship and the formation of attitude toward the sponsor is similar to that of moderate incongruity, but the present research conceptualizes these as two quite different concepts. Jagre, Watson, and Watson (2001) define moderate incongruity as inconsistencies between the sponsor and the sponsee that can be solved by cognitive elaboration. Similar with Type II created fit, moderate incongruity involves a high level of cognitive processing, which leads to positive attitude toward the sponsorship and the sponsor (Jagre, Watson, and Watson, 2001; Mandler, 1982). Different from Type II created fit, moderate incongruity, does not involve communicating non-salient sponsorship associations. Moderate congruity refers to the situation where the inconsistency can be solved by individual's cognitive elaboration without external assistance, like communicating non-salient sponsorship associations, while Type II created fit is an assisted process of cognitive elaboration where created fit walks people through steps that establish the link between a sponsor and a sponsored organization.

In the context of cause sponsorship-linked marketing on corporate Web site, Type II created fit also needs high-perceived control of navigation to maximize

positive effects on consumers' attitude toward the brand and purchasing intentions. Even if consumers' curiosity is aroused, Type II created fit is still unlikely to generate more positive thoughts about the sponsor than Type I created fit when consumers have a low ability of cognitive processing (e.g., Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002). Since the success of created fit depends upon cognitive processing of sponsorship messages, Types II and I created fit make no differences in terms of generating positive thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship when perceived control of navigation is low. Only when perceived control of navigation is high and consumers have a higher ability of cognitive processing, Type II created fit will elicit more positive thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship than Type I created. Translating this discussion, the proposed research predicts the following:

H19: Type II created fit generates more positive thoughts about the brand than Type I created fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such a pattern does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

H20: Type II created fit generates more positive thoughts about the sponsorship than Type I created fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such a pattern does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

According to ELM, positive thoughts about the brand lead to more positive attitude toward the brand, and positive thoughts about the sponsorship leads to more positive attitude toward the sponsorship (Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002). Therefore, in cases where Type II created fit generates more positive thoughts about the brand and the sponsoship than Type I created fit when perceived control of navigation is high, Type II created fit will be associated with more positive attitude toward the brand and the sponsorship than Type I created fit. Translating this discussion, the proposed research also poses the hypothesis that:

H21: Type II created fit leads to more positive attitude toward the brand than Type I created fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such a pattern does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

H22: Type II created fit leads to more positive attitude toward the sponsorship than Type I created fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such a pattern does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

Moreover, when attitude toward the brand is high, purchase intention is also likely to be high (McGuire, 1969; Rodgers, Thorson, & Jin, 2009). Type II created fit is more likely to trigger central route processing, and consequently form more positive attitude toward the brand than Type I created fit when perceived control is high. Therefore, Type II created fit is more likely to elicit higher purchase intention than Type I created fit when perceived control of navigation is high. The proposed research examines:

H23: Type II created fit is associated with higher purchase intention of the brand than Type I created fit, when perceived control of navigation is high, and such a pattern does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

The relationship between Type I and Type II created fit under the conditions of high and low perceived control of navigation is summarized in Figure 5.

2.3.4. Type I created fit and high natural fit

As noted before, created fit could enhance the effects on consumers' attitude and behaviors for natural fit (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Since perceived control of navigation can either facilitate or inhibit cognitive processing of created fit and natural fit, it is necessary to examine whether the relationships between created fit, natural fit, consumer attitude and behaviors are changed by an online environment.

This section compares Type I created fit and high natural fit under the conditions of high versus low perceived control of navigation.

Type I created fit is different from but related to high natural fit. Type I created fit is different from high natural fit since Type I created fit highlights non-salient associations between the sponsor and the sponsored organization while high natural fit does not highlight non-salient associations between the sponsor and the sponsored organization. However, Type I created fit is related to high natural fit because Type I created fit strengthens the associations between the sponsor and the sponsored organization for high natural fit. In addition to salient sponsorship associations upon which high natural fit is built, Type I created fit makes additional favorable connections between the sponsor and the sponsored social cause by increasing the salience of originally non-salient association. For example, the sponsorship involving Dove and Susan G. Komen for the Cure is of high natural fit. By highlighting Dove's product-related donation to the foundation, Type I created fit strengthens the connection between Dove and the foundation. Therefore, it is logical to infer that Type I created fit can enhance the effects of high natural fit. Specifically, consumers will generate more positive thoughts about the sponsor than high natural fit since Type I created fit presents more favorable connections between the sponsor and the sponsored social cause than high natural fit.

However, in the context of cause sponsorship-linked marketing on corporate Web sites, perceived control of navigation can influence the effects of Type I created fit on amount of positive thoughts. As noted before, Type I created fit depends upon the increase of positive thoughts as a result of central route processing. When perceived control of navigation is high, consumers have the cognitive ability to pursue central route of processing. When central route of processing is activated, it is likely

for Type I created fit to generate more positive thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship than high natural fit. On the contrary, when perceived control of navigation is low, consumers do not have the cognitive ability to process Type I created fit. Consequently, it is less likely that Type I created fit can generate more positive thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship than high natural fit. In other words, low perceived control of navigation is so distracting that Type I created fit and high natural fit make no difference to consumers. Translating this logic, the present study hypothesizes that:

H24: Type I created fit can generate more positive thoughts about the brand than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

H25: Type I created fit can generate more positive thoughts about the sponsorship than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

According to ELM, positive thoughts lead to positive attitude (Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002). Therefore, Type I created fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the brand and the sponsorship than high natural fit. Thus, the present study hypothesizes that:

H26: Type I created fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the brand than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

H27: Type I created fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the sponsorship than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

According to the hierarchy of effects model, attitude toward the brand leads to changes in purchase intention (McGuire, 1969; Rodgers, Thorson, & Jin, 2009). Since Type I created fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the brand than high natural fit, Type I created fit may elicit higher purchase intention than high natural fit. Thus, the present study hypothesizes that:

H28: Type I created fit is associated with higher purchase intention than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is low, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is high.

The relationship between Type I created fit and high natural fit under the conditions of high and low perceived control of navigation is summarized in Figure 6.

2.3.5. Type II created fit and low natural fit

Type II created fit is also different from but related to low natural fit. Type II created fit is different from low natural fit since Type II created fit highlights non-salient associations between the sponsor and the sponsored organization while low natural fit does not highlight non-salient associations between the sponsor and the sponsored organization. However, Type II created fit is related to low natural fit because Type II created fit makes favorable connections between the sponsor and the sponsored organization for low natural fit. Because of the lack of fit between the sponsor and sponsored organization, low natural fit tends to trigger consumers to make unfavorable connections between the sponsor and the sponsored social cause, i.e. attributions of extrinsic sponsor motives. By highlighting non-salient but favorable associations between the sponsor and the sponsored social cause, Type II created fit reduces the likelihood that consumers will link the sponsor and the sponsored organization in negative ways and increases the possibility that consumers

will link the sponsor and the sponsored organization in positive ways. Consequently, Type II created fit will elicit more positive and fewer negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship than low natural fit.

However, in the context of cause sponsorship-linked marketing on corporate Web sites, the amount of positive thoughts and negative thoughts is moderated by perceived control of navigation. As noted before, whether Type II created fit can generate more positive thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship and reduce the amount of negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship depend upon whether central route of processing is activated. When perceived control of navigation is high, consumers have the cognitive ability to pursue central route of processing. When central route of processing is activated, it is more likely for Type II created fit to generate more positive thoughts and reduce the amount of negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship in comparison with low natural fit. On the contrary, when perceived control of navigation is low, consumers do not have the cognitive ability to process Type II created fit through central route of persuasion. Therefore, Type II created fit cannot generate more positive thoughts and fewer negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship than low natural fit. In other words, low perceived control of navigation is so distracting that Type II created fit and low natural fit make no differences to consumers. Putting this into hypotheses, the present study predicts that:

H29a: Type II created fit generates more positive thoughts about the brand than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

H29b: Type II created fit generates fewer negative thoughts about the brand than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such differences does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

H30a: Type II created fit generates more positive thoughts about the sponsorship than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

H30b: Type II created fit generates fewer negative thoughts about the sponsorship than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such differences does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

According to ELM, Type II created fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the brand and the sponsorship than low natural fit since it elicits more positive thought and fewer negative thought about the brand and the sponsorship (Petty, Priester, & Briñol, 2002). Therefore, the present study hypothesizes that:

H31: Type II created fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the brand than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such differences does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

H32: Type II created fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the sponsorship than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such differences does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

According to the hierarchy of effects model, Type II created fit leads to higher purchase intention than low natural fit since attitude toward the brand is associated with purchase intention. Therefore, this study hypothesizes that:

H33: Type II created fit is associated with higher purchase intention than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low.

The relationship between Type I created fit and high natural fit under the conditions of high and low perceived control of navigation is summarized in Figure 7.

Chapter III.

OVERVIEW OF STUDY

3.1. Design of study

The current study employs a 2 x 2 x 2 mixed factorial experimental design that includes both between and within subjects factors. Given that the primary objective of the proposed research is to establish a cause-effect relationship among independent variables and dependent variables, experiment is an appropriate method (Wimmer & Dominick, 1997). A mixed factorial design was selected because a complete within-subjects design increases the possibility of producing “order effects” and can affect how subjects behave. By combining a within-subjects factor with a between-subjects factor, the “mixed” experimental design reduces the possibility of an order effect - due to practice effects, fatigue effects, carryover effects or sensitization – and avoids potential contamination between conditions (Calfee, 1985).

Experiment 1 employs a 2 (level of perceived control of navigation) x 2 (degree of natural fit) x 2 (message repetition) mixed factorial design experiment with level of perceived control of navigation (low vs. high) as a within-subject factor, degree of natural fit (low vs. high) as a between-subject factor, and message repetition as a within-subject factor. Experiment 2 employs a 2 (level of perceived control of navigation) x 2 (created-fit type) x 2 (message repetition) mixed factorial design experiment with level of perceived control of navigation (low vs. high) as a within-subject factor, created-fit type (Type I created fit vs. Type II created fit) as a between-subject factor, and message repetition as a within-subjects factor. All IVs in Experiments 1 and 2 are manipulated (versus measured). Experiment 1 examines the influence of 1) level of perceived control of navigation (IV1) and 2) degree of natural fit (IV2) on the following dependent variables: number of positive and negative

thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship, attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the sponsor's brand, and purchase intention. Experiment 2 examines the influence of 1) level of perceived control of navigation (IV1) and 2) created-fit type (IV2) on the following dependent variables: number of positive and negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship, attitude toward the sponsor's brand, and purchase intention.

Three multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVAs) were conducted. The first MANOVA was based on data from Experiment 1, and addressed the overarching research question about the effect of perceived control of navigation and degree of natural fit on consumers' psychological processing of sponsorship-linked marketing on corporate Web sites. The second MANOVA was based on data from Experiment 2, and addressed the overarching research question of the effects of perceived control of navigation and created-fit type on consumers' psychological processing of cause sponsorship-linked marketing on corporate Web sites. The third MANOVA was based on data from both Experiments 1 and 2, and addressed the third overarching research question of whether created fit can enhance consumers' attitudinal and behavioral reactions for natural fit under the condition of high versus low perceived control of navigation. For details of hypotheses, experiments, and MANOVAs, please refer to Figure 8.

3.2. Manipulation of perceived control of navigation

Perceived control of navigation was manipulated (versus measured) from four aspects : 1) the level of categorical consistency between navigation menu items and Web site content on the resulting hyperlinked Web pages; 2) the number of average clicks of the Web site; 3) the number of clicks to the destination Web pages; and, 4)

the amount of in-site navigation aids. The reasons of choosing the four aspects for manipulating perceived control of navigation are explained below.

First, consistency between navigation menu items and Web site content on the resulting hyperlinked Web pages is a manipulation of semantic Web site schema. As noted before semantic Web site schema refers to users' expectations about distal related content based on meaning of proximal cues on a Web site. The navigation menu items are proximal cues and the content on the resulting hyperlinked Web pages is distal related content. When navigation menu items are categorically consistent with Web site content on the resulting hyperlinked Web pages, the informational structure of the actual Web site is congruent with semantic Web site schema. In other words, users' expectation of categorical consistency of the Web site content is met. Consequently, users will feel the site navigation is easy, and perceived control of navigation will be high. On the contrary, when navigation menu items are not categorically consistent with Web site content on the resulting hyperlinked Web pages, the information structure of the actual Web site is incongruent with semantic Web site schema. In other words, users' expectation of categorical consistency of Web site content is not met. Consequently, users will feel the site navigation is difficult, and perceived control of navigation will be low.

Second, the average number of clicks is a manipulation of structural Web site schema. Structural Web site schema is defined as users' expectation about the path that leads to a particular piece of information. According to the IT literature, average number of clicks is an indicator of the complexity of a Web site (Sreedhar, Chari, & Ramana, 2010). Although the rule of thumb is the average number of clicks should not be more than four, an underlying principle is with the increase of average number of clicks, the Web site will require more effort for users to navigate. Therefore, given

the same amount of content, users generally expect that the Web site is less complicated with a lower number of average clicks and easier to use (Sreedhar, Chari, & Ramana, 2010).

Third, the number of clicks to the destination Web site is also a manipulation of structural Web site schema. Given the same content, if it takes fewer clicks to get the information that users are looking for, users will feel it is easier to find the information they want. On the contrary, if it takes more clicks to get the information that users are looking for, users will feel it is more difficulty to find the information they want.

Forth, in-site navigation aids are another manipulation of structural Web site schema. In-side navigation aids refer to functions that help users to locat certain information and idenfity their locations on the Web site. When there are more navigation aids that make users easier to find where they are on the Web site and choose their course of visit, perceived control of navigation will be higher. On the contrary, where there are fewer navigation aids, users will feel difficult to get around on the Web site. Therefore, perceived control of navigation is lower. Using in-site navigation aids as a manipulation of perceived control of navigation has been used in Bellman and Rossiter's (2006) study.

To explain how the four aspects of manipulating perceived control of navigation create the high and low conditions of perceived control of navigation, two tree plots are drawn. The first tree plot (Figure 9) is high-perceived control of navigation, and the second tree plot is low perceived control of navigation (Figure 10).

There are several examples of manipulating categorical consistency. High perceived control of navigation uses "Company" or "About Us" to refer to general information of a company, such as size, business scope, brief history, founders'

information, etc. Low perceived control of navigation uses “Responsible Business” on the navigation menu to link to the same content. High perceived control of navigation uses “Product” or the name of the product, e.g. tea on the navigation menu to indicate that the hyperlinked Web page is about product information. Low perceived control of navigation uses “Business” to link to the same content. High-perceived control of navigation uses “News about the Brand” on the navigation menu to indicate that the hyperlinked Web page is about news about the brand. Low perceived control of navigation uses “Information” to link to the same content. In sum, all navigation menu items in high-perceived control of navigation are more consistent with the hyperlinked Web pages, while all navigation menu items in low perceived control are less consistent with the hyperlinked Web pages.

The number of average clicks is calculated by using the following formula:

$$\text{Path length} = \sum li.mi$$

$$\text{Avg no. of clicks} = \text{path length}/n$$

(Screedhar, Chari, & Ramana, 2010)

Path length is the sum of the products of the level and the number of Web pages on the level. Home page is Level zero. Average number of clicks is path length divided by all Web pages on a Web site, including the Home page. Using this formula, the average number of clicks of high perceived control of navigation is:

$$(0 \times 1 + 1 \times 4 + 2 \times 5) / 10 = 1.4$$

The average number of clicks of low perceived control of navigation is:

$$(0 \times 1 + 1 \times 3 + 2 \times 2 + 3 \times 2 + 4 \times 5) / 13 = 2.5$$

The number of clicks to details about sponsorship is two when perceived control of navigation is high. The number of clicks to details about sponsorship is four when perceived control of navigation is low.

When perceived control of navigation is low, the navigation aids are navigation menu items linked to Web pages on the immediate lower level and the backward button. When perceived control of navigation is high, each Web page has navigation menu items to all the other Web pages on the Web site.

Perceived control of navigation is treated as a within-subject factor in the experiment design because Web sites designed for this study are less complicated in than real corporate Web sites. As we can see from the number of average clicks and the number of clicks to the destination Web pages, it will not take much time or effort for users to figure out how to use the low condition of perceived control of navigation. Therefore, to increase the sensitivity of the manipulation, perceived control of navigation is treated as a within-subjects factor. In the experiment, each participant will visit two Web sites of low perceived control of navigation and two Web sites of high perceived control of navigation to avoid subject learning. In other words, when a participant is exposed to more than two Web sites of the same level, the low condition will become easier to use for the participant as a result of his or her learning of the structure of the Web site. Similar phenomenon has been observed by one of Bell and Rossiter's (2006) experiments.

To summarize, high-perceived control of navigation is manipulated as the navigation menu items being categorically consistent with content on the linked Web pages, the average number of clicks is lower, it takes two clicks to reach the details about sponsorship, and the Web site provides more in-site navigation aids. Low perceived control of navigation was manipulated as the navigation menu items being categorically inconsistent with content on the linked Web page, the average number of clicks is higher, it takes four clicks to reach to the details about sponsorship, and the Web site providers fewer in-site navigation aids.

Chapter IV.

METHOD: EXPERIMENT 1

Experiment 1 examines the influence of 1) level of perceived control of navigation (IV1) and 2) degree of natural fit (IV2) on the following dependent variables: the number of positive thoughts about the brand, the number of negative thoughts about the brand, the number of positive thoughts about the sponsorship, the number of negative thoughts about the sponsorship, attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the sponsor's brand, attitude toward the sponsorship, and purchase intention. Experiment 1 includes two pretests. Experiment 1 employs a 2 (level of perceived control of navigation) x 2 (degree of natural fit) x 2 (message repetition) mixed factorial design experiment with level of perceived control of navigation (low vs. high) and message repetition as within-subject factors and degree of natural fit (low vs. high) as a between-subject factor.

4.1. Pretest 1

A two-phase pretest will be used to identify four high natural-fit sponsorships and four low natural-fit sponsorships, representing the two conditions. The present research used health-related non-profit organizations as the sponsored social causes since health-related non-profit organizations like Susan G. Komen for the Cure are becoming more and more popular among corporate sponsors. Not only big companies are involving in sponsoring health-related social cause, smaller and medium-size companies are also supporting health-related social causes. For example, Susan G. Komen for the Cure's corporate partners include not only Ford and American Airlines,

those world-known businesses, but also companies like Zumba Fitness, Honest Tea, and Igloo, which are smaller and less famous.

Following Rodgers' (2000) pre-test procedures, an initial list of health-related national non-profit organizations were selected from CharityNavigator.com, an online database of non-profit organizations. In Phase 1, participants were asked to evaluate familiarity and liking of those organizations, measured by two, 7-point semantic differential scales including: dislike/like and familiar/unfamiliar (Rodgers, 2000). The purpose in measuring liking and familiarity is to control the confounding effects introduced by familiarity and liking of the non-profit organization.

In Phase 2, the eight non-profit organizations were paired up with eight fictitious brands to create 64 sponsorships. Fictitious brands, as opposed to real brands, can minimize the influence of familiarity and prior attitude toward real brands (Hitchon, 1997, cited in Rodgers, 2000), and increase the control of the experiment. In Phase 2, participants were asked to evaluate the degree of natural fit of the 64 sponsorships. Natural fit was measured using one 7-point semantic item adopted from Simmons and Becker-Olsen (2006): to what extent do you think the sponsorship is of low fit or high fit? Simmons and Becker-Olsen's original scale of natural fit has seven items (dissimilar/similar, inconsistent/consistent, atypical/typical, unrepresentative/representative, not complementary/complementary, low fit/high fit, and does not make sense/make sense). If all seven items are included in the pretest, participants will have to answer 448 questions. To avoid subjects' fatigue as a result of a long questionnaire, this study picks one item to measure natural fit. Four sponsorships that have the highest mean scores among the 64 sponsorships were chosen to represent high natural fit in the main study, and four sponsorships that have

the lowest mean scores among the 64 sponsorships were chosen to represent low natural fit in the main study.

The fictitious brands were adopted from Rodgers (2000), and were Beirele vitamins, Zeana cameras, Brisk travel maps, Jolo weight loss service, Jasil herbal teas, Fannon stationary bikes, Situs luggage, and Deer travel service (Rodgers, 2000). Rodgers' (2000) pretests showed that these fictitious brand names (Birele, Zeana, Bisk, Jolo, Jasil, Fannon, Situs, and Dree) had the highest mean scores on liking and the lowest mean scores on familiarity. In addition, the pairing between these fictitious brand names and products also had the highest mean scores on liking and the lowest mean scores on familiarity in the pretest (Rodgers, 2000). These pre-tested fictitious brands are appropriate for the proposed study since Rodgers (2000) also examined health-related sponsorship. In addition, using pre-tested "tried and true" fictitious brands saves time and money that would otherwise be needed to pre-test an extensive list of fictitious brands.

4.2. Pretest 2

The stimulus materials consist of professionally designed Web sites, which were pretested to ensure that the manipulation of perceived control of navigation is successful. Four Web sites were designed for the high condition of perceived control of navigation, and four Web sites were designed for the low condition of low perceived control of navigation. To ensure that participants navigate through out the Web site, participants were asked to seek answers to three open-ended questions:

1. What is the name of the company?
2. What charity does the company sponsor according to the information on the Web site?

The above four measures, summed, compromise the index “perceived control of navigation.” However, in this study the average scores of the four items instead of the sums were used to ensure a clearer interpretation.

4.3. Stimulus materials

Eight professionally designed Web sites that resemble real corporate Web sites will be developed to represent the eight conditions in this 2 x 2 x 2 mixed factorial experiment. Six different layouts were used to ensure a range of varieties, so that the effect of layouts on participant’s judgment could be controlled. The structure of these Web sites was described in the section of “Manipulation of perceived control of navigation.” For the six layouts, please see Appendix 2.

4.4. Dependent measures

The dependent measures used in the present research include measures of attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the brand, purchase intention, and the numbers of positive and negative thoughts about the sponsor. Existing scales were used, with some items added by the researcher where indicated, and all existing scales had high Cronbach’s α , as reported by the authors who used and/or created the scales.

Attitude toward the Web site. Attitude toward the Web site was assessed with three 7-point likert-scale items adopted from Bruner and Kunmar (2000) and Stevenson, Bruner and Kumar (2000), including “I like the Web site I saw,” “I think it is a good Web site,” and “I think it is a nice Web site.” Cronbach’s α of the scale was 0.97 in Bruner and Kunmar (2000) and 0.93 in Stevenson, Bruner, and Kumar (2000).

Attitude toward the brand. Attitude toward the brand was measured by three seven-point likert-scale items adapted from Speed and Thompson (2000), including

“this sponsorship makes me feel more favorable toward the brand,” “this sponsorship would improve my perception of the brand,” and “this sponsor would make me like the brand more” (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.95$).

Purchase intention. Purchase intention was measured by three seven-point likert-scale items adapted from Speed and Thompson (2000), including “this sponsorship would make me more likely to use the brand”, “this sponsorship would make me more likely to consider the brand the next time when I buy”, and “I would be more likely to buy the brand as a result of this sponsorship ” (Cronbach’s $\alpha = 0.94$).

Positive and negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship.

Participants were asked to write down any thoughts related to the sponsor, one thought per line before answering scale-type items. Two coders coded the thoughts into “positive thoughts about the brand,” “positive thoughts about the sponsorship,” “negative thoughts about the brand,” and “negative thoughts about the sponsorship” (Ellen, Webb, & Mohr, 2006). Positive thought about the brand was defined as any favorable thoughts that are primarily about the sponsor’s brand. When the thought used the words “brand,” or mentioned the brand name, and the main theme of the thought was about the brand, it was coded as a thought about the brand. Similarly, when the thought used the words “sponsorship,” “association,” “connection,” etc., and the main theme of the thought was about the sponsorship, it was coded as a thought about the sponsorship. A positive thought is defined as any favorable thoughts related to the sponsor. The presence of words like “like,” “love,” “appreciate,” “altruism,” “sincere,” “generous,” “genuine,” nice, etc. indicate positive thoughts. Therefore, if a thought primarily about the brand uses one or several of these favorable words, it is a positive thought about the brand. Similarly, if a thought primarily about the sponsorship uses one or several of these favorable words, it is a positive thought about

the sponsorship. A negative thought is defined as any unfavorable thoughts related to the sponsor. The presence of words like “dislike,” “hate,” “selfish,” “suspicious,” “not genuine,” “not sincere,” etc. indicate negative thoughts. Therefore, if a thought primarily about the brand uses one or several of these unfavorable words, it is a negative thought about the brand. Similarly, if a thought primarily about the sponsorship uses one or several of these unfavorable words, it is a negative thought about the sponsorship.

4.5. Manipulation checks

In addition to the dependent variables, the experiment also had manipulation checks for natural fit and perceived control of navigation.

Natural fit. The 7-point semantic differential item used in Phase 2 Pretest 1 were used to check whether the manipulation of natural fit works. This item was adopted from Simmons and Becker-Olsen (2006):

To what extent do you think the sponsor and the charity featured on the Website is of:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Low fit						High fit

Perceived control of navigation. To check whether the manipulation of perceived control of navigation works, one of the 7-point semantic differential items in Pretest 2 were used:

To what extent do you feel controlling your navigation through this Web site is:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Easy						Difficult

4.6. Sample and procedures

College students were recruited for the pretests and the main study. Since the proposed research examines theoretical relationships between IVs and DVs in experiments, it is appropriate to use a convenience student sample (Calder, Phillips, & Tybout, 1981; Shapiro, 2002). In addition, a student sample saves time and money, which is always a challenge with doctoral research.

The study is an online experiment. Links to online surveys and Web sites were sent to participants through email. Each participant was randomly assigned to view two Web sites that were of low perceived control of navigation and two Web sites that were of high perceived control of navigation, i.e., two repeated “messages”. The order of viewing the four Web sites were randomized to control for a possible order effect, noted earlier.

Before viewing each Web site, the participant was instructed to seek answers to three factual questions based on the information on the Web site:

1. What is the name of the brand? (open-ended question)
2. What charity does the company sponsor according to the information on the Web site? (multiple choice)
3. What is the connection between the brand and the charity according to the information on the Web site? (multiple choice)

This procedure was part of the experiment control. It made sure that the participant navigated the Web site first, and then provided answers to the survey questions.

Then, the participant answered the two manipulation checks. After that, he/she was asked to write down any thoughts about the sponsor, one thought per line. By

doing this, the research could capture participants' thoughts when they were still fresh. Then, a questionnaire containing the dependent measures was administered, followed by demographic data to be used for categorization purposes.

CHAPTER V.

RESULTS OF EXPERIMENT 1

Multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze the effects of perceived control of navigation and degree of natural fit on the number of positive and negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship, attitude toward the brand and the sponsorship, and purchase intention. To reduce Type I error, MANOVA is used instead of multiple analyses of variance (ANOVAs) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The probability of a Type I error will be maintained at 0.05 for all statistical analyses. As noted before, the first MANOVA was based on data from Experiment 1, and provided answers to H1, H2, H3, H4a, H4b, H5a, H5b, H6, H7, H8, H9a, H9b, H10a, H10b, H11, H12, and H13. For details, please refer to Figure 8.

5.1. Results of Pretest 1

Pretest 1 had two phases. In Phase 1, 50 participants were asked to evaluate familiarity and liking of those organizations. The results showed that Susan G. Komen for the Cure, National Breast Cancer Coalition Fund, National Breast Cancer Foundation, Inc., Organization for Autism Research, American Lung Association, National Cancer Coalition, Parkinson's Disease Foundation, and Skin Cancer Foundation were most familiar and liked. As noted in the method section, liking and familiarity were examined in the pretest to control their confounding effects on perception of non-profit organizations. For means of familiarity and liking, please refer to Table 1.

In Phase 2, the eight non-profit organizations used in Phase 1 were paired up with eight fictitious brands to create 64 sponsorships. Thirty-five participants were asked to evaluate the degree of natural fit of the 64 sponsorships. Natural fit were

measured in Phase 2 Pretest 1 to ensure the manipulation of degree of natural fit in Experiment 1. The results showed that Susan G. Komen for the Cure and Jasil Herbal Tea ($M = 4.48$), National Breast Cancer Foundation and Beirele Vitamins ($M = 4.79$), American Lung Association and Fannon Stationary Bikes ($M = 4.71$), and Skin Cancer Foundation and Beirele Vitamins ($M = 5.18$) had the highest mean scores of natural fit. Therefore, these sponsorships were chosen to represent the high natural-fit condition. In contrast, Organization for Autism Research and Jolo Weight Loss Services ($M = 2.21$), American Lung Association and Zeana Camera ($M = 2.38$), Parkinson's Disease Foundation and Deer Travel Service ($M = 2.41$), and Parkinson's Disease Foundation and Brisk Travel Maps ($M = 2.37$) had the lowest mean scores of natural fit. Therefore, these sponsorships represented the low condition of natural fit.

5.2. Results of Pretest 2

Twenty participants evaluated perceived control of navigation for the eight Web sites: four Web sites of high perceived control of navigation presenting different sponsorships and four Web sites of low perceived control of navigation presenting different sponsorships. After responses from two participants were dropped as outliers, responses from eighteen participants were entered into the analysis. The results showed that the four Web sites of the low condition had mean scores much lower than the four Web sites of the high condition. The mean scores of the high condition were 1.32, 1.68, 1.5, and 1.82 (easier). The mean scores of the low condition were 4.01, 4.40, 4.28, and 3.88 (more difficult).

5.3. Positive and negative thoughts

To determine positive/negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship from the thought listing in Experiment 1, two graduate students (other than the researcher) coded thought listings about the sponsor. Consistent with earlier studies, coders coded the valence value (positive, negative, neutral, mixed, and cannot tell) of each thought, and topics of the thought (brand, sponsorship, and other) (Liu & Shrum, 2009; Wang & Rodgers, 2010). Intercoder reliability is above 0.8 calculated by Kappa, above the minimum accepted level of reliability for two coders (Wimmer & Dominick, 2006). There were 98 positive thoughts about the brand and 26 negative thoughts about the brand in total. The average number of positive thoughts about the brand was 0.89 per participant. The average number of negative thoughts about the brand was 0.24 per participant. There were 62 positive thoughts about the sponsorship and 123 negative thoughts about the sponsorship in total. The average number of positive thoughts about the sponsorship was 0.56 per participants. The average number of negative thoughts about the sponsorship was 1.12 per participant.

5.4. Data screening

One hundred and twenty-five participants were recruited for Experiment 1. Missing data were deleted case-wise. Univariate outliers used the criterion of SD 3.29. The Mahalanobis statistics at the level of $\alpha = .001$ is 51.178. Cases with Mahalanobis statistics larger than 51.178 were deleted as multivariate outliers. After deleting outliers and missing data, 110 responses were used for the analysis. Among the 110 participants, there were 76 females and 34 males.

It was assumed that independence of observation was ensured by the research design. The assumption of normality was checked by looking at skewness, kurtosis, histogram, P-P plots and Q-Q plots. The skewness and kurtosis of all dependent

measures was within -3 and 3. Therefore, the assumption of normality was met. The assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices was checked by Box's M and Levene's Test. The results showed that Box's M was significant at 0.001. Since the sample size of each cell was equal and each cell had more than 20 cases, MANOVA is still robust (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Levene's tests showed that all dependent measures were not significant except the numbers of positive and negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship. The assumption of Sphericity was violated since Mauchly's Test of Sphericity was significant. Therefore, Huynh-Feldt corrections were used to report the results.

5.5. Manipulation check

To examine the effectiveness of the manipulation of natural fit, an ANOVA was conducted with high versus low natural fit as the independent variable and the manipulation check of natural fit as the dependent variable. Similar methods of checking manipulation were used in Liu and Shrum (2009). The results showed that the group of high natural fit had a significantly higher score of natural fit than the group of low natural fit ($F(1, 110) = 36.741, p < .001$). The mean score of the high-natural-fit group ($M = 3.03$) was higher than that of the low-natural-fit group ($M = 4.32$), suggesting that the natural fit manipulation was successful.

Similarly, to examine the effectiveness of the manipulation of perceived control of navigation, an ANOVA was conducted with high versus low groups of perceived control of navigation as the independent variable and the manipulation check of perceived control of navigation as the dependent variable. The results showed that the high condition group had a significantly higher score of perceived control of navigation than the low condition group ($F(1, 110) = 100.389, p < .001$).

The mean score of the low group of perceived control of navigation ($M = 2.42$) was lower than the mean score of the high group of perceived control of navigation ($M = 4.18$), suggesting that the manipulation of perceived control of navigation was successful. Perceived control of navigation was a reverse-coded item in the experiment.

5.6. Results of MANOVA

MANOVA was applied to analyze the results. Perceived control of navigation and message repetitions were entered as within-subjects independent variables and degree of natural fit was entered as a between-subjects independent variable. Dependent variables were the number of positive thoughts, the number of negative thoughts, attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intention.

H1, H2, and H3 examine the main effects of perceived control of navigation on attitude toward the Web sites, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intention, respectively. With the use of Wilks' criterion multivariate tests showed that perceived control of navigation had significant effects on the linear combination of all DVs. Partial η^2 reflected that perceived control of navigation accounted for 68.3% variance in the linear combination of all DVs. Univariate tests showed that perceived control of navigation had significant effects on attitude toward the Web site ($F(1, 110) = 173.509, p < 0.001$). Partial η^2 showed that perceived control of navigation explained 61.6% variance in attitude toward the Web site. Perceived control of navigation had significant effects on attitude toward the brand ($F(1, 110) = 61.275, p < .001$). Partial η^2 showed that perceived control of navigation explained 36.2% variance in attitude toward the brand. Perceived control of navigation also had significant effects on

purchase intention ($F(1, 110) = 40.798, p < .001$). Partial η^2 showed that perceived control of navigation explains 27.4% variance in purchase intention. For mean scores of attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intention, please refer to Table 2. Therefore, H1, H2, and H3 were supported.

H4a, H4b, H5a, H5b, H6, H7, and H8 examined the main effects of natural fit on the number of positive and negative thoughts about the brand (H4a and H4b) and the sponsorship (H5a and H5b), attitude toward the brand (H6), attitude toward the sponsorship (H7), and purchase intention (H8). Univariate tests showed that natural fit significantly influenced negative thoughts about the sponsorship ($F(1, 110) = 7.061, p < 0.05$). Partial η^2 showed that natural fit explained 6.1% variance in negative thoughts about the sponsorship. The mean scores showed that high natural fit generated fewer negative thoughts about the sponsorship ($M = 0.20$) than low natural fit ($M = 0.36$). Therefore, H5a was supported. Since natural fit did not have significant effects on the number of positive and negative thoughts about the brand, the number of positive thoughts about the sponsorship, attitude toward the brand, attitude toward the sponsorship, and purchase intention, H4a, H4b, H5b, H6, H7, and H8 were not supported.

H9a, H9b, H10a, H10b, H11, H12, and H13 examined the interaction effects of natural fit and perceived control of navigation on the number of positive and negative thoughts about the brand (H9a and H9b) and the sponsorship (H10a and H10b), attitude toward the brand (H11), attitude toward the sponsorship (H12), and purchase intention (H13). Since the interaction of perceived control of navigation and natural fit was not significant, H9a, H9b, H10a, H10b, H11, H12, and H13 were not supported.

CHAPTER VI.

METHOD: EXPERIMENT 2

Experiment 2 examines the influence of 1) level of perceived control of navigation (IV1) and 2) created-fit type (IV2) on the following dependent variables: the number of positive thoughts about the sponsor, the number of negative thoughts about the sponsor, attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intention. Experiment 2 employs a 2 (level of perceived control of navigation) x 2 (created-fit type) x 2 (message repetition) mixed factorial design experiment with level of perceived control of navigation (low vs. high) and message repetitions as within-subjects factors and created-fit type (Type I created fit vs. Type II created fit) as a between-subjects factor.

6.1. Manipulation of created-fit type

Created-fit type is operationalized as contents that describe product-related donations and volunteering and explain how the firm is a “fit” with the cause (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). An example of product-based volunteering is that Jolo Weight Loss Services provide free consultation for children with autism on weight control. An example of explanation for “fit” is that Jolo Weight Loss Services sponsor the Organization for Autism Research because autism children are suffering from weight-gain as a result of the side effects of autism medication. All created fit are listed in Appendix 2.

Created fit has two types: Type I created fit and Type II created fit. Type I created fit is operationalized as content that describes product-related donations and volunteering and explains how the firm is a “fit” with the cause for a sponsorship that

has salient sponsorship associations. Type II created fit was operationalized as contents that describes product-related donations and volunteering and explains how the firm is a “fit” with the cause for sponsorship that does not have salient associations. Based on the operational definitions, Type I created fit was created by adding two types of content to Web sites of high natural fit used in Experiment 1, that is, content describing product-related donations and volunteering and explaining how the firm is a “fit” with the cause. Similarly, Type II created fit was created by adding two types of content to Web sites of low natural fit used in Experiment 2: content the describing product-related donations and volunteering and explaining how the firm is a “fit” with the cause.

6.2. Stimulus materials

The same social cause sponsorships in Experiment 1 were used in Experiment 2. Low natural fit refers to sponsorship that is not based on salient sponsorship associations, and high natural fit refers to sponsorship that is based on salient sponsorship associations. Therefore, the low versus high natural-fit sponsorship were used in Experiment 2 as part of the manipulation of created-fit type. Manipulation of created-fit type were accomplished by adding contents that describes product-related donations and volunteering and explains how the firm is a “fit” with the cause to one of the Web pages.

The six layouts of Web sites in Experiment 1 were used in Experiment 2, as well (see Appendix 2). Web sites used in Experiment 1 were modified to include contents that create created fit. Specifically, in Experiment 1, Web pages about sponsorship activities were at the deepest level of Web sites of Experiment 1. In Experiment 2, Web pages at the deepest level of the Web site were re-organized to

include a Web page explaining why the sponsor and the sponsored social cause is a fit and a Web page describing product-related donations and volunteering. However, the total number of Web pages and structure of Web site levels did not change to ensure the same number of average clicks and the same number of clicks to the destination page in both experiments.

6.3. Dependent measures

All dependent measures outlined in Experiment 1 were used in Experiment 2, including the number of positive and negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship, attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the brand, attitude toward the sponsorship and purchase intention.

6.4. Manipulation check

In addition to the dependent variables, the same manipulation check conducted in Experiment 1 for perceived control of navigation in Experiment 1 was used in Experiment 2 as well. Although it is reasonable to argue that a second manipulation check would not be necessary if the manipulation is confirmed in Experiment 1, the researcher chose to check the manipulation a second time since the “look” of the perceived control of navigation (for Type I and Type II) sponsors will differ from that of natural fit, examined in Experiment 1. By confirming the validity of the manipulation check for perceived control of navigation in Experiment 2, the manipulation of Created fit will be confirmed (as opposed to assumed) to be valid.

6.6. Sample and procedure

As with Experiment 1, a student sample was used. As argued earlier, it is appropriate to use a convenient student sample when the goal is to examine the

theoretical relationships between variables (Calder, Phillips, & Tybout, 1981; Shapiro, 2002). This was also an online experiment. Links to surveys and Web sites were sent to participants through email. Each participant was randomly assigned to view four Web sites of the same type of created fit. Two of the Web sites were of high-perceived control of navigation and two of the Web sites were of low perceived control of navigation. As with Experiment 1, the order of viewing the two Web sites was randomized to avoid the order effect. Before viewing each Web site, the participant was instructed to seek answers to the four questions below:

1. What is the name of the brand? (Open-ended question)
2. What charity does the company sponsor according to the information on the Web site? (multiple choice)
3. What is the connection between the brand and the charity according to the information on the Web site? (multiple choice)
4. What did the company do for the charity? (open-ended question)

This procedure increases the control of the online experiment: participants had to navigate the Web site first, and then answer the survey questions.

After viewing each Web site, participants were asked to write down any thoughts about the brand, one thought per line. By doing this, the researcher could capture participants' thoughts while they were still "fresh" in the participants' minds. Then, a questionnaire containing the dependent measures were administered followed by demographic data to be used for categorization purposes.

CHAPTER VII.

RESULTS OF EXPERIMENT 2

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze the effects of perceived control of navigation and created-fit type on the number of positive thoughts about the brand, attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intention. To reduce Type I error, MANOVA was used instead of multiple analyses of variance (ANOVAs) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The probability of a Type I error was maintained at 0.05 for all statistical analyses. As noted before, the second MANOVA was based on data from Experiment 2, and answered H1, H2, H3, H14, H15, H16, H17, H18, H19, H20, H21, H22, and H23. For details, please refer to Figure 8.

7.1. Number of positive and negative thoughts

The same two coders and procedures used to code positive and negative thoughts in Experiment 1 were also used in Experiment 2. Inter-coder reliability was above 0.8 calculated by Kappa, which is above the minimum accepted coefficient for two coders (Wimmer & Dominick, 2006). The results showed that there were 139 positive thoughts about the brand and 35 negative thoughts about the brand. On average, each participant had 1.26 positive thoughts about the brand and 0.32 negative thoughts about the brand. There were 83 positive thoughts about the sponsorship and 71 negative thoughts about the sponsorship. On average, each participant had 0.75 positive thoughts about the sponsorship and 0.65 negative thoughts about the sponsorship.

7.2. Data screening

One hundred and thirty-four participants were recruited for Experiment 2. Missing data were deleted case-wise. Univariate outliers used the criterion of SD 3.29. The Mahalanobis statistics at the level of $\alpha = 0.001$ is 51.178. Cases having Mahalanobis statistics larger than 51.178 were deleted as multivariate outliers. After deleting outliers and missing data, responses from 110 participants were used for the analysis. Among the 110 participants, there were 83 females and 27 males.

Independence of observation was assumed by the research design. The assumption of normality was checked by skewness, kurtosis, histogram, P-P plots, and Q-Q plots. The skewness and kurtosis of all dependent measures was within -3 and 3. Therefore, the assumption of normality was satisfied. The assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices was checked by Box's M and Levene's tests. The results showed that Box's M was significant at 0.001. Since the sample size of each cell is equal and each cell had more than 20 cases, MANOVA was still robust (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Levene's tests showed that the number of positive and negative thoughts about the sponsorship, and the number of negative thoughts about the brand were significant at $p = 0.05$ but not at $p = 0.001$. The assumption of Sphericity was violated since Mauchly's Test of Sphericity was significant. Therefore, Huynh-Feldt corrections were used to report the results.

7.3. Manipulation check

To examine the effectiveness of the manipulation of perceived control of navigation, an ANOVA was conducted with high versus low groups of perceived control of navigation as the independent variable and the manipulation check of perceived control of navigation as the dependent variable. The same method of checking manipulation was used in Liu and Shrum (2009). The results showed that

the high group had a significantly higher score than the low group ($F(1, 110) = 157.208, p < .001$). The mean score of the low condition of perceived control of navigation ($M = 2.21$) was lower than the mean score of the high condition of perceived control of navigation ($M = 4.42$), suggesting that the manipulation of perceived control of navigation was successful. Perceived control of navigation was a reverse-coded item in the experiment.

7.4. Results of MANOVA

MANOVA was used to analyze the data. Perceived control of navigation and message repetition were entered as within-subjects independent variables and created-fit type was entered as a between-subjects variable. Dependent variables were the number of positive thoughts, attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intention.

H1, H2, and H3 examine the main effects of perceived control of navigation on attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intention, respectively. Multivariate tests showed that perceived control of navigation (Partial $\eta^2 = 0.683$) had significant main effects on the linear combination of attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intention. Univariate tests showed that perceived control of navigation had significant effects on attitude toward the Web site ($F(1, 110) = 173.509, p < .001$). Partial η^2 showed that perceived control of navigation explained 61.6% variance in attitude toward the Web site. Perceived control of navigation also had significant effects on attitude toward the brand ($F(1, 110) = 61.275, p < .001$). Partial η^2 showed that perceived control of navigation explained 36.2% variance in attitude toward the brand. Perceived control of navigation had significant effects on purchase intention ($F(1, 110) = 40.798, p < .001$).

Partial η^2 showed that perceived control of navigation explained 27.4% variance in purchase intention. See Table 3. Therefore, H1, H2, and H3 were supported.

H14, H15, H16, H17, and H18 examined the main effects of created-fit type on the number of positive thoughts about the brand (H14) and the sponsorship (H15), attitude toward the brand (H16), attitude toward the sponsorship (H17), and purchase intention (H18). The results showed that created-fit type does not have main effects on the above DVs. Therefore, H14 to H18 were not supported

H19, H20, H21, H22, and H23 compared Type I created fit with Type II created fit in terms of the number of positive thoughts about the brand (H19) and the sponsorship (H20), attitude toward the brand (H21), attitude toward the sponsorship (H22), and purchase intention (H23), respectively, under the conditions of high and low perceived control of navigation. Since created-fit type and the interaction between created-fit type and perceived control of navigation were not significant. H19, H20, H21, H22, and H23 were not supported.

CHAPTER VIII.

RESULTS OF COMPARING NATURAL FIT AND CREATED FIT

H24, H25, H26, H27, H28, H29a, H29b, H30a, H30b, H31, H32, and H33 compared the effects of natural fit and created fit under the condition of high and low perceived control of navigation. Specifically, H24 to H28 compare high natural fit with Type I created fit in terms of the number of positive thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship, attitude toward the brand and the sponsorship, and purchase intention. H29 to H33 compare low natural fit with Type II created fit in terms of the number of positive and negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship, attitude toward the brand and the sponsorship, and purchase intention. To test H24 to H33, the present study combined data from Experiments 1 and 2. In the combined dataset, perceived control of navigation is still a within-subjects factor with two levels, high and low. However, high and low natural fit and Type I and II created fit were treated as four levels of one factor: FIT. For details, please refer to Figure 8.

8.1. Data screening

Missing data was deleted case-wise. Univariate outliers used the criterion of SD 3.29. The Mahalanobis statistics at the level of $\alpha = .001$ is 51.178. Cases having Mahalanobis statistics larger than 51.178 were deleted as multivariate outliers. After deleting outliers and missing data, responses from 220 participants were used for the analysis. Among the 220 participants, there were 159 females and 61 males.

Independence of observation was assumed by the research design. The assumption of normality was checked by skewness, kurtosis, P-P plots, Q-Q plots, and histograms. The skewness and kurtosis of all dependent measures was within -3 and 3. Therefore, the assumption of normality was satisfied. The assumption of

homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices was checked by Box's M and Levene's tests. The results showed that Box's M was significant at 0.001. However, the sample size of each cell was equal. Therefore, MANOVA is still robust when Box's M is significant (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Levene's tests showed that the number of positive and negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship, and attitude toward the sponsorship were significant. The assumption of Sphericity was violated, and therefore Huynh-Feldt corrections were reported.

8.2. Results of MANOVA

With the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined DVs were significantly influenced by perceived control of navigation. Perceived control of navigation accounted for 51.8% variance. Univariate tests showed that perceived control of navigation had significant effects on attitude toward the Web site ($F(5, 220) = 217.251, p < .001$), attitude toward the brand ($F(5, 220) = 59.926, p < .001$) and purchase intention ($F(5, 220) = 51.396, p < .001$). Partial η^2 showed that perceived control of navigation explained 50.1% variance in attitude toward the Web site, 21.7% variance in attitude toward the brand, and 19.2% variance in purchase intention. See Table 3. Therefore, H1, H2, and H3 were confirmed again.

H24 to H28 compare Type I created fit and high natural fit in terms of the number of positive thoughts about the brand (H24) and the sponsorship (H25), attitude toward the brand (H26) and the sponsorship (H27), and purchase intention (28), respectively. Since MANOVA showed that the interaction between navigation and FIT was significant, tests of simple effects were conducted by using pairwise comparisons. With the use of Wilks' criterion, the combined DVs were significantly influenced by interaction between perceived control of navigation and FIT ($F(15, 220)$

= 1.634). The interaction between perceived control of navigation and FIT accounted for 7.3% variance of the combination of all DVs. However, tests of simple effects showed that Type I created fit was not significantly different from high natural fit in terms of the number of positive thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship, attitude toward the brand and the sponsorship, and purchase intention across the two levels of perceived control of navigation. Therefore, H24 to H28 were not supported.

H29 to H33 compare Type II created fit and low natural fit in terms of the number of positive and negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship, attitude toward the brand and the sponsorship, and purchase intention, respectively, under the condition of high versus low perceived control of navigation. Tests of simple effects showed that the mean differences between the group of Type II created fit and low natural fit were significant in terms of the number of negative thoughts about the sponsorship, attitude toward the brand, attitude toward the sponsorship, and purchase intention. See Table 4 and Figures 11 to 14. H30 to H33 were supported while H29a, H29b, and H30a were not supported.

CHAPTER VIII.

DISCUSSION

9.1. Summary and implications

The purpose of the present research is to examine the role of perceived control of navigation in online sponsorship-linked marketing. Specifically, the proposed research examines the influence of three independent variables - perceived control of navigation, degree of natural fit, and created-fit type - on cognitive elaboration, attitude formation, and purchase intention in the context of cause sponsorship-linked marketing on corporate Web sites. By employing two within-subjects and between-subjects mixed factorial experiments, the present study addressed three overarching research questions: 1. What is the influence of perceived control of navigation and degree of natural fit on cause sponsorship-linked marketing on corporate Web site; 2. What is the influence of perceived control of navigation and created-fit type on cause sponsorship-linked marketing on corporate Web site; 3. Can created fit enhance consumers' attitudinal and behavioral reactions for natural fit under the condition of high versus low perceived control of navigation? The results showed that perceived control of navigation had significant effects on attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intention. Type II created fit significantly enhanced consumers' reactions to cause sponsorship-linked marketing when perceived control of navigation was high.

9.1.1. Theoretical implications

Multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVAs) based on data from Experiments 1 and 2 and the combination of Experiments 1 and 2 showed that

perceived control of navigation had significant main effects on attitude toward the Web site, attitude toward the brand and purchase intention. Specifically, attitude toward the Web site was 3.89 in Experiment 1 and 4.82 in Experiment 2 when perceived control of navigation was high, and 2.83 in Experiment 1 and 2.69 in Experiment 2 when perceived control of navigation was low. Attitude toward the brand was 4.27 in Experiment 1 and 4.87 in Experiment 2 when perceived control of navigation was high, and 3.95 in Experiment 1 and 3.95 in Experiment 2 when perceived control of navigation was low. Purchase intention was 4.03 in Experiment 1 and 4.56 in Experiment 2 when perceived control of navigation was high, and 3.63 in Experiment 1 and 3.77 in Experiment 2 when perceived control of navigation was low. These findings suggest that affect toward the Web site can be transferred to attitude toward the sponsor's brand and purchase intention. While previous literatures on cause sponsorship-linked marketing found the transfer of positive affect from sponsored social causes to sponsors (e.g. Rifon, et al., 2004), within the context of corporate Web sites, an additional affect-transfer occurs, that is, the transfer of attitude toward the Web site to attitude toward the sponsor's brand and purchase intention. This finding is in line with the hierarchy-of-effects (HOE) model (Rodgers, Thorson, & Jin, 2009), which predicts that attitude toward the advertisements is the basis for the formation of brand attitude and purchase intention. This finding also adds to Liu and Shrum's (2009) Dual-Process Model of Interactivity Effects, which is proposed within the theoretical framework of the Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM). Liu and Shrum (2009) pointed out that low perceived interactivity has an inhibiting effect on the cognitive processing of advertising messages when consumers are actually interacting with the Web site. The present study suggests that in addition to the inhibiting effect, negative attitude toward the Web site as a result of low

perceived control of navigation can also be transferred to attitude toward the brand and purchase intention. Similarly, Liu and Shrum (2009) pointed out that high-perceived interactivity could facilitate cognitive processing during the actual interaction with the Web site. The present study suggests that in addition to the facilitating effect, positive attitude toward the Web site as a result of high-perceived control of navigation can be transferred to attitude toward the brand and purchase intention. In the language of ELM, the present study suggests that in the actual interaction with the Web site, perceived control of navigation also serves as a peripheral cue influencing the formation of brand attitude and purchase intention while it inhibits or facilitates central route processing.

Upon that, this study further suggests that examining and isolating one key component of perceived interactivity can obtain more in-depth understandings of its influence on audience processing. For example, both perceived control of navigation and perceived personalization are components of perceived interactivity (Wu, 2006). However, their influences on audience reaction are different. The influence of perceived control of navigation on audience reaction mostly takes place during the actual interaction with the Web site. For example, without actually navigating the Web site, the user will not have a feeling of the complexity of the Web site or the categorical consistency between the navigation menu and the content on the linked Web pages. However, the influence of perceived personalization can be a peripheral cue when the user does not actually use with the Web site. For example, the mere presence of personalized product choice helper on a Web site can leave good impression on consumers (Liu & Shrum, 2009). Therefore, the present study suggests that a superior method of studying interactivity is to isolate one component and examine how it influences audience processing.

The results from Experiment 1 showed that on average, high natural fit generated 0.20 negative thoughts about the sponsorship, and low natural fit generated 0.36 negative thoughts about the sponsorship. The mean difference was significant.

These findings suggest that when the sponsor and the sponsored charity are perceived as a match, consumers will generate fewer negative thoughts about the sponsorship. This is in line with Rifon, Choi, Trimble, and Li's (2004) prediction based on schema congruity theory: consumers tend to make fewer negative connections between the sponsor and the sponsored social cause when the sponsorship is of high fit. Rifon, Choi, Trimble, and Li (2004) found that high and low natural fit influenced the way people make connections between the sponsor and the sponsored social cause, specifically, altruistic sponsor motives. Similarly, findings from the present study indicated that high and low natural fit influenced how people think about the sponsorship. However, compared with Rifon, Choi, Trimble, and Li's (2004) finding, results of the present study seem to be more consistent with schema congruity theory. Schema congruity theory predicts effects of natural fit on negative thoughts about the connections between the sponsor and the sponsored social cause. The present study confirmed this prediction by identifying the influence of natural fit on negative thoughts about the sponsorship. In contrast, Rifon, Choi, Trimble, and Li (2004) identified significant influence of natural fit on positive thoughts about the connections between the sponsor and the sponsored charity, i.e. altruistic sponsor motives. A possible explanation is the influence of natural fit on positive and negative thoughts about the connections between the sponsor and the sponsored social cause depends upon the type of the connections.

The present study did not find significant main effects of natural fit on attitude toward the brand, attitude toward the sponsorship, and purchase intention. In contrast,

perceived control of navigation had significant main effects on attitude toward the brand, attitude toward the sponsorship, and purchase intention. An explanation is that the affect-transfer effect of perceived control of navigation overcomes the cognitive effects of perceived control of navigation and the main effects of natural fit, and dominates the process of attitude formation.

The results from all three MANOVAs also showed that perceived control of navigation had significant effects on the number of positive and negative thoughts about the brand and the sponsorship. These findings are in line with ELM. According to ELM, when central route to persuasion dominates the process, people will generate different amount of positive and negative thoughts related to the message, which in term determine attitude. Since high perceived control of navigation is associated with positive affect, high perceived control of navigation is likely to elicit positive thoughts about the sponsor and the sponsorship, and unlikely to elicit negative thoughts about the sponsor and the sponsorship. In other words, perceived control of navigation influences not only the valence of cognitive elaboration but also the amount of cognitive elaboration.

The results from the combined data from Experiments 1 and 2 showed that the interaction between FIT and navigation had main effects on the linear combination of all DVs. Type II created fit generated 0.291 more negative thoughts about the sponsorship, when perceived control of navigation was high when perceived control of navigation is high, and the mean difference was not significant when perceived control of navigation was low. Attitude toward the brand associated with Type II created fit was 0.867 higher than attitude toward the brand associated with low natural fit when perceived control of navigation was high. Attitude toward the sponsorship associated with Type II created fit was 0.995 higher than attitude toward the

sponsorship associated with low natural fit when perceived control of navigation was high. Purchase intention associated with Type II created fit was 0.818 higher than purchase intention associated with low natural fit when perceived control of navigation was high. The mean differences between Type II created fit and low natural fit in terms of attitude toward the sponsorship and the brand, and purchase intention were not significant when perceived control of navigation was low. These results suggest that perceived control sets up two conditions for cognitive elaboration triggered by Type II created fit and low natural fit, and ELM can explain the formation of attitude within the context of cause-sponsorship promotion on corporate Web sites. Specifically, the results suggest that under the condition of high perceived control of navigation, consumers tend to think less negatively about the sponsorship, and the mean difference between Type II created fit and natural fit becomes significant. Since central route of processing dominates the persuasion when perceived control of navigation is high, fewer negative thoughts lead to less negative attitudes. In contrast, under the condition of low perceived control of navigation, consumers tend to think more negatively about Type II created fit. In addition, central route of processing does not dominate the persuasion. Affect-transfer effect of perceived control of navigation probably takes place. Therefore, there is no difference between Type II created fit and low natural fit in terms of negative thoughts about the sponsorship.

Based on the above discussions, the present study reveals the unique role that corporate Web sites play in cause sponsorship-linked marketing. While there are several existing studies that examined sponsorship-linked marketing within the context of corporate Web sites, most of them concentrated on sponsorship messages alone, such as activation strategies (Weeks, Cornwell, & Drennan, 2008) and

created fit (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006). Even though these studies were conducted in an online environment, online elements were not really part of the research. The present study bridged this gap and revealed significant main effects of perceived control of navigation and interaction between perceived control of navigation and fit on cause sponsorship-linked marketing. These findings suggest that corporate Web sites create a different context for cause sponsorship-linked marketing. Perceived control of navigation strongly influences cognitive elaboration, attitude toward formation, and purchase intention associated with sponsorship promotion. The effect of perceived control of navigation is similar to the effect of event on sponsorship. Findings from event sponsorship suggest that people will like the sponsorship since they like the event (Speed & Thompson, 2000). Similarly, people will like the sponsorship, the brand, and like to purchase the brand if they feel good about the corporate Web site. More specifically, high-perceived control of navigation can facilitate consumers' interaction with messages of Type II created fit. Through active interaction with sponsorship messages presented on corporate Web sites, consumers can better establish the associations between the sponsor and the sponsored social cause, and consequently, think less negative about the sponsorship. However, such enhancing effects introduced by interactivity can hardly be found in sponsorship promotions on traditional media.

It should be noted that the present research does not assume that corporate Web site is the first place where consumers learn about sponsorship. Corporate Web site is only one component of sponsorship promotions. Consumers have various ways to obtain information about sponsorship, such as from news releases, depending upon the person, the situation, the person's relationship to the health problem, etc. The

present study points that corporate Web site is a strong supplement or an important component of a cross-media promotion of sponsorship.

The present study did not find significant differences between Type I created fit and Type II created fit either under the conditions of high or low perceived control of navigation. These findings suggest that Type II created fit and Type I created are producing similarly effects through cognition when consumers are involved with sponsorship messages. The present study also found that the differences between Type I created fit and high natural fit were not significant. While Type I created fit consistently had higher mean scores than high natural fit on dependent measures, the mean differences between Type I created fit and high natural fit were extremely small. These results may suggest that making additional links between a sponsor and a sponsored social cause for a sponsorship with salient associations could not significantly improve the effects on audience processing for high natural fit.

9.1.2. Practical implications

While the internal validity of the present study was ensured by appropriate manipulation, measurement, and experiment design, the external validity of the study lies in the extent to which findings from the present study can be generalized to the real world, i.e. the practical implications of the present study.

“Created fit” specifically refers to a type of sponsorship promotion, like the activational strategy, which aims to increasing consumers’ engagement with the sponsorship. Findings from the present study showed that created fit, which highlights the connections between the sponsor and a sponsored social cause on corporate Web sites can enhance brand attitude and purchase intention. Similar to Simmons and Becker-Olsen (2006), these findings suggest that contrary to earlier “industry wisdom”

that low natural fit is a barrier for corporate sponsors, communicating the connections between the sponsor and the sponsored social cause is the key to cause sponsorship promotion. For example, donations and volunteering that appropriately involve the company's product are connections that corporate sponsorship can talk about in their promotion. Particularly to health-related social causes, it is likely that there is a connection between the company's business and the health issue, but that connection is beyond an average consumer's knowledge or the public's common sense. Corporate sponsors can also make use of those connections. Created fit emphasizes communication strategies that build connection between the sponsor and the sponsored charity for the purpose of increasing natural fit. Created fit that connects corporate sponsors and the sponsored social cause in a positive way should be part of the messages presented on corporate Web sites.

Upon the first implication, this study further suggests that corporate sponsors should pay special attention to cause sponsorship-related content on their corporate Web sites. Corporate Web sites, theoretically, have unlimited space to present information about the connections between the sponsor and the sponsored social cause. In addition, Web site users, theoretically, have unlimited time to read the content on corporate Web sites, including cause sponsorship messages. Therefore, corporate Web sites are presenting a promising opportunity for corporate sponsors to persuade their consumers into positive attitude toward the brand and higher purchase intention through cause sponsorship promotion. To take this opportunity, findings from this study suggest that well-organized information structure of the Web site is very important. First, well-organized information structure of a Web site, including accurate navigation menus, less complex navigation, and more navigation aids will increase the chances for consumers to find content about created fit and leave people

with good impressions of the brand. This is particularly important to medium-size and small corporate sponsors. In reality, more and more medium-size and small companies are joining the trend of cause sponsorship. For example, the sponsors of the Susan G. Komen for the Cure include not only companies like American Airlines but also companies like Igloo and Planet Smoothie. Some of the companies do not have a well-designed corporate Web site. For those corporate sponsors, presenting “created fit” in a way that consumers are easier to find the relevant information can increase the ROI for their cause sponsorship efforts. Second, the faster consumers can get to cause sponsorship-related content, it is more likely that cause sponsorship-related promotions, including created fit, can take effect. For a lot of corporate sponsors of social causes, like Bank of American, who already have a well-developed and highly sophisticated corporate Web site, a problem is that cause sponsorship messages are often buried deep in the information structure of the Web site. Therefore, bringing cause sponsorship-related content to a more accessible location on corporate Web sites is of crucial importance to those companies to make full use of cause sponsorship-related promotion.

9.2. Limitations and directions for future research

There are four major limitations of the present study. First, the affect-transfer effect of perceived control of navigation hypothesizes a mediation effect of attitude toward the Web site on attitude toward the brand and purchase intention. However, MANOVA analysis applied in this study provided only indirect evidence of the mediation effect. Future studies can apply path analysis to provide direct evidence of the mediation effect of attitude toward the Web site. The second limitation is the present research used a convenient sample of undergraduate students. Since the

emphasis of the present study was to examine the theoretical relationship between concepts, student sample is appropriate. However, future studies can use non-student sample to replicate this study. Third, although isolating one aspect of interactivity to obtain in-depth understanding is a strength of the present study, this is also a limitation because there are many other aspects of interactivity which need to be examined. Future studies can isolate those features and determine their effects on consumer attitude and behaviors toward sponsorships. Forth, the fact that you chose one context, i.e., corporate websites, was a unique strength because it is a common promotional tool among sponsors/brands. However, there are many other online contexts (and mobile contexts too) that need to be examined. Future research can replicate the present study with different types of sponsorships and contexts.

9.3. Conclusion

The purpose of the present research is to examine the role of perceived control of navigation in online sponsorship-linked marketing. Specifically, the present research examines the influence of three independent variables - perceived control of navigation, degree of natural fit, and created-fit type - on cognitive elaboration, attitude formation, and purchase intention in the context of cause sponsorship-linked marketing on corporate Web sites. The present study proposes that isolating and examining key components of perceived interactivity is a superior method that obtains in-depth understandings of how each component influences audience processing. By examining natural fit and created fit in the context of corporate Web site, the present study bridged the gap between the sponsorship literature and the literature of Internet advertising, and identified the unique role of corporate Web sites in cause sponsorship-linked marketing. Theoretically, the results suggests that perceived

control of navigation can facilitate or hinder the cognitive ability of processing sponsorship messages; it also serves as a peripheral cue to influence brand attitude and purchase intention; and, created fit is a communication strategy drawing upon central route to persuasion. Practically, the present study suggests that low natural fit is not a barrier for corporate sponsors, and corporate sponsors should pay special attention to cause sponsorship-related content on their corporate Web sites.

CHAPTER X.

TABLES

Table 1. *Familiarity and Liking of Non-profit Organizations in Pretest 1*

Non-profit Organizations	<i>M</i>	
	Familiarity	Liking
Susan G. Komen for the Cure	5.26	6.10
National Breast Cancer Coalition Fund	4.28	5.76
National Breast Cancer Foundation	5.26	6.22
Organization for Autism Research	3.70	6.02
American Lung Association	3.16	5.38
National Cancer Coalition	3.18	5.62
Parkinson's Disease Foundation	3.44	5.52
Skin Cancer Foundation	3.60	5.56

Table 2. *Mean Scores of Attitude toward the Web Site, Attitude toward the brand, and Purchase Intention in Experiment 1*

	<i>M</i>		
	Attitude toward the Web site	Attitude toward the brand	Purchase intention
High perceived control of navigation	3.89	4.27	4.03
Low perceived control of navigation	2.83	3.95	3.63

Table 3. *Mean Scores of Attitude toward the Web Site, Attitude toward the brand, and Purchase Intention in Experiment 2*

	<i>M</i>		
	Attitude toward the Web site	Attitude toward the brand	Purchase intention
High perceived control of navigation	4.82	4.87	4.56
Low perceived control of navigation	2.69	3.95	3.77

Table 4. *The Main Effects of Perceived Control of Navigation in Experiments 1 and 2*

	<i>M</i>		
	Attitude toward the Web site	Attitude toward the brand	Purchase intention
High perceived control of navigation	4.35	4.57	4.29
Low perceived control of navigation	2.76	3.94	3.70

Table 5. *Pairwise Comparisons of Type II Created Fit and Low Natural Fit*

		Perceived control of navigation	M		Mean difference
			Type II created fit	Low natural fit	
The number of positive thought about the brand	High		0.36	0.26	0.091
	Low		0.25	0.16	0.091
The number of negative thought about the brand	High		0.05	0.05	0
	Low		0.13	0.07	0.064
The number of positive thought about the sponsorship	High		0.23	0.14	0.091
	Low		0.13	0.09	0.036
The number of negative thoughts about the sponsorship	High		0.07	0.37	- 0.291*
	Low		0.19	0.36	-0.164
Attitude toward the brand	High		4.93	4.06	0.867*
	Low		4.03	3.90	0.130
Attitude toward the sponsorship	High		5.04	4.04	0.995*
	Low		3.93	3.55	0.377
Purchase intention	High		4.63	3.82	0.818*
	Low		3.90	3.61	0.285

* p < 0.05

CHAPTER XI.

FIGURES

Figure 1. *The Two Effects of Perceived Control of Navigation*

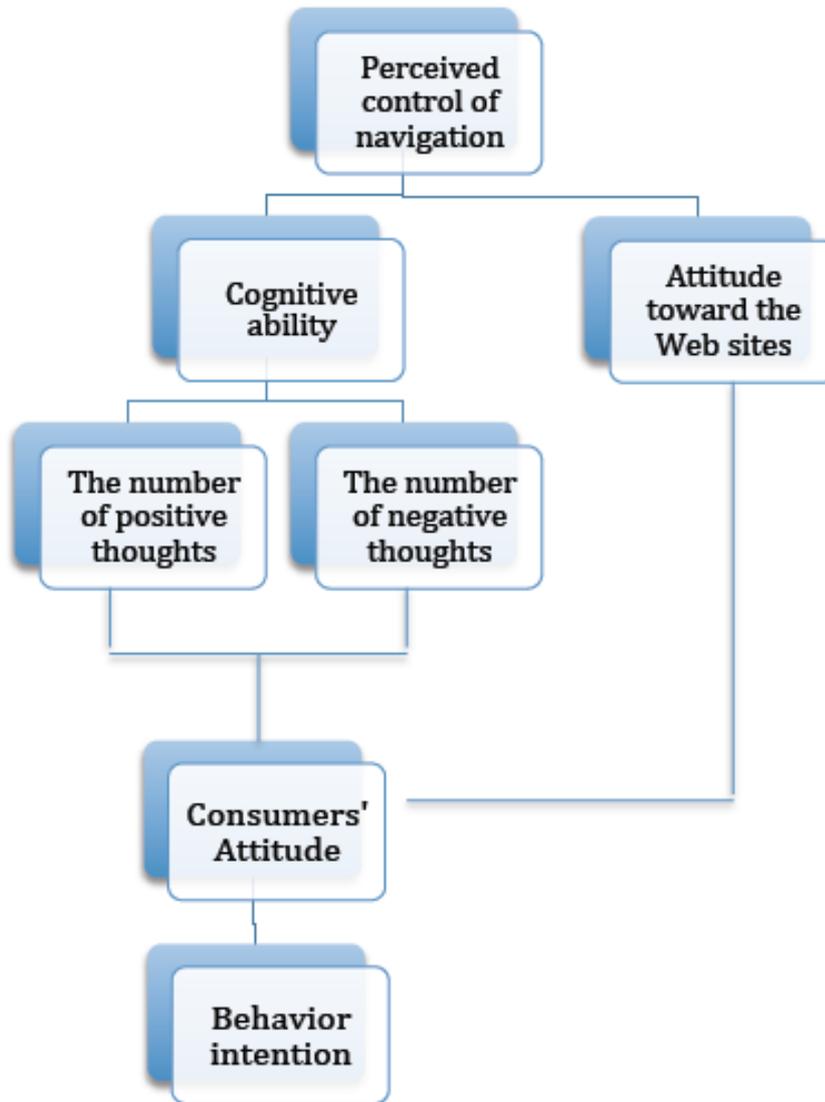


Figure 2. *The Affect-Transfer Effect of Perceived Control of Navigation*

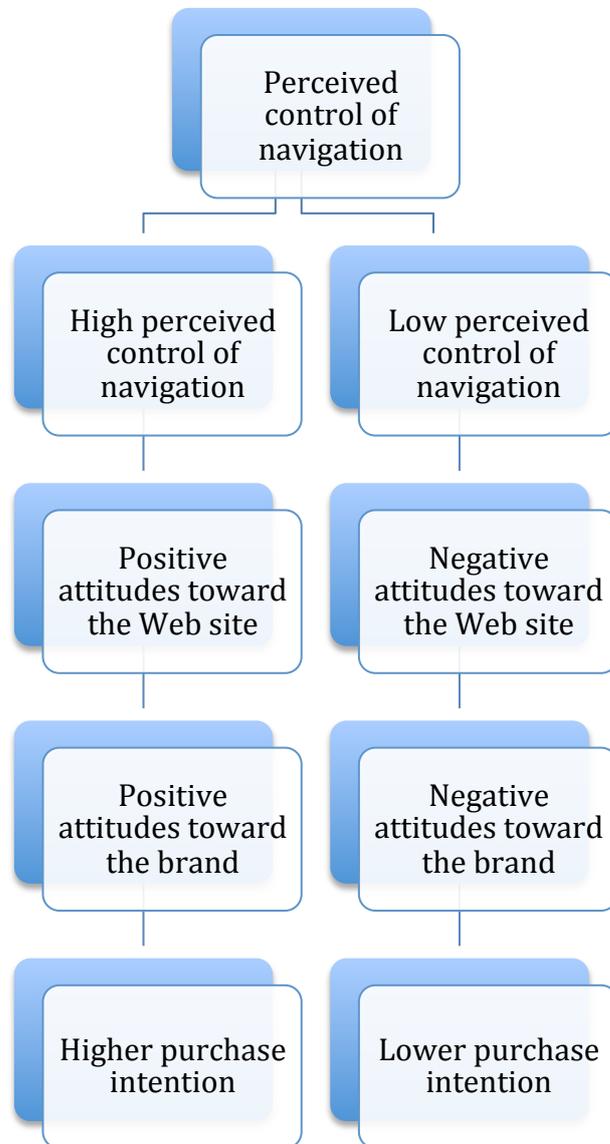


Figure 3. *The Cognitive Effect of Perceived Control of Navigation*

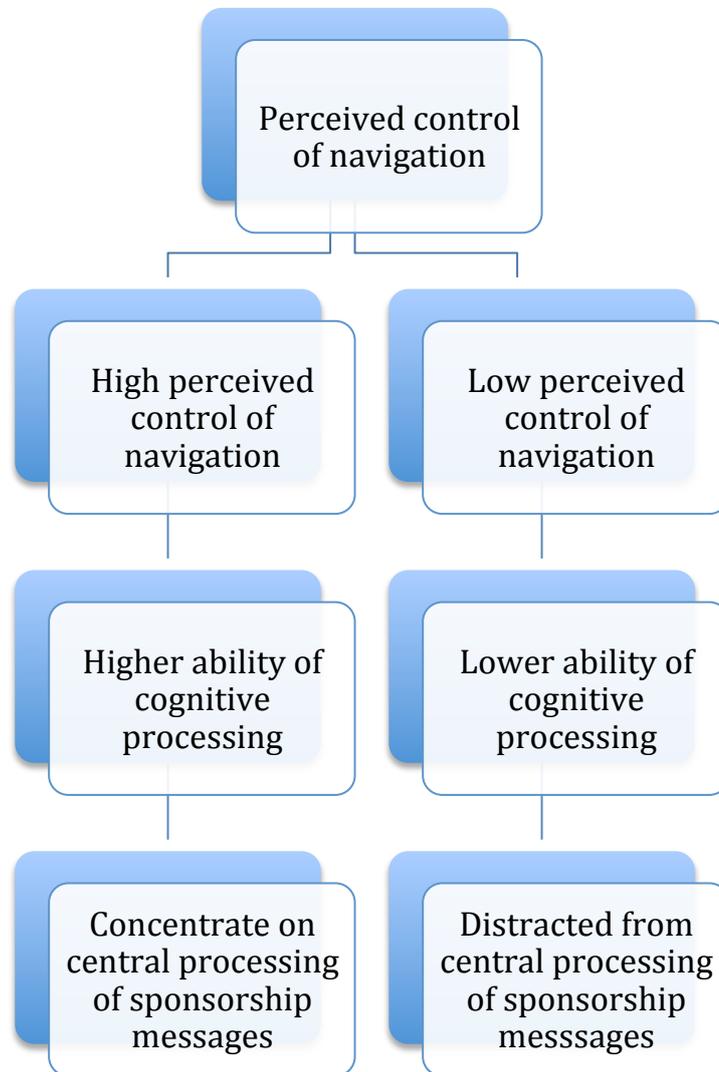


Figure 4. *The Cognitive Effect of Perceived Control of Navigation and Natural Fit*

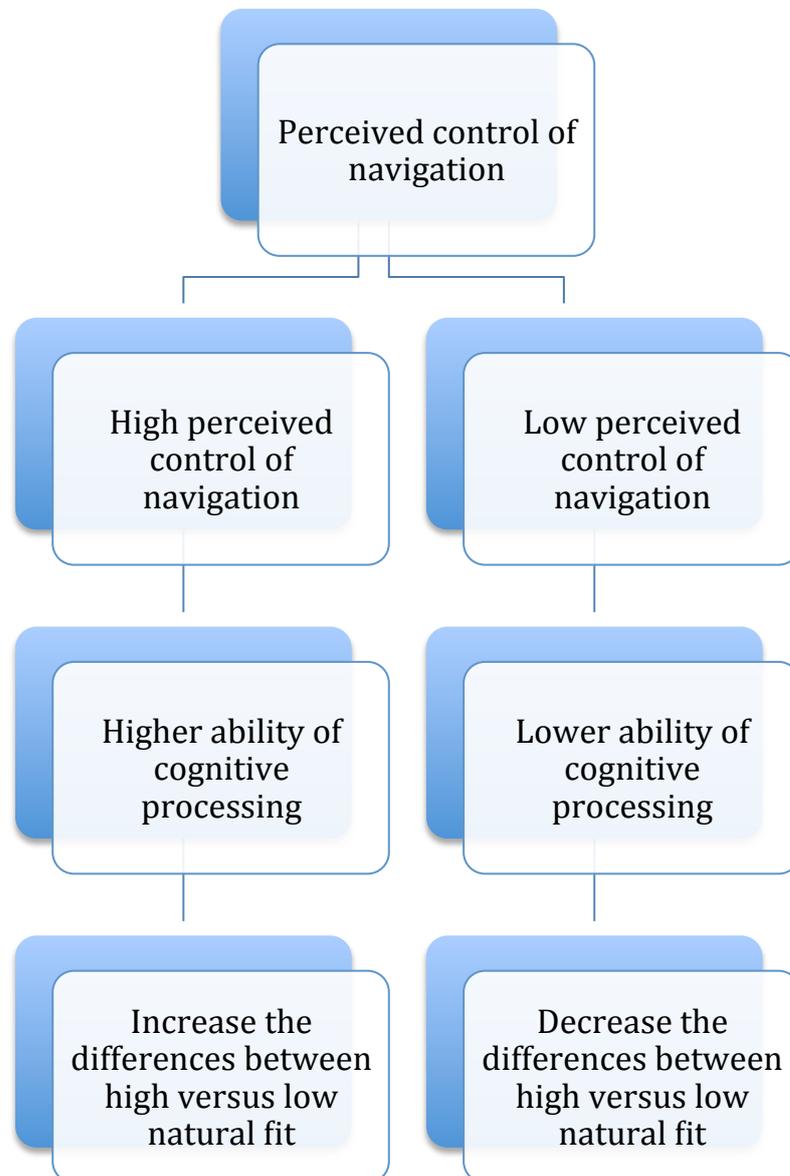


Figure 5. *The Cognitive Effect of Perceived Control of Navigation and Created-fit Type*

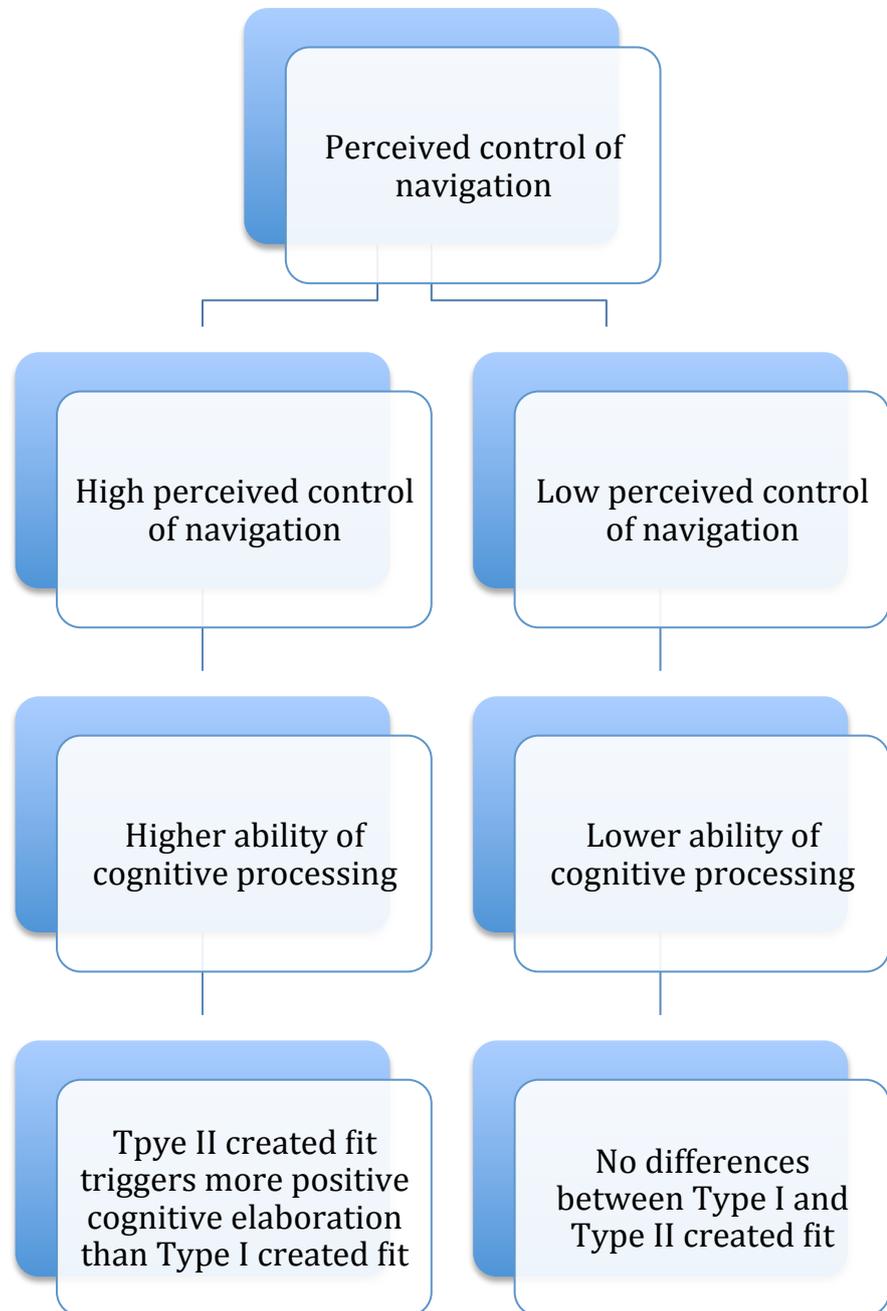


Figure 6. *The Cognitive Effect of Perceived Control of Navigation, Type I Created Fit, and High Natural Fit*

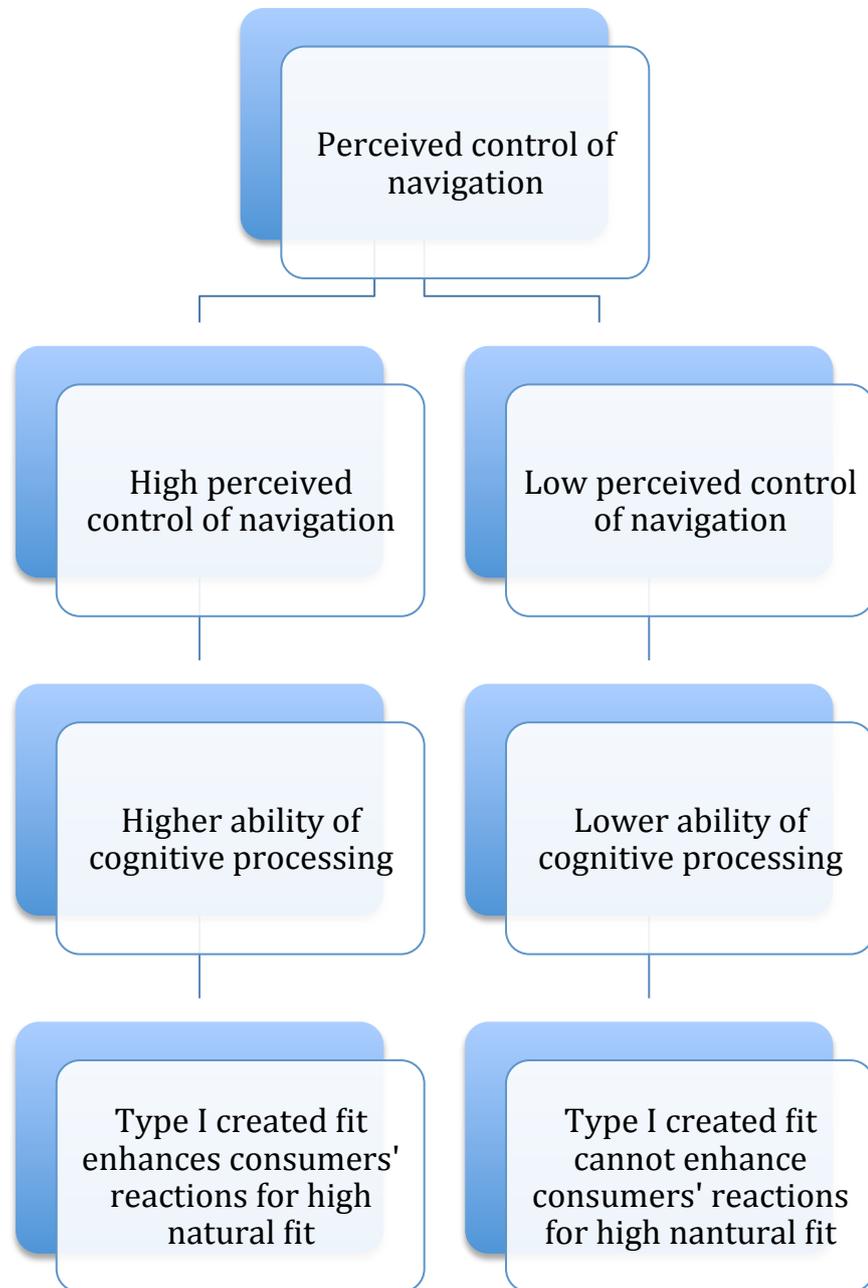


Figure 7. *The Cognitive Effect of Perceived Control of Navigation, Type II Created Fit, Low Natural Fit*

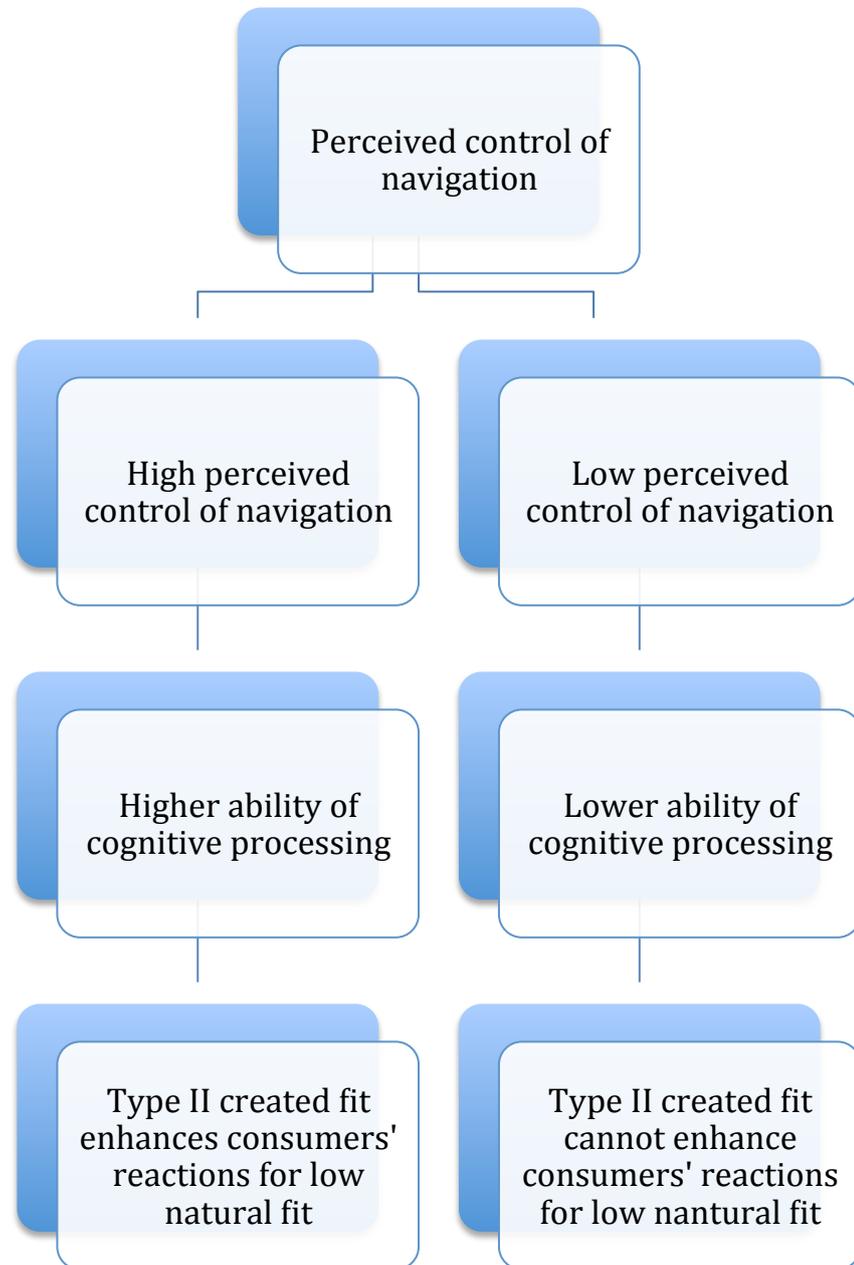


Figure 8. *Hypotheses, Experiments, and MANOVAs*

Experiment 1 Experiment 2 Combined data from Experiment 1 & 2	MANOVA 1 & 2 & 3
H1: Attitude toward the Web site are more positive when perceived control of navigation is high versus low. (supported)	
H2: Attitude toward the brand are more positive when perceived control of navigation is high versus low. (supported)	
H3: Purchase intention is higher when perceived control of navigation is high versus low. (supported)	
Experiment 1: 2 (between-subjects factor: low versus high natural fit) x 2 (within-subject factor: low- versus high- perceived control of navigation) x 2(message repetition)	MANOVA 1 IVs: Natural fit, perceived control of navigation DVs: Number of positive thoughts, number of negative thoughts, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intention
H4a: Low natural fit generates more negative thoughts about the brand than high natural fit. (not supported)	
H4b: High natural fit generates more positive thoughts about the brand than low natural fit. (not supported)	
H5a: Low natural fit generates more negative thoughts about the sponsorship than high natural fit. (supported)	
H5b: High natural fit generates more positive thoughts about the sponsorship than low natural fit. (not supported)	
H6: High natural fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the sponsorship than low natural fit.	
H7: High natural fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the brand than low natural fit. (not supported)	
H8: High natural fit is associated with higher purchase intention than low natural fit. (not supported)	
H9a: Low natural fit generates more negative thoughts about the brand than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference in negative thoughts between low and high natural fit is smaller when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)	
H9b: High natural fit generates more positive thoughts about the brand than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference in positive thoughts between low and high natural fit is smaller when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)	
H10a: Low natural fit generates more negative thoughts about the sponsorship than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference in negative thoughts between low and high natural fit is smaller when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)	
H10b: High natural fit generates more positive thoughts about the sponsorship than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference in positive thoughts between low and high natural fit is smaller when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)	
H11: High natural fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the brand than low natural	

fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference in attitude toward the brand between low and high natural fit is smaller when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)

H12: High natural fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the sponsorship than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference in attitude toward the brand between low and high natural fit is smaller when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)

H13: Low natural fit is associated with lower purchase intention of the brand than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference in purchase intention between low and high natural fit is smaller when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)

Experiment 2: 2 (between-subjects factor: Type I created fit versus Type II created fit) x 2 (within-subject factor: low- versus high-perceived control of navigation) x 2(message repetition)

MANOVA 2

IVs: Created-fit type, perceived control of navigation

DVs: Number of positive thoughts, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intention

H14: Type II created fit generates more positive thoughts about the brand than Type I created fit. (not supported)

H15: Type II created fit generates more positive thoughts about the sponsorship than Type I created fit. (not supported)

H16: Type II created fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the sponsorship than Type I created fit. (not supported)

H17: Type II created fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the brand than Type I created fit. (not supported)

H18: Type II created fit is associated with higher purchase intention than Type I created fit. (not supported)

H19: Type II created fit generates more positive thoughts about the brand than Type I created fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such a pattern does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)

H20: Type II created fit generates more positive thoughts about the sponsorship than Type I created fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such a pattern does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)

H21: Type II created fit leads to more positive attitude toward the brand than Type I created fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such a pattern does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)

H22: Type II created fit leads to more positive attitude toward the sponsorship than Type I created fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such a pattern does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)

H23: Type II created fit is associated with higher purchase intention of the brand than Type I created fit, when perceived control of navigation is high, and such a pattern does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)

<p>Combined data from Experiment 1 & 2</p>	<p>MANOVA 3</p> <p>IVs: FIT (low natural fit, high natural fit, Type I created fit, Type II created fit), perceived control of navigation</p> <p>DVs: Number of positive thoughts, number of negative thoughts, attitude toward the brand, and purchase intention</p>
<p>H24: Type I created fit can generate more positive thoughts about the brand than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)</p>	
<p>H25: Type I created fit can generate more positive thoughts about the sponsorship than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)</p>	
<p>H26: Type I created fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the brand than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)</p>	
<p>H27: Type I created fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the sponsorship than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)</p>	
<p>H28: Type I created fit is associated with higher purchase intention than high natural fit when perceived control of navigation is low, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)</p>	
<p>H29a: Type II created fit generates more positive thoughts about the brand than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)</p>	
<p>H29b: Type II created fit generates fewer negative thoughts about the brand than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such differences does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)</p>	
<p>H30a: Type II created fit generates more positive thoughts about the sponsorship than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (not supported)</p>	
<p>H30b: Type II created fit generates fewer negative thoughts about the sponsorship than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such differences does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (supported)</p>	
<p>H31: Type II created fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the brand than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such differences does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (supported)</p>	
<p>H32: Type II created fit is associated with more positive attitude toward the sponsorship than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such differences does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (supported)</p>	
<p>H33: Type II created fit is associated with higher purchase intention than low natural fit when perceived control of navigation is high, and such difference does not exist when perceived control of navigation is low. (supported)</p>	

Figure 9. *Manipulation of High Perceived Control of Navigation*

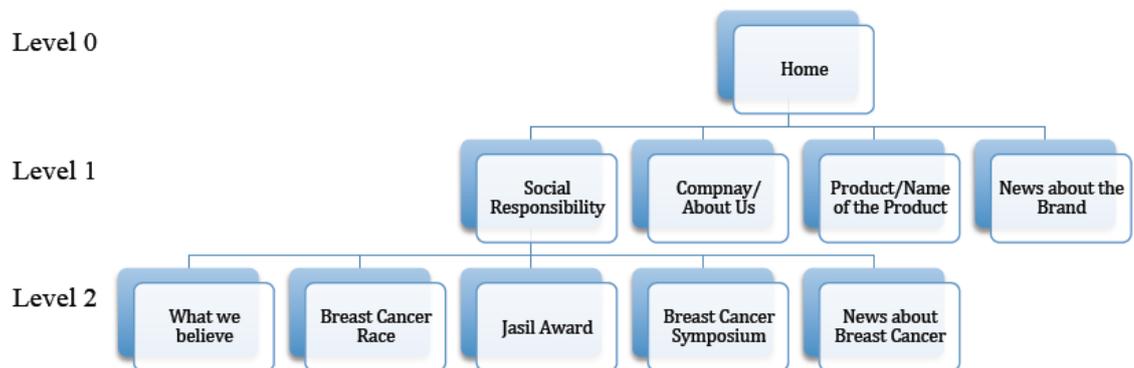


Figure 10. *Manipulation of Low Perceived Control of Navigation*

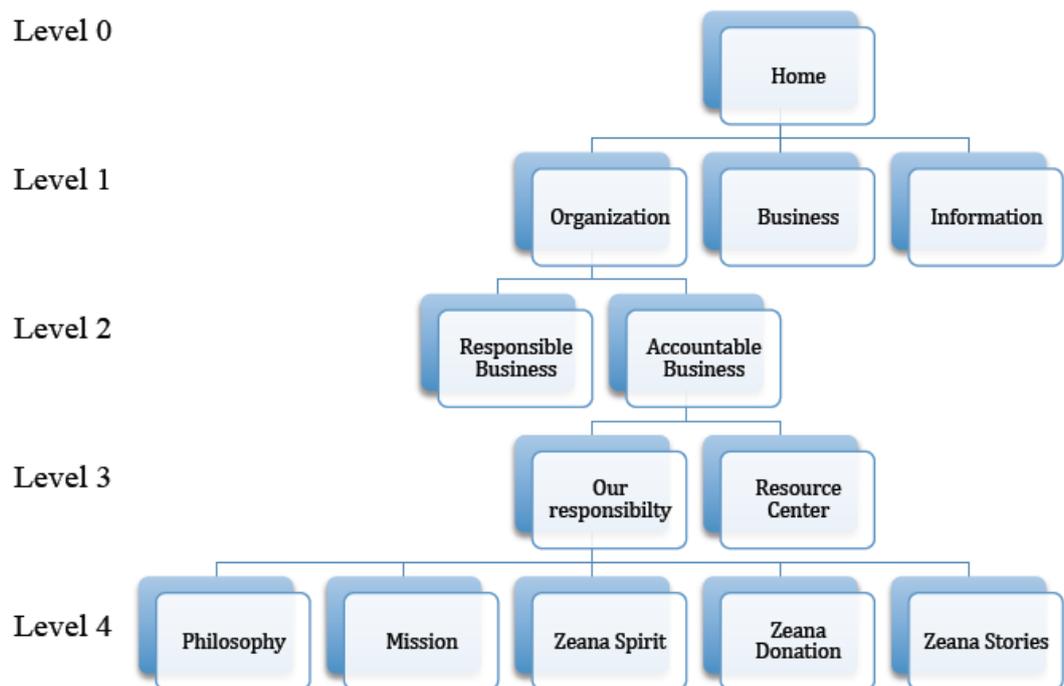
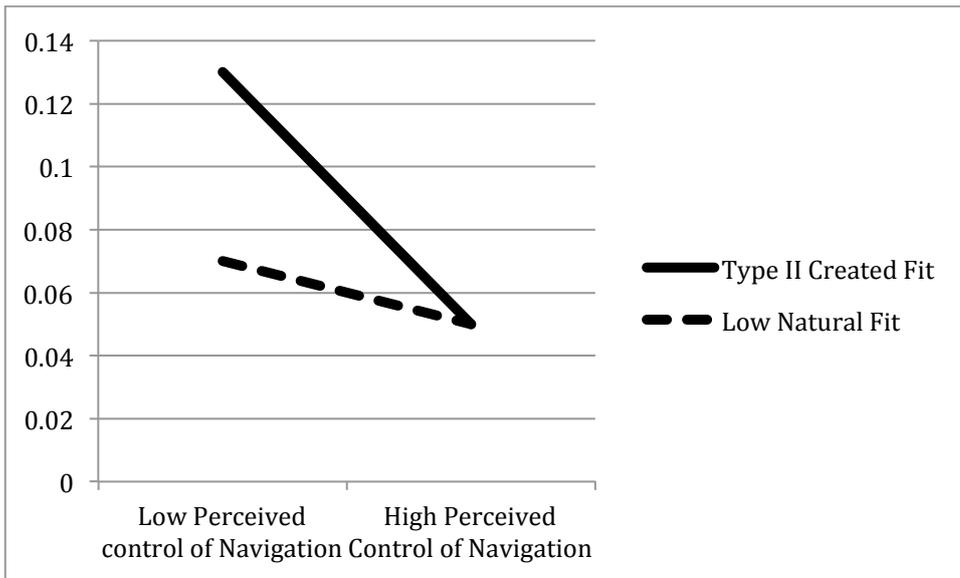
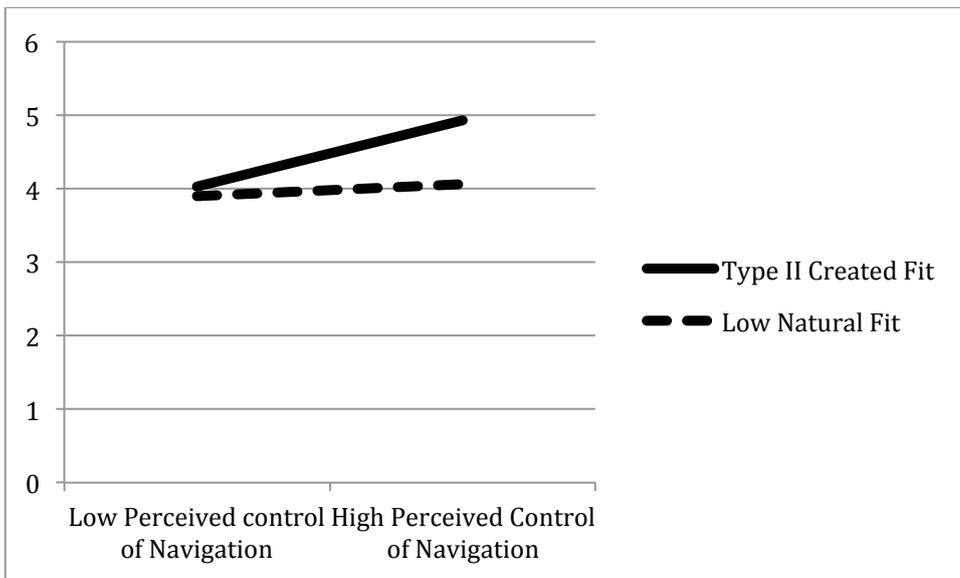


Figure 11. *Moderating Effect of Perceived Control of Navigation on Negative Thoughts about the Sponsorship*



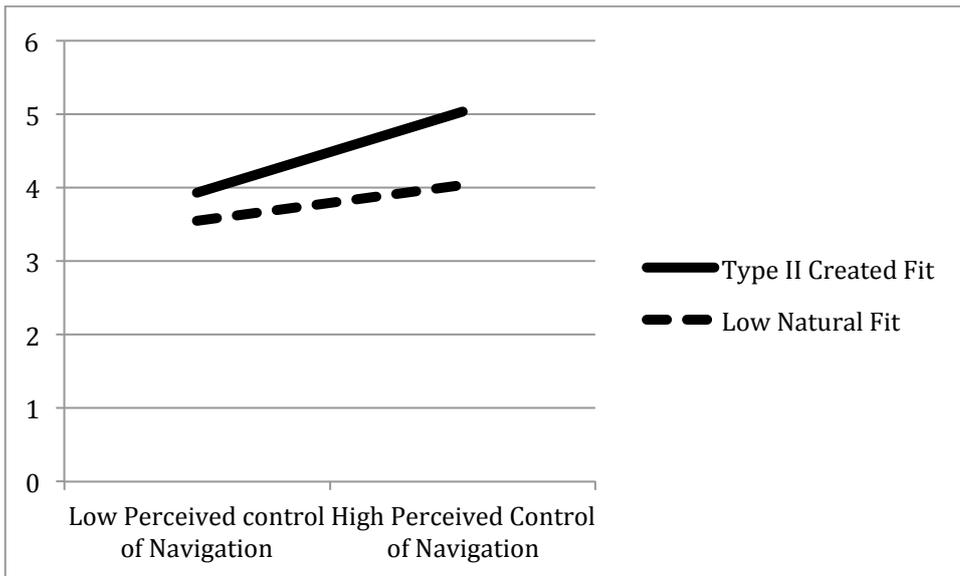
$p < .05$

Figure 12. *Moderating Effect of Perceived Control of Navigation on Attitude toward the Brand*



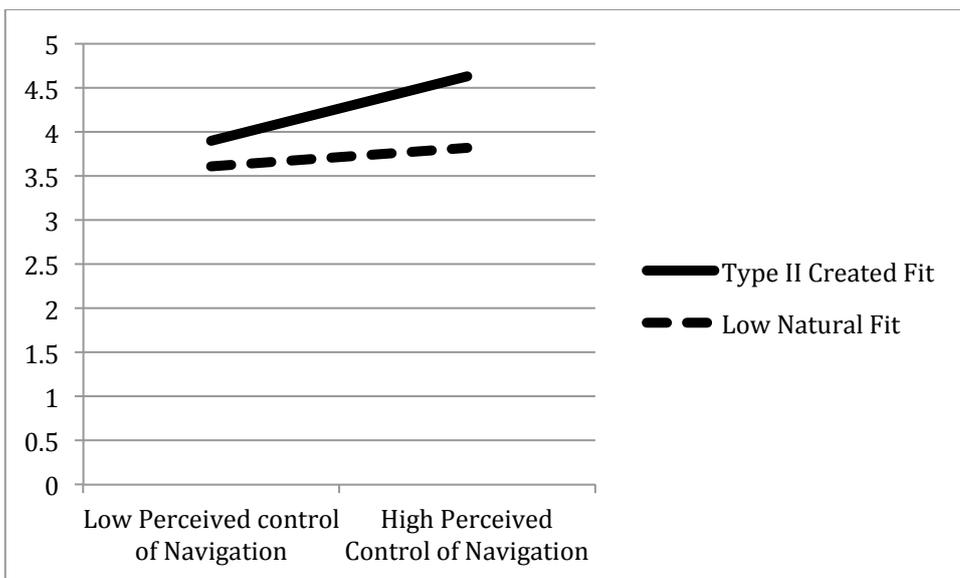
$p < .05$

Figure 13. *Moderating Effect of Perceived Control of Navigation on Attitude toward the Sponsorship*



$p < 0.05$

Figure 14. *Moderating Effect of Perceived Control of Navigation on Purchase Intention*



$p < 0.05$

CHAPTER XII.

Vita

Ye Wang was born in Chongqing, China in 1980. She goes by Wang Ye in Chinese following Chinese tradition. She grew up in a university town Beibei, a suburban district of Chongqing. She had her undergraduate degree in English literature from Beijing University of Posts and Telecommunications in 2003. Then, she earned her master's degree in linguistics from Beijing Foreign Studies University. After working for a short time for an international trading company in Beijing, she came to the Missouri School of journalism, perusing master's degree in journalism. During the master program, she became more and more interested in research, so she decided to get a Ph.D. in journalism. During the Ph.D. program at the Missouri School of Journalism, she co-taught Interactive Advertising I and II, and assisted with Strategic Communication I.

Wang Ye's research interests are Internet advertising and health communication. Her previous research on Internet advertising concentrates on electronic-word-of-mouth and online health communities. She had a published book chapter on electronic-word-of-mouth and a book chapter on online health communities in press. Her previous research on health communication concentrates on the role of advertisements in communicating health messages to minorities. In addition, she is also interested in online sponsorship promotion, which is the topic of her dissertation.

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APPENDIX 1: Measurement scales

Pretest 1:

1. Susan G. Komen for the Cure

To what extent are you familiar with this organization?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Unfamiliar

Familiar

To What extent do you like this organization?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Dislike

Like

2. If Beirele Vitamins sponsors the following charities, to what extent do you think Beirele Vitamins and ... (see the following charities) is of high fit or low fit?

	Low						High
	fit						fit
National Breast Cancer Foundation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Parkinson's Disease Foundation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Susan G. Komen for the Cure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Skin Cancer Foundation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
American Lung Association	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Organization for Autism Research	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

National Breast Cancer Coalition Fund	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
National Cancer Coalition	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Pretest 2:

1. To what extent do you feel controlling your navigation through this Web site is easy

or difficult? 1 stands for easy and 7 stands for difficult.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Easy

Difficult

2. To what extent do you feel finding your way through the Web site is easy or difficult?

1 stands for easy and 7 stands for difficult.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Easy

Difficult

3. Is it easy or difficulty for you to know where you are going while you are on the Web

site? 1 stands for easy and 7 stands difficult.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Easy

Difficult

4. Are you able to go where you think you are going while you are on the Web site? 1

stands for easy and 7 stands for difficult.

Disagree Agree

6. I think it is a nice Web site.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Disagree Agree

Attitude toward the brand

7. This sponsorship makes feel more favorable toward the brand.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Disagree Agree

8. This sponsorship would improve my perception of the brand.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Disagree Agree

9. This sponsorship would make me like the brand more.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Disagree Agree

Purchase intention

10. This sponsorship would make me more likely to use the brand.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Disagree Agree

11. This sponsorship would make me more likely to consider the brand the next time when I buy.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Disagree Agree

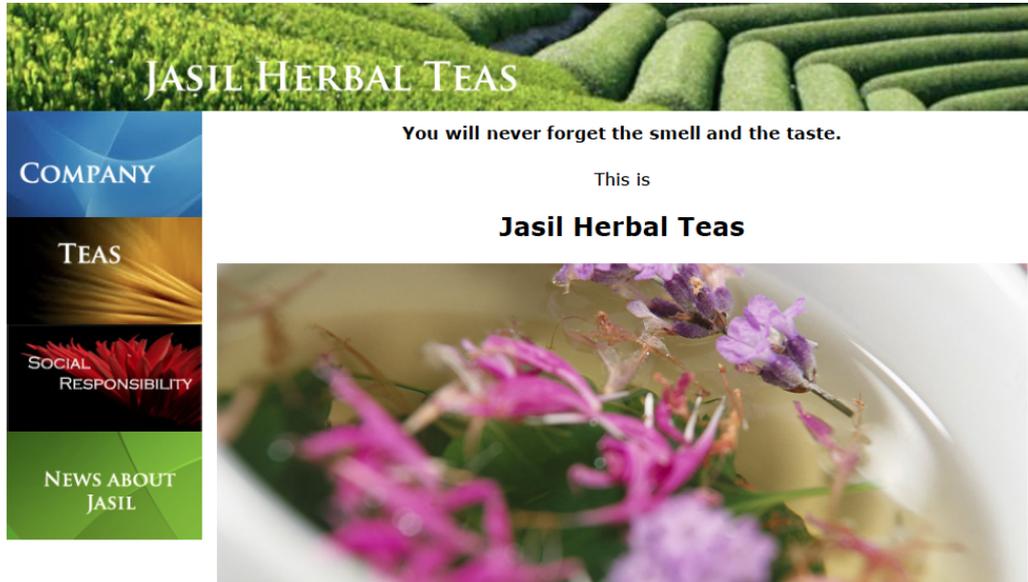
12. I would be more likely to buy the brand as a result of this sponsorship.

APPENDIX 2: Stimuli

Six layouts of Web sites:

Layout 1:

□



Layout 2:

□



Layout 3:



[Organization](#)

[Business](#)

[Information](#)

Fannon Stationary Bikes

Build your strength, help you relax



Copyright 2011

Layout 4:



[Company](#)

[Maps](#)

[Social Responsibility](#)

[News About Brisk](#)

Brisk Travel Maps



Layout 5:

□



About Us
Services
Social Responsibility
News about Jolo

Jolo Weight Loss Services

We help you to be healthier and lighter.

Jolo Weight Loss Services provide customized weight loss plans for our customers.

Healthy diet, healthy life.



Contact us about more information at:

800-999-888

© 2011 Copyright

Layout 6:

□

ORGANIZATION

BUSINESS

INFORMATION

Deer Travel Service

Family fun starts here

Created fit:

Sponsorship	Product-related donations or volunteering	Explanation for fit
<p>Jasil Herbal Teas & Susan G. Komen for the Cure</p>	<p>The Teapot Project will donate one cent to the Susan G. Komen for the Cure with each purchase of Jasil Herbal Teas. Cut the top of the box of Jasil Herbal Teas and mail it to the following address: 109 Christopher St New York, NY 10014 One cent will go to the Susan G. Komen for the Cure for each returned box top.</p>	<p>It is widely known that herbal teas may help to prevent and treat breast cancer. Recent studies showed that younger women were more likely to use herbal teas as an alternative treatment for breast cancer. Although medical research provides mixed findings about whether herbal teas can prevent or treat breast cancer, taking herbal teas can help young women diagnosed with breast cancer reduce the anxiety level and relax.</p>
<p>Beirele Vitamins & National Cancer Coalition</p>	<p>With each purchase of Beirele Vitamins, Beirele will donate one cent to National Cancer Coalition. This program started in 2004. So far, \$130,000 goes to</p>	<p>New research shows that the vitamin can kill human cancer cells. The results fall short of an immediate cancer cure, but they are encouraging, medical professionals say. JoEllen Welsh, a researcher with the State University of New York at Albany, has studied the effects of vitamin D for 25</p>

	National Cancer Coalition.	years. Part of her research involves taking human breast cancer cells and treating them with a potent form of vitamin D. Within a few days, half the cancer cells shriveled up and died. Welsh said the vitamin has the same effect as a drug used for breast cancer treatment. "What happens is that vitamin D enters the cells and triggers the cell death process," she told "Good Morning America." "It's similar to what we see when we treat cells with Tamoxifen," a drug used to treat breast cancer.
Beirele & the Skin Cancer Foundation	With a purchase of any Beirele's vitamins, Beirele will donate 3 cents to the Skin Cancer Foundation. Leaf Project was launched in 2005. So far, Leaf Project has already donated \$37,000 to the Skin Cancer Foundation.	Vitamin C is an alternative treatment for cancer. By applying Vitamin C on skin tumors, some patients have seen significant improvement of their skin cancer. Beirele's vitamins are made from natural ingredients. It feels much comfortable on your skin when you choose this alternative treatment.
Fannon Stationary Bikes &	To support American Lung Association, Fannon Stationary Bikes	Many people know that cycling is an exercise that is good for lung health. However, enjoying the happiness of riding

<p>American Lung Association</p>	<p>launched Fannon's Dollar Program. Consumers who sign up for Fannon's Dollar Program will get a certificate in email from Fannon. With the certificate, you can give your old stationary bike to Fannon and get \$30 Fannon Cash. When you use your Fannon Cash to buy Fannon stationary bikes, Fannon will donate \$1 to American Lung Association. For more information, please contact your local Fannon stores.</p>	<p>bikes also needs clean air. In heavily polluted environment, breathing deeply is not an enjoyment but a torture. That is why Fannon Stationary Bikes support the clean air mission of American Lung Association.</p>
<p>Jolo Weight Loss Service & Organization for Autism Research</p>	<p>The Leaf Project, initiated by Jolo Weight Loss Service in 2002 provides free consultation for children with autism on weight</p>	<p>Some medications for autism can cause serve weight gain. A lot of parents whose children are under medication for autism are looking for healthy ways of weight management. Weight gain not only hinders autism children from developing motor</p>

	control. So far, 3,589 autism children have signed up for the free-consultation program.	skills but also makes it more difficult for them to have a normal life. Weight loss services can help autism children to eat a healthy diet and reduce the side effects of autism medication.
Deer Travel Service & Parkinson's Disease Foundation	Deer Travel Service launched the Planning Your Travel for PDF in 2004. With each trip you book through Deer Travel Service, We will donate \$10 to Parkinson's Disease Foundation.	"I'd love to travel, but I have Parkinson's and it's no longer possible." - WRONG! Don't give up on one of life's wonderful experiences. Obviously, a lot depends on the level of your disability and your planning, but it is possible. Celia Jones, who was diagnosed with Parkinson's 17 years ago, thought her traveling over the past 10 years has helped slow her deterioration. By following some basic steps, you can and should enjoy traveling: 1. Creating a well-organized travel itinerary 2. Have your doctor write a summary of your illness and what medications you are on and the dosages 3. When considering hotels or other types of lodging, find out ahead of time about what accommodations they offer people

		<p>with disabilities</p> <p>For more information on traveling with Parkinson's disease, see:</p> <p>Holiday and Respite Care Guide 2006 published by Parkinson's Disease Society of the United Kingdom, 215 Vauxhall Bridge Road, London SW1V 1EJ.</p> <p>Website: www.parkinsons.org.uk</p> <p>For international travel service for the disabled covering accommodation, public transport, attractions, access guides, etc.</p> <p>http://accessible.com/graphical_index.html</p>
Brisk Travel Maps & Parkinson's Disease Foundation	<p>Brisk Travel Maps provide free digital maps for PDF (Parkinson's Disease Foundation) Motor.</p> <p>PDF Motor is a group of people who ride motorbikes around the country to increase awareness of Parkinson's disease.</p>	<p>"I'd love to travel, but I have Parkinson's and it's no longer possible." - WRONG!</p> <p>Don't give up on one of life's wonderful experiences. Obviously, a lot depends on the level of your disability and your planning, but it is possible.</p> <p>Celia Jones, who was diagnosed with Parkinson's 17 years ago, thought her traveling over the past 10 years has helped slow her deterioration.</p> <p>By following some basic steps, you can and should enjoy traveling:</p>

		<p>1. Creating a well-organized travel itinerary</p> <p>2. Have your doctor write a summary of your illness and what medications you are on and the dosages</p> <p>3. When considering hotels or other types of lodging, find out ahead of time about what accommodations they offer people with disabilities</p> <p>For more information on traveling with Parkinson's disease, see:</p> <p>Holiday and Respite Care Guide 2006 published by Parkinson's Disease Society of the United Kingdom, 215 Vauxhall Bridge Road, London SW1V 1EJ.</p> <p>Website: www.parkinsons.org.uk</p> <p>For international travel service for the disabled covering accommodation, public transport, attractions, access guides, etc.</p> <p>http://accessible.com/graphical_index.html</p>
<p>Zeana Cameras & American Lung</p>	<p>To support American Lung Association, Zeana Cameras launched Zeana's Dollar</p>	<p>There are a lot stories between cameras and lung health. Cameras can capture precious moments in our life but also help diagnose lung diseases. Lung camera, a</p>

<p>Association</p>	<p>Programs. Consumers who sign up for Zeana's Dollar Programs will get a certificate in email from Zeana. With the certificate, you can give your old camera to Zeana and get \$30 Zeana Cash. When you use your Zeana Cash to buy Zeana cameras, Zeana will donate \$1 to American Lung Association. For more information, please contact your local Zeana stores.</p>	<p>tiny camera on the end of a flexible tube, saved the life of a little girl's life in Egypt. It detected two abnormal tissues in her lungs without invasive surgeries. Now, lung cameras are widely used in diagnosis and treatments of lung diseases. Do you know Timmy Walsh, a 6 yrs old boy in Pennsylvania, uses his camera to capture the beautiful moments in life and sells his original photos to support lung cancer research? He started to do this when his aunt was diagnosed with lung cancer. Now, he has his own non-profit fundraiser, "Camera for a Cure." Cameras not only capture important images to save lives but also express profound love for life that people, like little Timmy has.</p>
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