HEALTHY COMPETITION

by

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A DISSERTATION

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DISSERTATION APPROVAL PAGE

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DISSERTATION ABSTRACT

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My dissertation looks at how consumers view food and beverages either as a means to enjoy themselves as sports fans or as a means to improve physical performance as athletes. The first essay, "Eat to Win, Not to Lose," focuses on reframing health appeals targeting men. Eating a healthy diet should be framed as a way to win in athletic competition, which is consistent with masculine identity, rather than as a way to lose weight, which is perceived as a feminine goal. The experimental studies show how framing consumption decisions in terms of being an athlete rather than being a sports fan can lead men to making healthier decisions. Eye tracking data shows how framing healthy eating in terms of improving athletic performance causes men to restrict their consideration of beverages and snacks to healthier options. The second essay, "Tempting Sponsors" focuses on the implications of a mismatch between consumers' perception of brand healthiness and participatory sporting events which are viewed as a way to encourage a healthy, active lifestyle. Eye tracking data suggests that when consumers have a goal to compete at a participatory sporting event, they avoid looking at unhealthy food to protect their goal to compete. We also show that perceived healthiness is an important factor when consumers consider brands as sponsors for participatory sporting events, with healthier brands seen as having a better fit for these types of events.

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Dedicated to my daughters, Nora and Scarlett.
You inspire me to explore corners of the consumer world that I would have never considered on my own, such as why there are so many cupcakes in “My Little Pony.”

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure Page

LIST OF TABLES

Table Page

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

My dissertation looks at how consumers view food and beverage as either a means to enjoy themselves while being a sports fan or as a means to improve physical performance as an athlete. The first essay focuses on improving health messaging for male consumers while the second essay looks at important implications for potential sporting event sponsors.

The first essay, "Eat to Win, Not to Lose," focuses on reframing health appeals targeting men as a way to win in athletic competition, which is consistent with masculine identity, rather than as a way to lose weight, which is perceived as a feminine goal. The first study shows the basic effect of framing a consumption decision in terms of being a sports fan, with a focus on having fun, versus framing the decision in terms of being an athlete, with a focus on performance. The first study also illustrates how this effect is stronger for men than women. In the second study, we explore two possible mediators for the effect of role framing on choice: willingness to pay and shifts in visual attention. Finally, in the last study, we test the efficacy of framing an appeal to healthy eating either in terms of physical performance enhancement or weight loss and how the efficacy of each appeal varies by gender.

The second essay, "Tempting Sponsors" focuses on the implications of a mismatch between consumers' perception of brand healthiness and participatory sporting events which are viewed as a way to encourage a healthy, active lifestyle. In the first study, we test the basic idea that viewing an unhealthy food brand sponsor will lead to

less healthy consumption choices compared to viewing a healthier food brand as the sponsor. In the second study, we test how this effect varies by the role (athlete or fan) that a consumer imagines themselves to play at a sports festival. In the third study, we use eye tracking to show how viewing an unhealthy sponsor can lead consumers with a high level of athlete identity and goal to compete can lead them to avoid looking at tempting stimuli of people eating unhealthy food in order to protect their goal to compete at the sports festival. Finally, in the fourth study, we show a consumer's perception of the healthiness of a brand impacts their brand attitude and attitude toward the brand's sponsorship of participatory sporting events.

CHAPTER II

ESSAY 1:

EAT TO WIN, NOT TO LOSE

A shocking 71% of men in the United States are either overweight or obese (Ng et al., 2014). Men are often considered hard-to-reach when it comes to the promotion of initiatives to adopt healthy lifestyle changes (White et al., 2011) and are less likely to seek ways to manage their weight. Attempts to improve men's food and beverage choices face particularly strong headwinds due to the identity relevant nature of food and beverage choice. There are many negative eating and drinking habits that are seen as masculine, such as consumption of red meat (Rozin et al., 2012), large serving sizes (Bock & Kanarek, 1995), and consumption of alcohol in large quantities (de Visser & Mcdonnell, 2013). Meanwhile, several recommended healthy eating and drinking habits are seen as being feminine such as consumption of vegetables (Rothgerber, 2013), abstaining from alcohol (de Visser & Mcdonnell, 2013), and changing your diet or eating less to lose weight (Mori, Chaiken, & Pliner, 1987). This can lead to strong resistance to change eating and drinking habits if men believe that they will be perceived as less masculine or more feminine.

This research proposes that considering masculine identity when framing of the benefits of eating a healthy diet can nudge men to make healthier food and beverage choices. Since many recommended healthy food and beverage consumption behaviors are seen as "feminine" rather than "masculine" it is particularly important to find ways to encourage men to make healthier choices while still maintaining their masculine identity.

Since the athlete identity and the goal to compete are both consistent with masculine identity, they present an opportunity to encourage men to make healthier food and beverage choices. By having men view food and beverages as means to achieving physical performance goals, men can change their food and beverage consumption habits without threatening their masculine identity the way that dieting to lose weight would.

We will review literature on how identity influences food and beverage choice as well as literature related to masculine identity, sports, and food and beverages as we propose the hypotheses we plan to test. Next, we will detail several pre-tests and two experimental studies. Finally, we will discuss the practical implications of this research for healthy food producers and nutrition advocates that seek to help men make healthier food and beverage choices.

Theoretical Development

Social Identity Theory

Social identity theory is based on the idea that people unconsciously place themselves and others into various social categories (Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 1986). This helps people navigate the world and implicitly know how to act in particular situations and around certain people. As people navigate the social world, their working self-concept, how they view themselves, changes. While a person may have several aspects of their self-concept encompassing many possible selves, only a subset of selves is active at one given time (Markus, 1987; Markus & Nurius, 1986).

An important aspect of social identity theory to this research, is the concept of identity salience. Identity salience is a temporary state that can lead to identity consistent behavior such as consuming an identity-consistent food or beverage (Reed, 2004). The more engulfing a social identity is, the more likely a consumer's attitudes will be based on that part of their identity (Forehand, Deshpandé, & Reed, 2002). Modern consumers have several social identities which may or may not be active/ salient given the identity relevance of a given situation. Each social identity is tied to an associative network of various items, concepts, goals, emotions, and values that are related to that particular social identity in the consumer's mind.

Athlete vs Sports Fan Identity and Implications for Health

While several unhealthy eating habits are viewed as masculine, and several healthy eating habits are seen as feminine, competing in sports and exercising to improve physique are examples of healthy activities that are consistent with masculine identity (de Visser & Mcdonnell, 2013). Researchers in the UK have reported success in improving the long term success rate of health interventions aimed at encouraging men to eat a healthier diet, in conjunction with increasing physical activity, by delivering the health interventions at professional soccer stadiums (Gray, Hunt, Mutrie, Anderson, Leishman, et al., 2013; Gray, Hunt, Mutrie, Anderson, Treweek, et al., 2013; Zwolinsky et al., 2013). By tying the interventions to sports, which is consistent with masculine identity, the researchers were able to overcome gender related resistance to changing their diet to lose weight. This suggests that tying a healthy diet to sports could be a viable way to encourage men to make healthier food and beverage choices.

However, sports are also associated with several unhealthy food and beverage consumption habits. Watching professional and college sports is strongly associated with overconsumption of alcohol (Inoue, Berg, & Chelladurai, 2015). This should not be surprising considering how common alcohol advertisements and event sponsorships are for sporting events (Jones, 2010). The foods and beverages typically served at sporting events tends to be quite unhealthy (Carter et al., 2011), as are the foods and beverages that professional athletes are paid to endorse (Bragg et al., 2012). This is especially concerning, since celebrity athlete endorsers tend to improve the healthiness perception of food with marginal nutritional value and make it more likely that parents purchase those foods for their children (Dixon et al., 2011). What is more, the emotional attachment that sports fans feel towards their favorite team can result in compensatory consumption of indulgent food and drink to repair their emotions when their favorite team loses (Cornil & Chandon, 2013).

While tying health interventions to sports has been used to encourage healthier behavior in men on the one hand, on the other, watching sports tends to be associated with a variety of unhealthy foods and beverages. Referring back to social identity theory, we propose that the key differentiator between promoting healthy habits related to sports and succumbing to the temptation of over indulgence in hedonic foods and beverages depends on the social identity that a consumer takes on when thinking about sports. If a consumer's athlete identity is salient, they should choose healthier foods and beverages that if their sports fan identity is salient.

H1: *Consumers primed with athlete identity will be more likely to choose healthier food and beverage options than consumers primed with sports fan identity.*

Additionally, men are socialized from a young age to place a higher value on participating in and watching sports than women (Fredricks & Eccles, 2005). This would lead us to believe that the athlete and sports fan identities are more chronically accessible to men than women. Because of this, we anticipate that the athlete and sports fan identity primes will have a greater impact on the food and beverage choice of men compared to women.

H2: *The effect of an athlete vs a sports fan identity prime on food and beverage choice will be stronger for men than for women.*

Subjective Valuation of Means to Achieve Goals

The identity value model (IVM) proposes that most "failures" of consumer self-regulation are actually rational choices made due to alternative valuation schemes based on the salient social identity and relevant goals when the consumption decision is made (Berkman, Livingston, & Kahn, 2017). Consider a consumer that has the goals to compete and enhance their ability to perform physically associated with their athlete identity. When their athlete identity is salient, for instance at the gym or while eating with friends who are training for a marathon, it is likely that this consumer will assign a higher subjective value to food and beverages that will help them perform as an athlete. However, that same consumer is likely to associate conflicting goals with their sports fan identity, such as having fun, or enjoying flavorful food. When their sports fan identity is

made salient by watching a football game with friends, they should assign a higher subjective value to foods and beverages that help them have a good time.

> ***H3:*** *Men will be willing to pay more for healthier beverages when an activity is framed as "being for athletes," but willing to pay more for more hedonic beverages when the same activity is framed as "being for sports fans."*

Visual Attention and Achieving Goals

Beyond simply associating athletes with healthier food and beverages and sports fans with hedonic food and beverages, we propose that the athlete identity is driven by the goal to perform physically, while the sports fan identity is driven by the goal to enjoy oneself. Consumers evaluate and choose products as means for achieving goals (Van Osselaer & Janiszewski, 2012). Previous research has shown that consumer goals are reflected in eye movement (Pieters & Wedel, 2018) and that priming a health goal can influence consumers to pay more visual attention to healthier food (van der Laan et al., 2017). In our context, consumers should pay more visual attention to foods and beverages that will help them perform physically when an activity is framed as being designed for athletes and they should pay more visual attention to foods and beverages that would help them enjoy themselves when an activity is framed as being designed for sports fans.

> ***H4:*** *Men will pay more visual attention to healthier beverages when an activity is framed as "being for athletes," but will pay more visual attention to unhealthy beverages when the same activity is framed as "being for sports fans."*

Importance of Identity Relevant Health Messaging

It is important to consider the role that identity plays when attempting to persuade consumers to make healthier choices. Consumers often seek to express their identity through food and beverage choice (Asp, 1999) and identity based motivation can have a major impact on health outcomes (Oyserman, 2009). For example, in a study by Oyserman, Fryberg, & Yoder (2007) racial minority and majority groups held the same baseline beliefs about the efficacy of particular actions, such as avoiding junk food, in reducing health risks. However, some racial minority groups saw unhealthy behavior as in group consistent and healthy behavior as out group consistent. Ethnic identity priming led to lowered health knowledge scores and beliefs about the potential harm of unhealthy behaviors for those that saw unhealthy behaviors and in group consistent.

If men perceive changing their diet to lose weight as behavior consistent with an out group (women) rather than their in group (men), they might be resistant to following a doctor's orders to change their diet in order to lose weight. Additionally, food and beverage producers might succeed in promoting healthier food and beverage options as a way to lose weight with women, but not men. In both of these scenarios, it is important to frame health benefits of diet change or healthier food and beverage options as a means for achieving a goal that is consistent with masculine identity, such as enhancing physical performance, building muscle, or helping to gain a competitive edge in sports.

> ***H5a:*** *Men will be more likely to choose healthy snacks when the benefits of a healthy diet are framed as enhancing physical performance rather than losing weight.*

H5b: *Women will be more likely to choose healthy snacks when the benefits of eating a healthy diet are framed as promoting weight loss rather than enhancing physical performance.*

Pre-Tests

Because sports can be used to encourage individuals to make healthier choices or as an excuse to overindulge in unhealthy food and beverages, we conducted a series of three pretests to order discover what types of foods and beverages are most strongly associated with the athlete and sports fan identities and explore reasons why these items might be associated with these identities. We anticipated that healthier foods and beverages would be associated with the athlete identity than the sports fan identity. Also, we anticipated that consumers would give more functional or utilitarian reasons for choosing a beverage associated with athletes, while consumers that choose beverages associated with sports fans would give more hedonic reasons for their choice.

Pre-Test 1: Exploring Associations between Identities, Foods, and Beverages

A total of 273 participants were recruited through the university's marketing subject pool. (62.3% male, M_{age} = 21.4). The participants were given a brief description of what a social identity is and asked to list five social identities that are important to them in a free response task. They were then asked to list 3 foods or beverages that they associate with each of their listed social identities. Social identities and foods were separately reviewed and coded through a reiterative process.

One of our first observations was that beverages seem to be particularly identity relevant, as they were mentioned quite frequently for all social identities. For the athlete identity, we included all free response answers that focused on playing sports, such as "basketball player" or "runner" while in the sports fan identity we included free response answers that focused on watching sports, such as "baseball fan" or "Ducks fan."

Seventy-two respondents listed an athlete identity and fifteen listed some sort of sports fan identity. Sports drinks ($M_{Athlete}$ = 63.9%, M_{Fan} = 0.0%, $t(85) = 5.09$, $p < .001$) and water ($M_{Athlete}$ = 54.2%, M_{Fan} = 13.3%, $t(85) = 3.00$, $p < .01$) were mentioned significantly more frequently as associated with being an athlete than being a sports fan. In contrast, beer (M_{Fan} = 86.7%, $M_{Athlete}$ = 5.6%, $t(85) = -11.22$, $p < .001$) was listed significantly more frequently and soda was mentioned marginally more frequently(M_{Fan} = 13.3%, $M_{Athlete}$ = 4.2%, $t(85) = -1.39$, $p = .17$) as being associated with the sports fan identity than the athlete identity.

Pre-Test 2: Athlete and Fan Beverage Confirmation

We then confirmed these beverage findings using a second student sample (N = 93, M_{age} = 21.3, male = 67.5%). This confirmatory pretest used a 7 point Likert scale to ask respondents to what degree they associated each beverage with athletes or sports fans. ONLY Athletes was coded as -3, BOTH Equally was coded as 0, and ONLY Fans was coded as 3. Beer ($M = 1.43$, $t(1, 92) = 14.54$, $p < .001$) and soda ($M = 1.42$, $t(1,92) = 15.85$, $p < .001$) were significantly more associated with sports fans while sports drinks ($M = -1.14$, $t(1, 92) = -10.48$, $p < .001$) and water ($M = -0.54$, $t(1,92) = -6.16$, $p < .001$) were significantly more associated with athletes.

Pre-Test 3: Reasons for Beverage Choice

In a third pre-test, we tested the hedonic versus utilitarian reasons for beverage selection. We recruited participants from the marketing subject pool (N = 183, M_{age} = 21.3, male = 59.9%) for an on-line survey. First, we asked participants to select a beverage from one of four categories: beer, soda, sports drinks, or water. We then asked participants, on a 7-point scale, how much they disagree or agree with four hedonic reasons ("It tastes great," "It is fun," "It is what my friends like," "I like the way it makes me feel") and four utilitarian reasons ("It is thirst quenching," "It is healthy," "It is what my body needs," "It is hydrating") for choosing their beverage. The average of agreement with hedonic reasons for beverage choice was significantly higher than utilitarian reasons for choosing beer ($M_{hedonic}$ = 5.17 vs $M_{utilitarian}$ = 3.34, $t(31) = 6.32$, $p < .001$) and soda ($M_{hedonic}$ = 4.66 vs $M_{utilitarian}$ = 3.89, $t(28) = 3.01$, $p = .005$). Conversely, the average of agreement with utilitarian reasons for beverage choice was significantly higher than hedonic reasons for choosing sports drinks ($M_{hedonic}$ = 3.82 vs $M_{utilitarian}$ = 5.31, $t(16) = -5.14$, $p < .001$) and water ($M_{hedonic}$ = 3.86 vs $M_{utilitarian}$ = 6.01, $t(104) = -14.31$, $p < .001$).

Discussion of Pre-Test Results

The pre-tests confirmed our intuition that healthier foods and beverages tend to be associated with athlete identity than fan identity. Consumers gave more functional or utilitarian reasons when choosing a beverage associated with athletes, while giving more hedonic reasons for choosing beverages associated with sports fans. While utilitarian and hedonic do not necessarily equal healthy or unhealthy, focusing on functional, utilitarian

reasons compared to pleasure seeking, hedonic reasons for choosing food and beverages will likely lead to choosing healthier options. By focusing on utilitarian or functional reasons for choosing a beverage, participants chose lower calorie, and thus healthier, beverage options (water and sports drinks). Meanwhile the beverage options that were chosen for hedonic reasons (soda and beer) are much higher in empty calories, and thus less healthy.

We used the findings from these pre-tests to develop stimuli and select choice dependent variables for the studies that follow. In Studies 1-3 we use beverages such as beer, soda, sports drinks and water for our dependent variables because they are easier to categorize as utilitarian/ hedonic, low calorie/ high calorie, and healthy/ unhealthy compared to food. The calories in sweetened and alcoholic beverages are empty and should be avoided. This allows for cleaner, more uniform dependent variables so that it is easier to our hypothesized mediators for product choice, goal prioritization and willingness to pay. In study 4 we will attempt to generalize our findings to healthy/ unhealthy food choice.

Study 1: Gender Difference in Role Framing Effect on Beverage Choice

With study 1, we test H1 that priming athlete identity will drive choice of healthier, more utilitarian beverages (water and sports drinks), while priming sports fan identity will lead consumers to choose higher calorie, hedonic beverages (beer and soda). We will also test H2 and expect to find that this effect will be stronger for men than for women. In addition to examining binary choice between the more hedonic beverages

(soda and beer) and the more utilitarian beverages (water and sports drinks), we will also analyze participant choice in terms of calories per 20 oz serving in order to illustrate how the more utilitarian beverages are significantly lower in empty calories and thus healthier than the hedonic beverages.

Methods

Participants were recruited using Amazon's Mechanical Turk platform (N = 120, 59% male, M_{age} = 36.5). The participants were randomly assigned to one of two conditions (identity priming: athlete vs. sports fan). Athlete identity and sports fan identity were primed using a series of seven questions about either their experience participating in amateur sports or watching professional sports. Participants were then shown pictures of four categories of beverages: beer, soda, sports drinks, and water, and asked to select a beverage. Finally, we had participants complete the Athlete Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS) (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001) for trait athlete identity, the Sport Fandom Questionnaire (SFQ) (Wann, 2002) for trait sports fan identity along with demographic information.

Results

Overall, consumers primed with the athlete identity chose less healthy beverages at a marginally lower rate, $M_{athlete}$ = 40.35%, compared to consumers primed with fan identity, M_{fan} = 55.56%, $t(118) = 1.670$, $p = .098$. However, when we split the sample by gender and evaluate just the male participants, we find that the prime results in a significant difference in beverage selection, $M_{athlete}$ = 44.74% vs M_{fan} = 69.70%, $t(69)$ = -

2.154, p = .035. However, when we evaluate just the female participants, we find no significant difference in beverage selection related to the prime, $M_{athlete}$ = 31.58% vs M_{fan} = 40.00%, $t(47)$ = -0.586, p = .561, *ns*. Taken together, these results support H1 and H2. Please see figure 2.1 below for details.

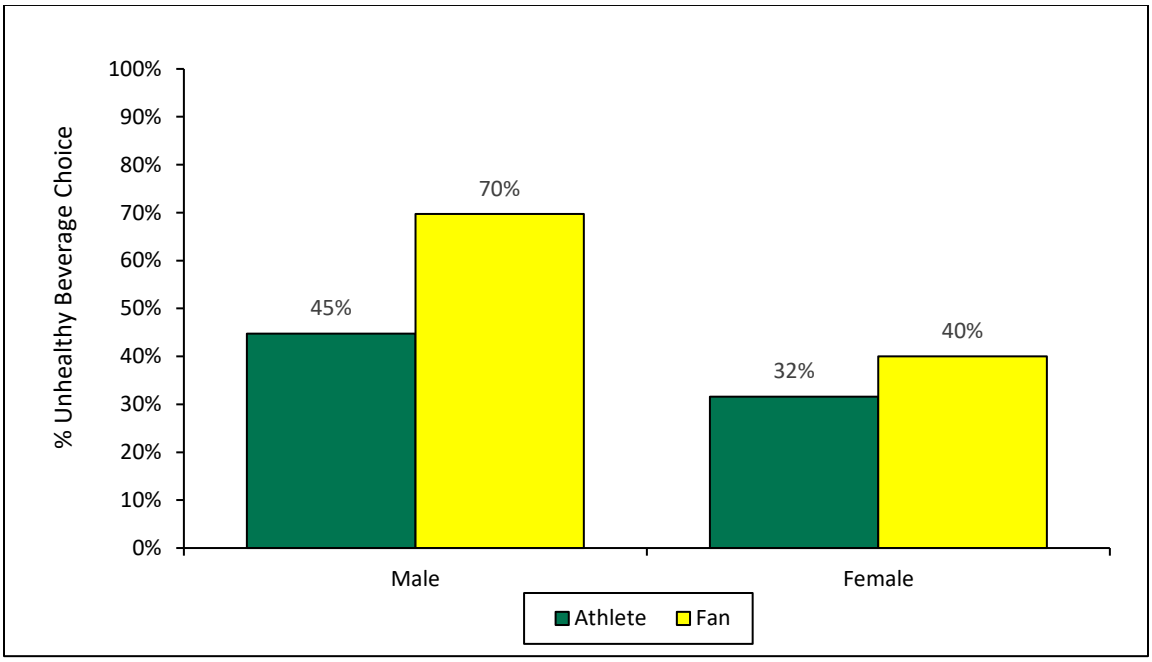

Figure 2.1. Unhealthy beverage choice by gender and role frame

Since the definition of "healthy" and "unhealthy" beverages can be somewhat subjective, we will also consider these results in terms of calories chosen. Calories consumed in beverages tend to be empty calories that provide little nutritional benefit. In our analysis then, lower consumption of these empty calories is viewed as healthier. In order to avoid the confound that non-nutritive sweeteners can add sweetness without calories, we will consider only full calorie versions of each product category. Participant

beverage choice was recoded to represent the number of calories per 20 oz serving of a market leader in each category. Please see Table 1 below for details.

Table 2.1. Calories per serving of beverage category

Category	Representative	Calories per 20oz Serving
Beer	Budweiser	228
Soda	Coca-Cola	231
Sports Drink	Gatorade	140
Water	Aquafina	0

With average calories of beverage chosen as the dependent variable, the results are as follows. Consumers primed with the athlete identity chose beverages with marginally fewer calories, $M_{athlete} = 104.75$, compared to consumers primed with fan identity, $M_{fan} = 134.10$, $t(118) = -1.449$, $p = .150$. As before, when we split the sample by gender and evaluate just the male participants, we find that the athlete prime significantly reduced the average calorie content of chosen beverages compared to the fan prime, $M_{athlete} = 120.74$ vs $M_{fan} = 172.36$, $t(69) = -2.126$, $p = .037$. Again, when we evaluate just the female participants, we find that the prime results in a no significant difference in average calorie density of beverages chosen, $M_{athlete} = 72.79$ vs $M_{fan} = 92.00$, $t(47) = -0.580$, $p = .564$, *ns*. Re-analyzing the results of this study in terms of calories per beverage provides more support for H1 and H2. Please see figure 2.2 for details.

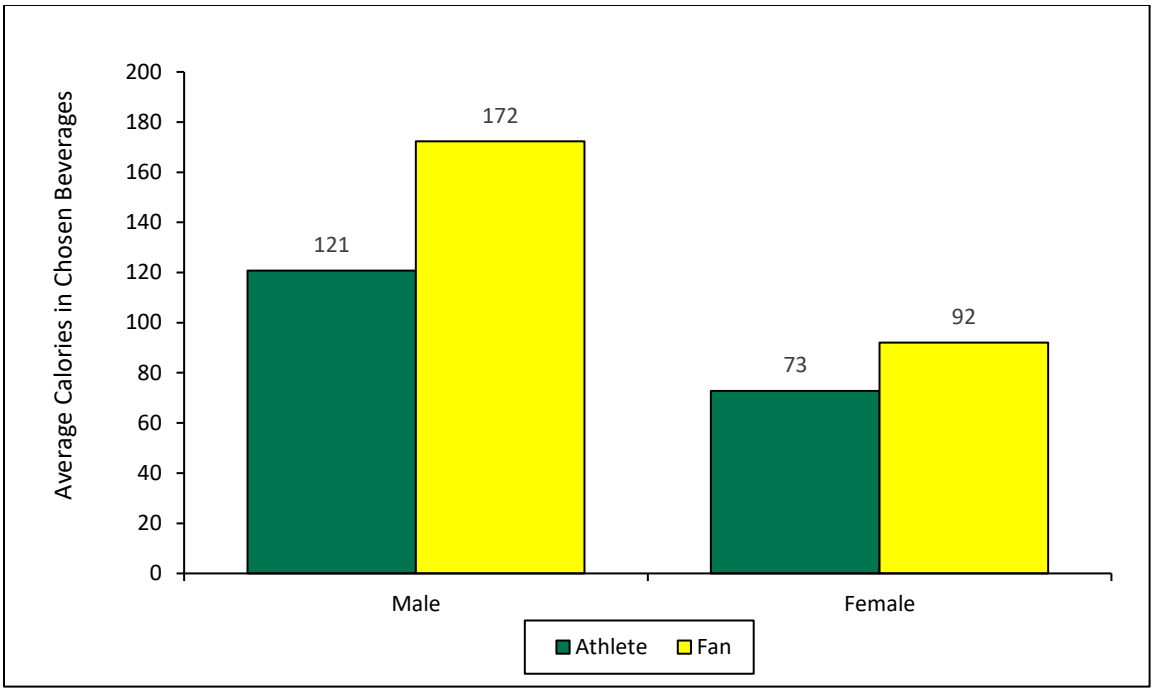

Figure 2.2. Average number calories in beverages chosen by gender and role frame

Additionally, by reframing the results in terms of calories chosen, it is easier to see why examining this issue as a way to encourage men to make healthier choices. In the fan condition, men chose beverages that were 87% higher in calorie content than women in the same condition. By priming athlete identity, men chose beverages that were about 30% less calorie dense than the men in the fan condition. Again, the calories associated with beer, soda, and sports drinks are generally considered empty calories which doctors and nutritionists recommend that consumers avoid or minimize.

Study 2: Testing WTP and Visual Attention as Mediators

In study 2 we test two possible mediators for the effect of activity framing on beverage choice: willingness to pay (WTP) and visual attention. According to H3, if the

activity frame impacts choice by shifting subjective value of the beverage options, then that should be reflected in a significant difference in WTP for healthier beverages compared to unhealthy beverage between the two conditions. With H4 if the activity frame impacts the driving goals for consumption, then that should be reflected in a significant difference in visual attention to the types of beverages that help achieve those goals between the two conditions, namely greater attention to healthier beverages that help athletes perform and greater attention to unhealthy beverages that help fans enjoy themselves.

Methods

Potential participants were recruited through the university's marketing subject pool and were screened via an on-line survey to ensured that they drink both soda and sports drinks before they could sign up for the in-lab study. A total of 66 male participants completed the lab study in return for course credit and a $3 incentive. Five lab participants were removed from the data set due to technical difficulties or for failing an attention check, leaving a usable sample of 61 participants (100% male, M_{age} = 21.4). This study featured a 2 (task frame between subject: athlete / fan) by 2 (beverage type within subject: utilitarian / hedonic) mixed design. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two activity frames and all participants evaluated all 12 utilitarian beverages (4 waters and 8 sports drinks) and all 12 hedonic beverages (12 sodas), as well as indicated which beverage they would choose if they had the choice. Eye tracking data was collected during the beverage selection task. In order to avoid the confound of

sweetened but zero calorie beverages, only beverages sweetened with sugar or high fructose corn syrup were included.

We used the Becker-DeGroot-Marschak method (BDM) (Becker, DeGroot, & Marschak, 1964), as recommended by Wertenbroch and Skiera (2002) in order to get an accurate, incentive compatible measure of consumer willingness to pay for a product at the point of purchase. The BDM involves consumers stating their maximum willingness to pay for a product, which they commit to purchase if a randomly selected price is lower than their stated maximum willingness to pay. The BDM can be used to asses a single product or multiple products across several trials. In the case of multiple products, one of the product trials is also randomly selected. This has the advantage that participants are incentivized to treat every trial as important, since they do not know in advance which of the trials will be selected.

Upon entering the lab participants were given a $3 incentive and seated at a computer. They were then given a brief overview of the order of tasks: Eye tracking calibration, instructions on BDM, BDM quiz, survey on sports involvement, BDM, beverage distribution, sports related activity.

After all participants were calibrated for eye tracking, the researcher gave verbal instructions on the BDM task and told participants that it was designed by economists accurately measure their willingness to pay for a product. They then took an on-line quiz to make sure that they understood that their best strategy is to state their highest willingness to pay for each of the products shown.

Next participants completed a survey about their involvement in sports, saw the task frame for the activity (for athletes or for fans), and answered questions about how

fun, physically demanding and competitive they imagined the sports related activity would be. Participants were told only that they would complete a brief survey about their involvement with sports. As in study 1, athlete identity and sports fan identity were primed using a series of seven questions asking about either their experience participating in amateur sports as an athlete or watching professional sports as a fan.

At this point, participants completed the BDM which will required them to click on their maximum willingness to pay for 24 randomly presented 20 oz. beverages. The beverages consisted of 12 unhealthy beverages (12 sodas) and 12 healthier beverages (4 waters and 8 sports drinks). Each beverage was presented in a separate trial.

Before revealing which beverage trial and price had been randomly selected for the participant, the participants were shown a display of all 24 beverages and asked to click on the beverage they would choose if they had the choice. Eye tracking data was collected while participants chose their preferred beverage.

Finally, participants were shown which beverage trial and price had been randomly selected and their stated maximum willingness to pay for that beverage. The researcher then checked each participants' screen and exchanged the random beverage for the random price if the price is lower than the participant's maximum willingness to pay for that beverage.

Once all the beverages have been distributed, participants completed the "sports related activity" which was framed as either being for athletes or sports fans. The activity was the same in both conditions. Participants had three trials to self-measure how long they could hold their breath. Participants clicked a button on the screen to start a timer for each trial and another to stop the timer when they stopped holding their breath. A $10

Amazon gift card was offered as the prize for the participant that held their breath the longest from all the sessions.

Results

The activity framing manipulation impacted participant beverage choice in the predicted direction, providing further support for H1. Consistent with study 1, when the task was framed as an athletic activity, participants chose unhealthy beverages (soda) at a much lower rate than $M_{athlete}$ = 20% compared to when the task was frames a sports fan activity, M_{fan} = 55%, $t(59) = 15.361$, $p = .004$. As a manipulation check, we asked participants how fun, physically demanding, and competitive the activity would be on a scale of 1-7. Participants reported imagining that the activity would be significantly more fun if it was framed as a sports fan activity $M_{athlete} = 4.70$ vs $M_{fan} = 5.65$, $t(59) = 2.965$, $p = .005$, and significantly more physically demanding if it was framed as an athlete activity $M_{athlete} = 2.97$ vs $M_{fan} = 2.26$ $t(59) = -2.000$, $p = .050$. However, there was no significant difference in how competitive participants imagined the activity to be $M_{athlete} = 4.13$ vs $M_{fan} = 3.97$ $t(59) = -0.449$, $p = .655$, *ns*.

Next we tested H3 that male consumers' would be willing to pay more for healthier beverages when the activity was framed designed for athletes, but willing to pay more for unhealthy beverages when the activity was framed as designed for sports fans. Our willingness to pay task had participants assess a total of 24 beverages. To aid analysis, we created two flat variables to indicate the difference between a participant's willingness to pay for the unhealthy calorie dense sodas and the healthier water and sports drinks options. For the first variable HU_AVE, we calculated the average

willingness to pay for all healthier beverages (water and sports drinks) and subtracted the average of all unhealthy beverages (sodas). The second variable HU_T3, takes the average WTP of the top three healthier beverages for each participant and then subtracts the average WTP of their top three unhealthy beverages. Logistic regressions indicated that both HU_AVE $\chi^2(1) = 20.878$, $p < .001$, $b = 3.991$, $p = .001$ and HU_AVE $\chi^2(1) = 11.787$, $p = .001$, $b = 2.623$, $p = .003$ significantly predicted choice.

However, the activity framing manipulation did not significantly influence either of our WTP variables, which means H3 was not supported by our results. The difference in WTP for the beverages was directionally as predicted for the average of all beverages, $M_{athlete}$ = \$0.18 vs M_{fan} = \$0.08, $t(59) = 0.806$, $p = .424$, *ns*, but was reversed when just considering the top three healthier and unhealthy beverages, $M_{athlete}$ = \$0.06 vs M_{fan} = \$0.12, $t(59) = -0.479$, $p = .634$, *ns.*

We then tested H4, that the framing manipulation would influence choice by shifting participants' attention during the choice process. According to H4, we would expect to see participants to pay more visual attention to the healthier beverages when the activity was framed as an athlete activity. Again, in order to aid analysis, we created two flat variables. The first HUF_TPRC is the difference in the percentage of time that participants spent fixating on unhealthy beverages compared to the healthier beverage while making their choice. The second HUG_TPRC is the difference in the percentage of time that the participants spent gazing on unhealthy beverages compared to the healthier beverages while making their choice. We used percentage of time, rather than a raw time measure because participants varied in how long they took to make a choice while looking at all of the options. Logistic regressions revealed that both HUF_TPRC $\chi^2(1) =$

57.314, $p < .001$, $b = 0.179$, $p = .001$ and HUG_TPERC $\chi^2(1) = 53.680$, $p < .001$, $b = 0.071$, $p < .001$ significantly predicted choice.

Unlike WTP, visual attention to beverage options when making a choice was significantly impacted by how the activity was framed, which supports H4. The difference in visual attention to healthier beverages compared to unhealthy beverages was significantly higher when the activity was framed as an athlete activity with the gaze measure, HUG_TPRC, $M_{athlete} = 9.97$ vs $M_{fan} = -19.74$, $t(59) = 2.417$, $p = .019$, and marginally significantly higher in with the fixation measure HUF_TPRC, $M_{athlete} = 1.53$ vs $M_{fan} = -12.97$, $t(59) = 1.952$, $p = .056$. Figures 2.3 and 2.4 illustrate how participants in the sports fan condition paid more visual attention to sodas while participants in the athlete condition paid more visual attention to the sports drinks and waters.

Figure 2.3. Heatmap of visual attention while choosing a beverage for participants in the sports fan condition

Figure 2.4. Heatmap of visual attention while choosing a beverage for participants in the athlete condition

In order to assess visual attention as a mediator for the impact of activity framing on beverage choice, we performed a mediation analysis (Model 4) using Hayes PROCESS macro for SPSS (Hayes, 2012) with activity framing as the independent variable, visual attention (HUG_TPRC) as the mediator, and beverage choice as the dependent variable (coded 1 for healthier beverages and 0 for unhealthy beverages). The overall model was significant $F(1, 59) = 5.84$, $R^2 = .09$, $p = .0188$. Activity framing significantly influenced visual attention, $B = 29.709$, $p = .019$, and visual attention significantly predicted healthier beverage choice, $B = 0.074$, $p = .0001$. The direct effect of activity framing on healthier beverage choice was marginally significant, $B = 1.997$, $p = .097$, but the indirect effect through visual attention was significant, $B = 2.200$, $p = .045$. These results provide support for the alternative hypothesis that shifts in visual attention mediate the effect of activity framing on beverage choice.

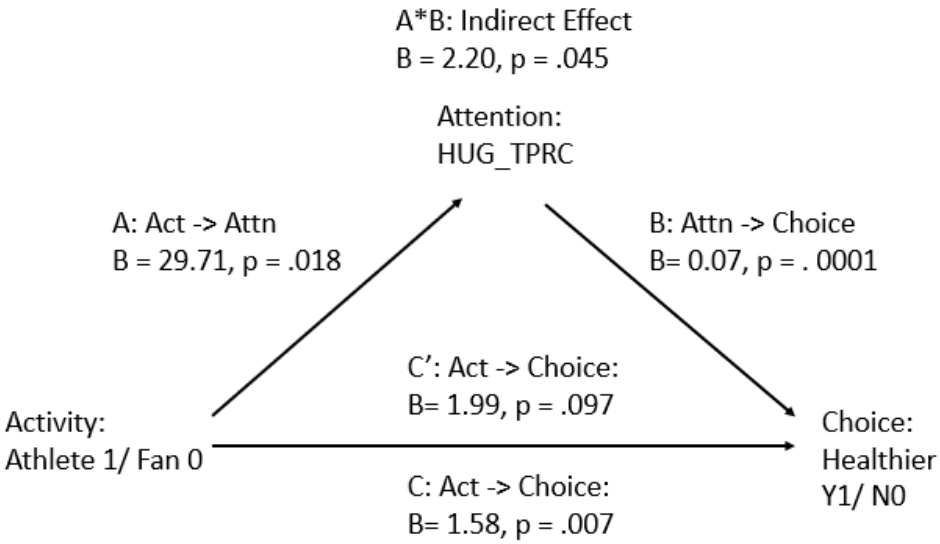

Figure 2.5. Visual attention as a mediator for the effect of activity role framing on beverage choice

Study 3: Framing Benefits of Healthy Diet on Snack Choice

In this study we apply our previous findings to framing the benefits of eating a healthy diet in order to improve the likelihood that men will choose a healthy snack. Men should be more likely to choose a healthy snack when the benefits of eating a healthy diet are framed as a way to enhance physical performance rather than as a way to lose weight. In contrast, women should be more likely to choose healthy snacks when the benefits of eating a healthy diet are framed as a way to lose weight rather than as a way to enhance physical performance. We anticipate this pattern of results because our previous studies showed that men were more likely to choose healthier options when we framed sports and activities in terms of athletic performance which is compatible with masculine

identity. In contrast, losing weight is considered to be more of a feminine identity consistent goal.

Methods

A total of 174 participants were recruited through the university's marketing subject pool, however 21 subjects were dropped for either failing an attention check or spending less than 10 seconds reading the article used to manipulate benefit frame. This left a usable sample of 153 participants (71% male, M_{age} = 21.03). This study featured a 2 (benefit framing between subjects: enhance performance / lose weight) x 2 (gender between subjects: male/ female) x 2 (snack type within subjects: healthy / unhealthy) mixed design. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two benefit framing conditions and gender was self-reported by participants. All participants evaluated 12 healthy snacks and 12 unhealthy snacks for WTP.

Upon entering the lab participants were given a $2 incentive, seated at a computer. The researcher then gave a brief overview of the order of tasks: Eye tracking calibration, instructions on BDM, BDM quiz, a reading comprehension task, BDM, snack distribution, and a brief survey.

After this the researcher explained the rules of the BDM and participants completed the BDM comprehension quiz. Participants then read a news article discussing how eating a healthy diet can either improve physical performance or help you lose weight along with several recommendations of foods to eat more of and foods to avoid before starting the BDM task. The BDM required them to click on their maximum willingness to pay for the 24 randomly presented snacks. The snacks consisted of 12

healthy and 12 unhealthy snacks, each presented in a separate trial. Before revealing which snack trial and price had been randomly selected for the participant, the participants were shown a display of all 24 snacks and asked which of the snacks they would choose if they had the choice.

Finally, participants were shown which snack trial and price had been randomly selected and their maximum willingness to pay for that snack. The researcher then checked each participants' screen and exchanged the random snack for the random price if the price was lower than the participant's maximum willingness to pay. Once all the snacks had been distributed, participants were asked a variety of questions about their health goals, healthy eating identity, and obstacles to healthy eating.

Results

The health benefit framing manipulation marginally impacted male participant snack choice in the predicted direction. When the benefits of eating a healthy diet were framed as improving performance, male participants chose healthy snacks at a marginally higher rate than M_{win} = 71% compared to when the benefits of eating a healthy diet were framed in terms of losing weight, M_{lose} = 56%, $t(106) = -1.700$, $p = .092$, which provides marginal support for H5a. The impact of the health benefit framing manipulation directionally impacted female participant snack choice in the opposite direction, however the results were not statistically significant, perhaps due to the much smaller sample of female participants. When the benefits of eating a healthy diet were framed as improving performance, female participants chose healthy snacks at a marginally lower rate than M_{win} = 54% compared to when the benefits of eating a healthy diet were framed in terms

of losing weight, M_{lose} = 62%, $t(43) = 0.514$, $p = .610$, *ns*, so the results do not adequately support H5b. A logistic regression of gender, frame, and the interaction between gender and frame indicated that the interaction on snack choice was not statistically significant, even though the choice results followed the predicted pattern, $\chi^2(3) = 3.652$, $p = .301$, *ns*, $B_{gender} = -0.254$, $p = .632$, *ns*, $B_{frame} = -0.318$, $p = .600$, *ns*, $B_{gender*frame} = 1.003$, $p = .170$. Because of the lack of a statistically significant interaction between gender and frame on choice or a main effect of frame on choice for female participants, we will only consider the male sample for the remainder of this results discussion.

As with study 3, we tested willingness to pay as a mediator for the effect of the benefit frame on choice for male participants. Our willingness to pay task had participants assess a total of 24 snacks. To aid analysis, we again created two flat variables to indicate the difference between a participant's willingness to pay for the healthy snacks and the unhealthy snack options. For the first variable HUALL, we calculated the average willingness to pay for all healthy snack and subtracted the average of all unhealthy snacks. The second variable HU3, takes the average WTP of the top three healthy snacks for each participant and then subtracts the average WTP of their top three healthy snacks. Logistic regressions indicated that both HUALL $\chi^2(1) = 24.615$, $p < .001$, $B = 3.574$, $p < .001$ and HU3 $\chi^2(1) = 46.789$, $p < .001$, $B = 4.456$, $p < .001$ significantly predicted choice.

However, the benefit framing manipulation did not significantly influence either of our WTP variables. The difference in WTP for healthy snacks versus unhealthy snacks was directionally as predicted for the average of all snacks, M_{win} = -\$0.04 vs M_{lose} = -\$0.07, $t(106) = -0.531$, $p = .596$, *ns*, and the top three healthy and unhealthy snacks, M_{win}

= \$0.15 vs M_{lose} = \$0.06, $t(106) = -0.918$, $p = .361$, *ns*. However, the difference was not significant in either case.

We again tested the alternate hypothesis, that the benefit framing manipulation would influence choice by shifting participants' attention during the choice process. In this alternate hypothesis, we would expect to see male participants pay more visual attention to the healthy snacks when the benefits of a healthy diet were framed in terms of enhancing performance rather than losing weight. Again, in order to aid analysis, we created two flat variables. The first HUF_TPRC is the difference in the percentage of time that participants spent fixating on healthy snacks compared to the unhealthy snacks while making their choice. The second HUG_TPRC is the difference in the percentage of time that the participants spent gazing on healthy snacks compared to the unhealthy snacks while making their choice. We used percentage of time, rather than a raw time measure because participants varied in how long they took to make a choice while looking at all of the options. Logistic regressions revealed that both HUF_TPRC $\chi^2(1) = 83.714$, $p < .001$, $B = 0.169$, $p = .001$ and HUG_TPERC $\chi2(1) = 96.688$, $p < .001$, $B = 0.090$, $p < .001$ significantly predicted choice.

Unlike WTP, visual attention to snack options when making a choice was significantly impacted by how the benefits were framed. The difference in visual attention to healthier snacks compared to unhealthy snacks was significantly higher for male participants when the benefits were framed as enhancing performance with the fixation measure, HUF_TPRC, $M_{win} = 19.96$ vs $M_{lose} = 8.29$, $t(106) = -2.293$, $p = .024$, and marginally significantly higher with the gaze measure HUG_TPRC, $M_{win} = 29.25$ vs $M_{lose} = 14.44$, $t(106) = -1.669$, $p = .098$. Figures 2.6 and 2.7 illustrate how male

participants in the “Win” condition appeared to not spend much time considering unhealthy snacks, while male participants in the “Lose” condition did.

Figure 2.6. Heatmap of fixations on snacks for male participants in the “Win” condition

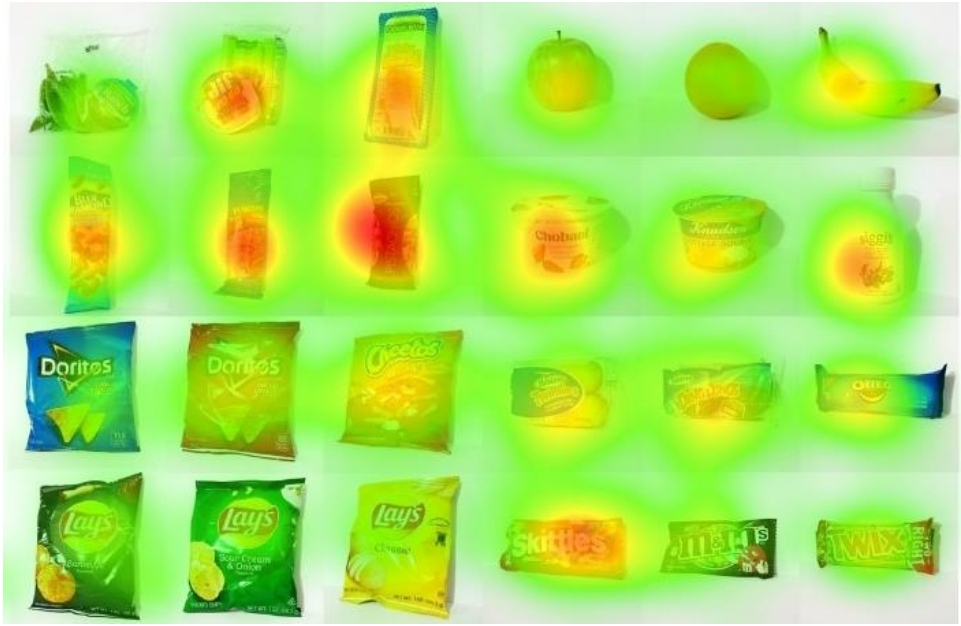

Figure 2.7. Heatmap of fixations on snacks for male participants in the “Lose” condition

General Discussion

This research makes the case that proper framing of health appeals can be used to nudge men towards healthier food and beverage choices by tapping into goals that are consistent with masculine identity. Men are often seen as resistant to change their diet in order to improve their health. However, changing one's diet to lose weight is generally seen as a feminine goal. When this is taken into consideration becomes easier to see why men might be resistant to traditional appeals to eat more healthy food which focus on benefits that help achieve a weight loss goal. By reframing appeals to choose healthier foods and beverages to align with masculine identity consistent goals, such as enhancing physical performance, marketers and medical practitioners may find more success in convincing men to change their diets.

Implications for Food and Beverage Marketers

Manufacturers, retailers, and produce growing associations can use the insight from this research to frame marketing messages that seek to promote healthier products to men. The results of this research suggest that men are more likely to pay attention to and choose healthy foods and beverages when they are framed as a way to enhance their physical performance. Healthy food and beverages that target men should be framed in terms of how their products can enhance performance rather than aiding weight loss.

Implications for Public Policy Makers, Doctors, and Nutritionists

Public policy makers, nutritionists, and medical professionals can use the insight from this research to invoke athletic competition or physical performance enhancement to encourage men to adopt healthier, but traditionally feminine, eating and drinking habits. If men see eating more fruits and vegetables, less red meat, and moderating alcohol intake as a means to achieve a goal that is consistent with their masculine identity, they may be more willing to adopt these behaviors, which taken at face value, could threaten their masculine identity.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

This research sought to explore how athlete identity and masculine identity consistent goals could be used to help men make healthier food and beverage choices. There are several additional aspects of healthy eating and drinking that could also be explored including portion size, after competition compensatory consumption, and perceptions versus realities of what types of food and beverages are healthy. Future research could examine what effect performance framing have on men's portion size consumption, which could have an impact on total calories eaten. Future research could also look at differences in food and beverage choice before and after imagined competition, since it is possible that men only choose healthier options to help them compete but not afterwards. Finally, future research could look more in depth into popular perceptions of what kind of eating and drinking habits can help with athletic competition and compared to what professional trainers and dieticians recommend.

CHAPTER III

ESSAY 2:

TEMPTING SPONSORS

Sponsorship of sporting events provides an effective way for companies to get their logo seen by sports fans. However, the public health community is raising concerns about companies using sports sponsorship as a platform for promoting unhealthy food and beverages. Having a celebrity athlete endorse low nutrient, energy dense foods can lead consumers to perceive the endorsed foods as being healthier and increase their intentions to consume the endorsed foods (Dixon et al., 2011) and the audience for popular sporting events often includes children, who are protected from direct advertising by junk food in many countries (Bragg et al., 2012). This is alarming to parents, and three-quarters of parents support the introduction of policies to restrict unhealthy food, beverage, and alcohol sponsorship of children's and professional sports (Kelly et al., 2013).

Beyond professional sports, major food and beverage companies have also started sponsoring participatory sporting events such as marathons, triathalons, and sports festivals. The Coca-cola foundation has famously sponsored several "get active" events around the world, Chik-fil-A sponsors the one-mile kid's run before the Pittsburgh Marathon, and Lays was, until recently, a major sponsor for the Color Run 5k. Food and beverage companies may be tempted to sponsor these types of events in order to grow their brand and improve consumers' perceptions of the healthiness of their products.

However, these potential sponsors should consider what goals the event activates in these participants. We propose that events that encouraging participants to be active can activate consumer goals that are consistent with being an athlete, such as the goals to compete, be active, and be healthy. When these goals are activated, it is possible that the participants will be more likely to view a hedonic food sponsor's logo as a temptation and the sponsor as an impediment to achieving their goals. This could lead consumers to negative outcomes for the sponsor, such as a reduced attitude toward the sponsor if consumers believe the sponsorship fit to be poor and the sponsor to have calculative motives (Woisetschläger, Backhaus, & Cornwell, 2017).

Theoretical Development

Processing Sponsor Logos as an Associative Prime

Many factors influence consumers' food and beverage decisions, often without the consumer awareness of the influence on their consumption choices (Asp, 1999). Sponsor logos influence consumer attitudes towards the sponsor's brand even when consumers do not recall the brand as an event sponsor (Herrmann, Walliser, & Kacha, 2011). Sponsor logos are very prevalent at modern sporting events and may act as primes that influence consumer behavior (Smith, Graetz, & Westerbeek, 2008). One main purpose companies hold in sponsoring sporting events is to associate their brand with an athlete, team, or sport (Cornwell, 1995; Cornwell & Coote, 2005; Madrigal, 2000) and in doing so improve their image (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999). However, seeing a particular type of brand logo, with its own consumer associations, may also have unintended

consequences for how the fan interprets the event and alter their consumption choices at the event.

In this research, we conceptualize sponsor logos as associative primes, a form of cognitive prime that alters how consumers respond to additional stimuli that is somehow related to the original stimuli in the consumers mind (Minton, Cornwell, & Kahle, 2017). As such, we anticipate that viewing a sponsor logo will prime consumers to focus on ideas and concepts that they associate with the sponsor. By examining the impact of sponsor logos on consumer choices at events, this paper responds to a call by Cornwell, Weeks, and Roy for "more experimental research to understand how consumers process sponsorship communication stimuli," and "possible unconscious and automatic sponsorship-linked influences on consumer behavior" (2005, p. 37).

Specifically, we will examine the effects that hedonic or utilitarian food sponsor logos have on subsequent food and beverage choices. In this research, we consider hedonic food and beverages to provide a more experiential consumption experience. They are consumed because they taste good and are fun or intoxicating. Meanwhile utilitarian foods and beverages are consumed for instrumental or functional reasons, such as hydration or providing fuel for exercise (Dhar & Wertenbroch, 2000). While hedonic food and beverages are not inherently unhealthy and utilitarian food and beverages are not inherently healthy, unhealthy food and beverages tend to be consumed for hedonic reasons while healthier options tend to be consumed for more utilitarian reasons (Antonides & Cramer, 2013).

While real and imagined consumption of a food reduces desire to eat more of the same, it can actually stimulate a desire to eat foods or beverages that pair well with it

(Huh, Vosgerau, & Morewedge, 2016). Since imagined and actual consumption of a food activates a goal to consume its complements (Cornwell & McAlister, 2013), we anticipate that when consumers see the logo for Doritos, they will think be primed to think about hedonic food and seek out hedonic beverages such as beer and soda. In contrast seeing the Clif Bar logo should prime consumers to think about utilitarian foods that can fuel a workout and seek out corresponding beverages such as water or sports drinks.

H1: *Seeing a utilitarian (hedonic) food sponsor will generally lead to an increase in utilitarian (hedonic) beverage choice.*

Social Identity, Goal Activation, and Product Choice

Social identity theory is based on the idea that people unconsciously place themselves and others into various social categories (Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 1986). This helps people navigate the world and implicitly know how to act in particular situations and around certain people. As people navigate the social world, their working self-concept, how they view themselves, changes. While a person may have several aspects of their self-concept encompassing many possible selves, only a subset of selves is active at one given time (Markus, 1987; Markus & Nurius, 1986).

An important aspect of social identity theory to marketing is the concept of identity salience. Identity salience is a temporary state that can lead to identity consistent behavior such as consuming an identity-consistent food or beverage (Reed, 2004). Modern consumers have several social identities which may or may not be active/ salient given the identity relevance of a given situation. Each social identity is tied to an

associative network of various items, concepts, goals, emotions, and values that are related to that particular social identity in the consumer's mind. The more engulfing a social identity is, the more likely a consumer's attitudes will be based on that part of their identity (Forehand, Deshpandé, & Reed, 2002).

The two social identities of interest here, athlete identity and sports fan identity, are highly correlated and could likely be primed by the same stimulus in a sport-related context, such as a picture of a football or stadium. However, we believe that the athlete identity and sports fan identity have very different goals associated with them. In general, participating in sports as an athlete is seen as a healthy activity with a focus on competing and winning, thus activating an athlete identity should activate a goal to compete. This in turn should lead consumers to choose foods and beverages that will help them achieve that goal, such as water or sports drinks to hydrate them or lean meats and veggies to fuel them. In contrast, attending a sporting event as a sports fan is a form of entertainment and hedonic is food typically consumed by fans at sporting events (Carter et al., 2011). Activating a sports fan identity should activate goals of having fun and consuming hedonic food and beverages, such as pizza and beer or hot dogs and soda.

H2a: *Priming athlete identity will increase the goal to compete*

H2b: *Consumers primed with athlete identity will choose fewer hedonic beverages compared to consumers primed with sports fan identity*

Competition Between Goals

Level of goal activation can vary for a variety of reasons (Baumeister, 2002; Fishbach & Dhar, 2005; Huffman, Ratneshwar, & Mick, 2003). Often the context

determines which goals are active at any given time and how they impact our behavior. (Laran, Janiszewski, & Cunha Jr., 2008). Additionally, individual factors such as chronic levels of goal activation and identity salience can impact the level of goal activation. Chronic levels of goals also vary by consumer (Hart & Albarracín, 2009). For identity relevant goals, the higher the consumer's trait level of that identity, the higher the consumer's chronic levels of goal activation for associated goals. For instance, a consumer with a high trait level of athlete identity should also have a high chronic level activation for their goal to compete, and be more likely to act according to that goal.

> ***H3:*** *Consumers with high levels of trait athletic identity will report higher levels of the goal to compete in sports events than consumers with low trait levels of athletic identity.*

Competition between goals, particularly identity relevant goals, has been used to explain perceived lapses in self-control. Based on what identity and related goals are active, the same consumer could have a very different assessment of their choices if a different identity is active when the choice is made and when the choice is assessed (Leboeuf, Shafir, & Bayuk, 2010). Consumers may have a stated goal of eating healthy, but fail to make consistently healthy choices due incompatible goals connected with important social identities made salient by situational primes in the environment (Berkman, Livingston, & Kahn, 2017). Because many goals can be active at the same time, consumers must prioritize which goals drive their decisions through a process known as goal shielding (Shah, Friedman, & Kruglanski, 2002). When an important goal is strongly activated, stimuli that detract from achieving that goal is perceived as a

temptation and avoided in order to shield the important goal (Fishbach, Friedman, & Kruglanski, 2003).

H4a: *Viewing a hedonic food sponsor will strengthen an athlete's goal to compete*

H4b: *Viewing a hedonic food sponsor will enhance the effect of the athlete/ fan identity prime on beverage choice, but viewing a utilitarian food sponsor will dampen the effect.*

Eye tracking is growing in popularity as a way to measure consumers' unconscious biases and preferences in both industry and academia. Consumer goals are reflected in eye movement (Pieters & Wedel, 2018). Priming a health goal can influence consumers to pay more visual attention to healthier food (van der Laan et al., 2017). We anticipate that goal shielding will also be reflected in the types of stimuli that consumers pay attention to. We predict that athletes shown a hedonic food sponsor will interpret it as a temptation to eat hedonic food, which would impede achievement of their focal goal of competing. This will cause them to avoid looking at any visual stimuli depicting hedonic food.

H5: *Viewing a hedonic food sponsor will cause athletes to avoid looking at images showing hedonic food in order to protect their focal goal of competing.*

Impact on Sponsors

Activating health goals reduces hedonic evaluation of food brands among people who normally harbor positive affect toward them (Connell & Mayor, 2013). Previous

research has shown that an interaction between similarity and fit between sponsor and sponsee can lead to negative outcomes for the sponsee when the sponsor and sponsee share a similar dimension, such as health, but are on opposite sides of that dimension, ie one is perceived as healthy, but the other is unhealthy (Pappu & Cornwell, 2014). This "aligned difference" (Markman & Gentner, 1996) suggests that even when opposing in values or outcomes, two entities can seem similar due to their shared context. This false similarity is detected, however, with consumers in the Pappu and Cornwell work (2014) explaining that unhealthy food brands sponsor sport to look healthier than they are. In other research, poor sponsorship fit has been shown to influence consumer inference that the sponsor has calculative motives for their sponsorship, which, in turn, is negatively associated with brand attitude toward the sponsor (Woisetschläger, Backhaus, & Cornwell, 2017).

Applying these findings to the current work, if the event activates health goals in the participant, making health more relevant when sponsor related information is evaluated, participants are likely to assess the sponsor in terms of whether they are healthy or not. If they then encounter a sponsor promoting a healthy product via the event, this should result in positive views of the brand. Alternatively, if this is not the case, the sponsor is in fact promoting an unhealthy product via the event, then we would anticipate that because the event and the sponsor are similar in that they both are associated with health, but that the fit is poor since they are on opposite ends of the healthy-unhealthy spectrum, that this would lead to poor sponsorship fit. In turn this poor fit, made suspect by the aspect of similarity, would lead to inferred calculative motives for the sponsorship and, thus, negatively impact brand attitude toward the sponsor.

H6: *The perceived healthiness of a sponsor's products will positively influence consumers' attitude toward the brand and event sponsorship when consumers view themselves as athletes, but not when they view themselves as fans.*

Several studies have investigated the influence of food sponsors on consumer outcomes such as sponsor perceptions but also food choice behavior. Dixon et al. (2018) utilized a four condition between-subjects design to consider the influence of a (1) non-food products, (2) unhealthy food products, (3) healthy food products, and (4) an obesity prevention public service announcement on young Australian adults in terms of brand awareness, attitudes, image, brand-event fit and food preference. Their research found that unhealthy food products supported unhealthy brand awareness and brand responses and healthy food products supported healthy brand awareness and brand responses relative to controls. In a related study, Scully et al. (2020) utilizing a similar design but considering the attitude of parents of young children, these researchers found superior fit perceptions between the healthier product and the public service announcement and sport.

What these researchers recognize but do not investigate is that some brands produce a "mix of unhealthy and healthier products" (Dixon et al., 2018, p. 4). Their approach was to choose bands for their study according to the overall nutritional profile of the majority of foods that they promote under a brand. For an "umbrella" brand, a brand associated with a number of different products, this is problematic. Firstly, it produces noise in measurement because a condition labeled "healthy" or "unhealthy" may be associated with a mix of healthy and unhealthy products. As well, it does not further our understanding of brands that promote a range of products. If a name holds

extensive brand equity defined as "a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand" (Aaker, 1991) it is difficult for a brand to abandon this valuable name recognition, even if they are responding to consumer preferences for healthier products. This brings for the question, what is the role of brand name and what is the role of product in determining an individual's response to sponsorship of a sporting event by a food product? Will sponsorship of a sport event shift brand perceptions based on the healthfulness of the product promoted?

Study 1: Effect of Sponsor as an Associative Prime on Beverage Choice

In study 1, we test H1, that food sponsors act as an associative prime on subsequent consumption choices in such a way that hedonic food sponsors will lead to hedonic beverage choices and utilitarian food sponsors will lead to utilitarian beverage choices.

Methods

Participants were recruited from the marketing subject pool at a university in the United States (N = 261, 50.4% male, M_{age} = 21.6) and completed the study on-line. Participants were randomly assigned to one of three sponsor conditions: Verizon (neutral), Clif Bar (utilitarian food), or Doritos (hedonic food) and asked to imagine participating in a sponsored sports festival. The participants were told that the sports festival included many sporting events that they could either participate in or watch, along with live music, and a vendor fair. They were then shown an advertisement for the

Sports Festival for 15 seconds and asked to imagine themselves attending the event. The ad contained imagery of people playing sports and participating in other activities at a festival along with the sponsor logo next to the words "Sports Festival." After imagining participating in the sponsored festival, participants chose a beverage and were asked demographic information.

Results

A logistic regression was performed to ascertain the effects of food sponsor on hedonic beverage choice. In this model, the hedonic food sponsor (Doritos) was coded as "1", the non-food sponsor (Verizon) was coded as 0, and the utilitarian food (Clif Bar) was coded as "-1." The logistic regression model was statistically significant, $\chi^2(1) = 47.24$, $p < .001$, and sponsor was a significant predictor of hedonic beverage choice b = 0.436, $p = .027$. Participants exposed to the hedonic food sponsor were 1.55 times more likely to choose a hedonic beverage than participants exposed to the non-food sponsor. Conversely, participants exposed to the utilitarian food sponsor were 1.55 times less likely to choose a hedonic beverage than participants exposed to the non-food sponsor. See figure 3.1 for details on the percent of hedonic beverage choice by sponsor.

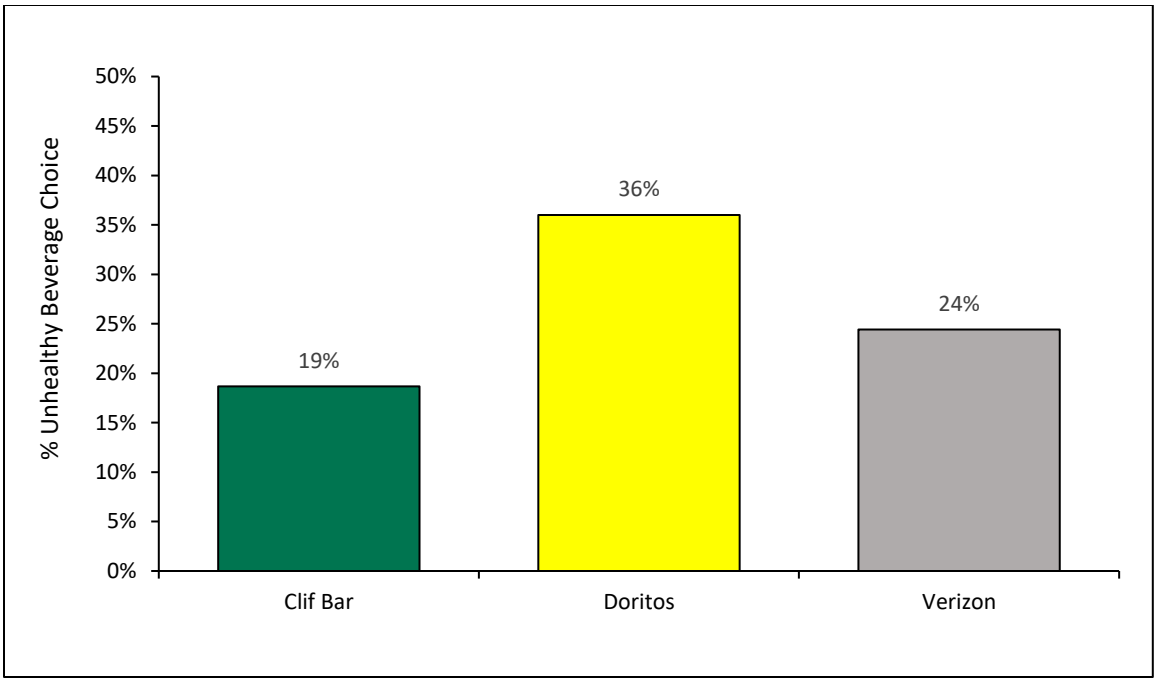

Figure 3.1. Percent choosing unhealthy beverage by sponsor

Study 2: Interaction Between Identity and Sponsor

Study 2 was designed to test the interaction between activated social identity and food sponsors, while also looking at the roles that trait level of athlete identity and the goal to compete play in beverage choice. Specifically, we test H2a, H2b, H3, H4a, and H4b.

Methods

Participants were recruited from the marketing subject pool at a university in the United States (N = 329, 68% male, M_{age} = 20.9). Participants were randomly assigned to one of six conditions in a 2 (identity prime: athlete or sports fan) x 3 (Sponsor: Clif Bar, Doritos, or Verizon) between subject design: and asked to imagine participating in a

sponsored sports festival. The participants were told that the sports festival included many sporting events that they could either participate in or watch. They were asked to imagine themselves attending the event while viewing an advertisement for the sports festival for 20 seconds. After imagining participating in the sponsored festival, participants chose a beverage and were asked demographic information along with measures for trait levels of athlete identity using the Athlete Identity Measurement Scale (AIMS) (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001) and trait levels of sports fan identity using the Sport Fandom Questionnaire (SFQ) (Wann, 2002).

Results

The results did not support H2a that priming athlete identity will increase the goal to compete, $M_{athlete} = 3.83$ vs $M_{fan} = 3.85$, $t(327) = 0.12$, $p = .903$, *ns*. However, the results did support H2b that priming athlete identity will lead to choice of fewer hedonic beverages. Consumers primed with the athlete identity chose hedonic beverages at a significantly lower rate, $M_{athlete} = 38\%$, compared to participants primed with fan identity, $M_{fan} = 50\%$, $t(327) = 2.116$, $p = .035$.

The results supported H3. Trait levels of athlete identity were responsible for significant differences in the goal to compete at the sports festival. Participants with a high level of trait athlete identity (greater than 4.0 on the AIMS scale) reported a significantly higher goal to compete at the sports festival than participants with low level of trait athlete identity, $M_{high} = 4.59$ vs $M_{low} = 3.14$, $t(327) = -9.16$, $p < .001$

The results did not directly support H4a. There was no significant change in self-reported importance of the compete goal based on the sponsor. As discussed above, the

level of trait athlete identity seemed to explain differences in self-reported importance of the competing goal. However, the results supported H4b. Again, we see significant differences in hedonic beverage choice between participants that were primed with athlete identity compared with fan identity, but only when the hedonic food brand (Doritos) was the sponsor, $M_{athlete}$ = 36% vs M_{fan} = 60%, $t(112) = 2.67$, $p = .009$. While the pattern was similar with the neutral sponsor (Verizon), the difference was not significant, $M_{athlete}$ = 39% vs M_{fan} = 49%, $t(102) = 1.01$, $p = .32$, *ns*. Additionally, the effect of identity seemed to disappear entirely with the utilitarian food sponsor (Clif Bar), $M_{athlete}$ = 40% vs M_{fan} = 41%, $t(109) = 0.11$, $p = .91$, *ns*. Please see figure 3.2 below for details.

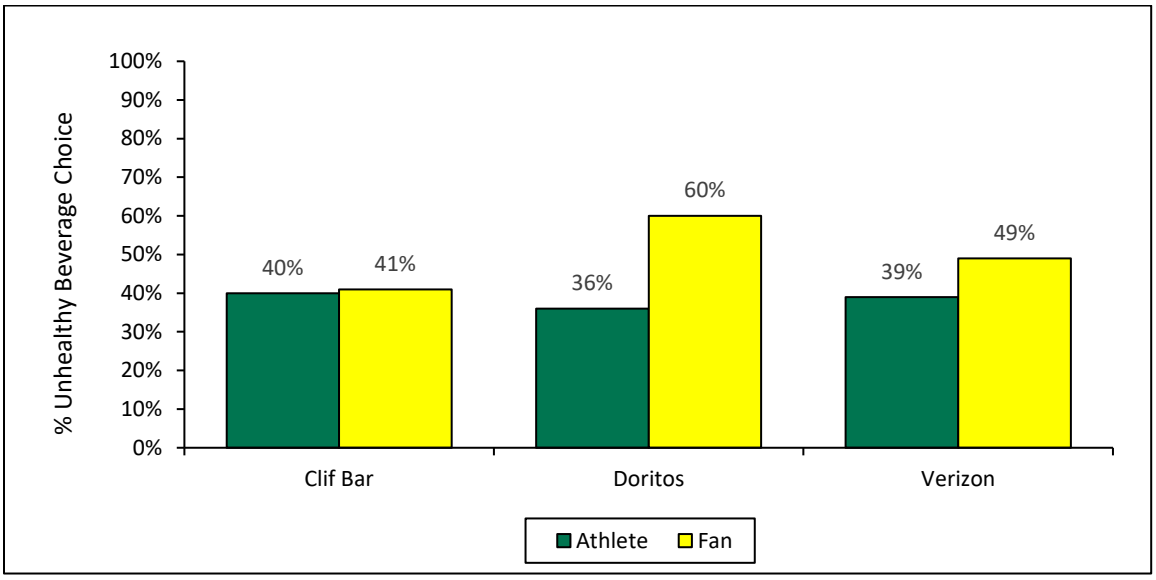

Figure 3.2. Percent choosing unhealthy beverage by sponsor and role frame

While the predicted patterns in beverage choice between those primed with fan identity and those prime with athlete identity, there were no shifts in self-reported

importance of the goal to compete at the event. Instead, trait levels of athlete identity appeared to be the driving factor that determined participants' self-reported importance of the compete goal. Interestingly, when we investigated the effectiveness of identity prime by sponsor, the hedonic food sponsor (Doritos) was the only sponsor that saw a significant difference in hedonic beverage choice between participants primed with athlete identity and those primed with fan identity.

Study 3: Avoiding Temptations

Study 2 left us with questions about why there was a significant change in beverage choice due to identity prime, but no corresponding shift in self-reported goal to compete. Perhaps what is driving the difference in beverage choice is something that can be better captured with biometrics rather than self-report measures. In study 3, we use eye tracking to test H5, that viewing a hedonic food sponsor for a participatory sporting event will lead consumers with high trait athlete identity to avoid looking at images showing people eating hedonic food. We reason that athletes will see hedonic food as a temptation that will hinder them from achieving their focal goal of competing in sports. As such, they will shield their goal to compete by avoiding looking at tempting stimuli and focus on goal consistent stimuli, such as pictures of people competing.

Methods

A total of 106 participants were recruited through the marketing subject pool of a university in the United States, however, 18 were eliminated due to failing attention

checks or poor eye tracking data. This left a useable sample of 88 (55% male, M_{age} = 20.6). At the start of the lab session, participants were seated in front of computer with a Tobii X2-30 eye tracker, and randomly assigned to one of two sponsor conditions: hedonic food (Doritos) or non-food (Verizon). Participants then went through a calibration process for the eye tracker, and started the study only after achieving good calibration. Since we were trying not to prime either fan or athlete identity in this study, participants first completed a neutral prime that asked about major, mode of transportation, and weather. The participants were then told to imagine participating a sports festival that was either sponsored by Doritos (hedonic food condition) or Verizon (control). The participants were told that the Sports Festival included many sporting events that they could either participate in or watch. They were then asked to imagine themselves attending the event and shown an advertisement for the sponsored sports festival for 20 seconds. Participants were then asked to select a beverage they would like to drink at the event. Finally, participants completed the AIMS and SFQ scales and demographics.

Results

As we saw in study 2, participants that had a high level of trait athlete identity (composite score of greater than 4.0) rated competing at the sports festival as significantly more important than participants with a low level of trait athlete identity M_{hi} = 4.62 vs M_{low} = 2.73, $F(89) = -5.39$, $p < .001$, providing further support for H3. This indicates that the goal to compete was significantly more important for participants that had a high level of trait athlete identity than those that had a low level. Participant rating

of the importance of competing at the sports festival did not vary significantly across the two sponsor conditions.

The eye tracking data reveals that when the sponsor was a hedonic food brand (Doritos), the participants with high athlete identity spent significantly less time fixating on stimuli that featured people eating hedonic food, than participants with low trait athlete identity M_{hi} = 3,038 ms vs M_{low} = 4,652 ms, $F(44) = 3.38$, p =.002. However, when the sponsor was a non-food brand (Verizon), there was no significant difference in time fixating on food stimuli between high athlete identity participants and low athlete identity participants M_{hi} = 4,164 ms vs M_{low} = 4,080 ms, $F(42) = -0.13$, p =.897, *ns*. Please see figure 3.3 below for a chart of these results.

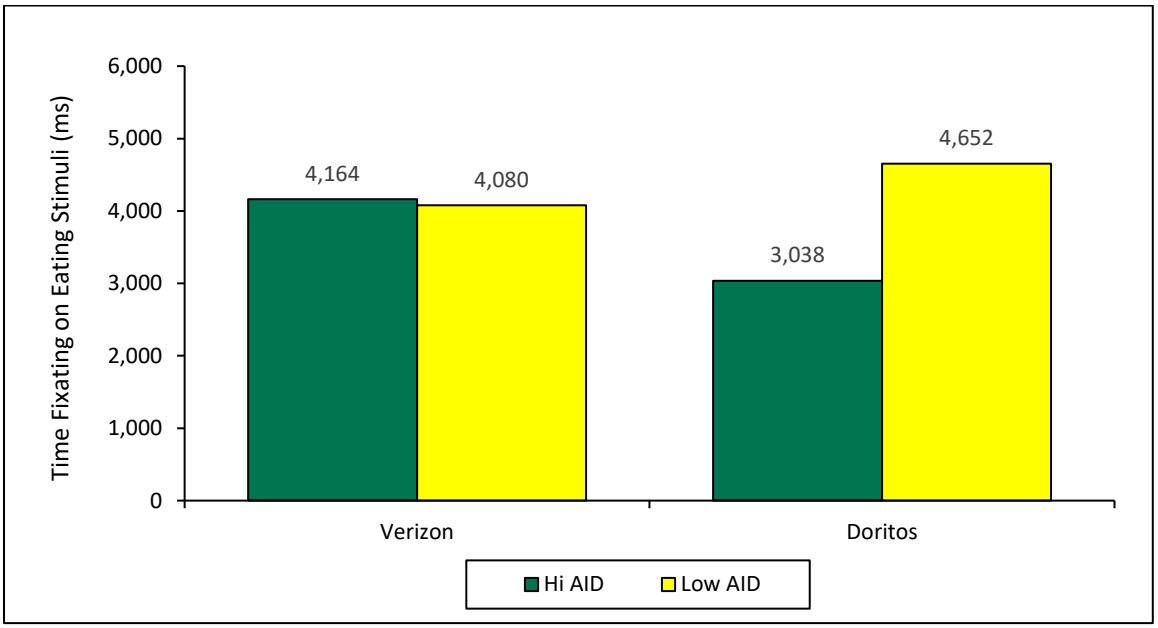

Figure 3.3. Average time fixating on hedonic food stimuli in milliseconds by sponsor and level of athlete identity

These results suggest that individuals with a high trait levels of athlete identity were significantly more likely to view competing at the sports festival as an important goal. As such, when they were confronted with the logo of a hedonic food sponsor (Doritos) they viewed it as a temptation and avoided looking at visual stimuli that represented the eating hedonic food goal, which was incompatible with their focal goal to compete. In contrast, when participants that had a low trait level of athlete identity were presented with the logo of a hedonic food sponsor (Doritos) they spent more time fixating on stimuli of people eating hedonic food.

Next, we show how difference in attention to goal relevant visual stimuli mediates beverage choice. In order to account for the conflicting goals of trait athlete and fan identities on beverage choice, we ran a Model 28 moderated mediation analysis using Hayes PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2012) for SPSS. In our model, hedonic food sponsor is the IV, coded as 0 (Verizon) or 1 (Doritos). Hedonic beverage choice is the DV, coded as 0 (sports drinks and water) or 1 (beer or soda). Trait athlete identity, as measured by the AIMS scale, is a continuous W moderator and trait fan identity, as measured by the SFQ scale, is the continuous V moderator. Please see figure 3.4 below for the conceptual model, with significant interactions.

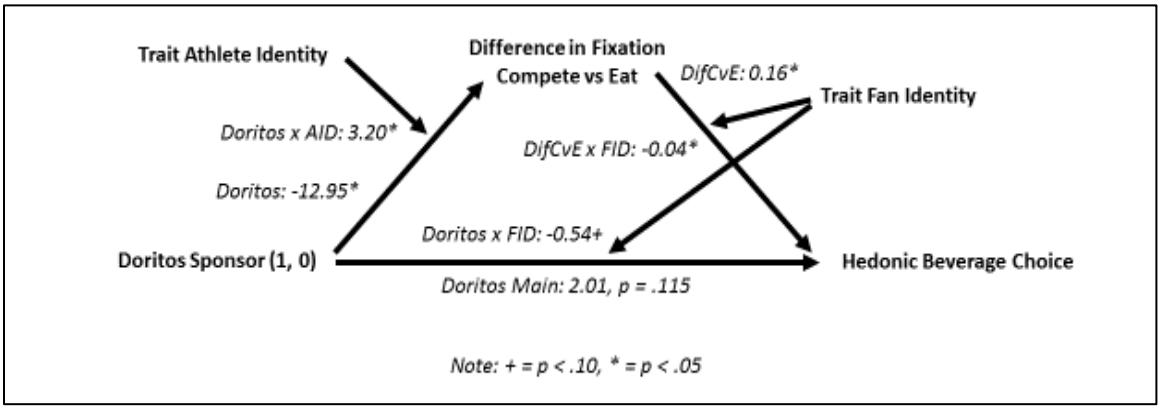

Figure 3.4. Hayes PROCESS Model 28 illustrating the interaction between trait levels of athlete identity and a hedonic food sponsor on visual attention to stimuli showing competing or eating, which then predicts beverage choice, but on only for sports fans

According to our model, the main effect of hedonic food sponsor on attention to goal relevant stimuli was to focus attention on stimuli relevant to the eating goal (b = -15.35, p = .009). However, the interaction between trait athlete identity and hedonic food sponsor was significant (R^2 = .07, $F(1, 81) = 6.75$, p = .01). This indicates that for consumers with a high level of trait athlete identity, that the hedonic food prime led them to pay more attention to stimuli relevant to the competing goal.

The effect of attention to goal relevant stimuli was moderated by trait fan identity in such way that consumers with a high level of trait fan identity tended to choose a goal matching beverage based on which goal relevant stimuli they fixated on. In other words, consumers with a high trait level of fan identity that fixated more on images of people competing tended to choose more utilitarian beverages, while those that fixated more on images of people eating hedonic food tended to choose more hedonic beverages.

Study 4: Impact on Attitudes Toward Tempting Sponsors

In study 4 we tested H6 that the perceived healthiness of a sponsor's products will positively influence consumers' attitude toward the brand and event sponsorship when consumers view themselves as athletes, but not when they view themselves as fans.

Methods

A total of 244 participants completed the study through the Prolific on-live portal. We removed 15 participants for failing an attention check, leaving a usable sample of 229 participants (66% male, M_{age} = 32.4). We recruited only individuals based in the US that currently exercise at least once a week and actively follow professional or college sports. This study featured a 2 (sporting event role: participant / observer) x 3 (sponsor: healthy food product/ neutral food product/ unhealthy food product) mixed design. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two event roles and one of the first two sponsor product conditions. The third product sponsor condition "unhealthy" was added later and run separately. In all conditions the sporting event was a "Sports Festival" and the chosen sponsor was Planters.

To manipulate the perceived healthiness of the sponsor's products, participants were shown an image of the Planters logo with a different set of actual products and a description of those products. In the healthy food condition, participants the Planters logo with three pouches of "NUT-rition" with different functional benefits. In the neutral food condition, participants saw the Planters logo with three pouches of "Nutty Snack Mix" in different flavors. Finally, in the unhealthy condition, participants saw the Planters logo

with three canisters of "Cheez Balls" in different flavors. Participants then selected one of the three presented flavors or functional benefits and asked how healthy, tasty, essential, and fun they thought Planters products were.

To manipulate event role, the participants in the participatory condition were asked about their participation in sports as an athlete and told to imagine which athletic events they would like to compete in at the Sports Festival while viewing an ad for the festival. Participants in the observer condition were asked about their favorite sports to watch and told to imagine which athletic events they would like to watch at the Sports Festival while viewing an ad for the festival.

After viewing the event ad, participants were asked to select a beverage (either soda or water) that they would like to drink at the sports festival. Participants were then be asked about their attitude toward the sponsor (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006), the sponsorship fit (Simmons & Becker-Olsen, 2006), brand authenticity (Charlton & Cornwell, 2019) and inferred motives for the sponsorship (as adapted from Allen & Meyer, 1990; Becker-Olsen, Cudmore, & Hill, 2006; Ellen, Webb, & Mohr, 2006 by Woisetschläger, Backhaus, & Cornwell, 2017). Finally, participants completed the AIMS (Brewer & Cornelius, 2001) and SFQ (Wann, 2002) scales to measure trait level athlete and sports fan identity and answered basic demographic questions.

Results

The food manipulation significantly impacted participants perception of the healthiness of Planters brand products. All three conditions were significantly different, $M_{healthy} = 1.09$ vs $M_{neutral} = 0.53$, $t(152) = -2.188$, $p = .03$ and $M_{unhealthy} = -0.27$ vs $M_{neutral}$,

$t(151) = -3.244$, $p = .001$. However, this manipulation did not significantly impact how tasty, fun, or essential the participants viewed Planters products.

Figure 3.5. Perceived healthiness of Planters brand by product type

We tested perception of healthiness as a mediator for the food manipulation's effect on six brand and sponsorship DVs: brand attitude, sponsorship fit, sponsorship authenticity, inferred affective motives, inferred normative motives, and inferred calculative motives. Each DV was tested using Hayes PROCESS (Hayes, 2012) Model 4 for simple mediation, first with just the participants in the athlete condition and then those in the fan condition. We controlled for trait athlete identity, trait fan identity, and gender for all six DVs. While the total effect of the food manipulation was not significant for any of the models tested, the indirect effect of the food manipulation, through perceived healthiness on all six DVs was significant and in the same direction for both athletes and fans. These results partially support H6. Because the indirect effects were

significant and in the same direction for both athletes and fans, we collapsed the data and re-ran each model with all participants and added the role condition as a covariate.

Figure 3.6 illustrates how when the Planters logo was paired with the healthy food brand healthiness perception was significantly higher than when paired with the neutral food, while it was significantly lower when paired with the unhealthy food. In turn brand healthiness perception significantly and positively influenced brand attitude, sponsorship fit, sponsorship authenticity, inferred affective motives, and inferred normative motives for the sponsorship. All of which are associated with positive marketing outcomes. The only DV that was negatively influenced by brand healthiness perception was inferred calculative motives, which are generally associated with negative marketing outcomes.

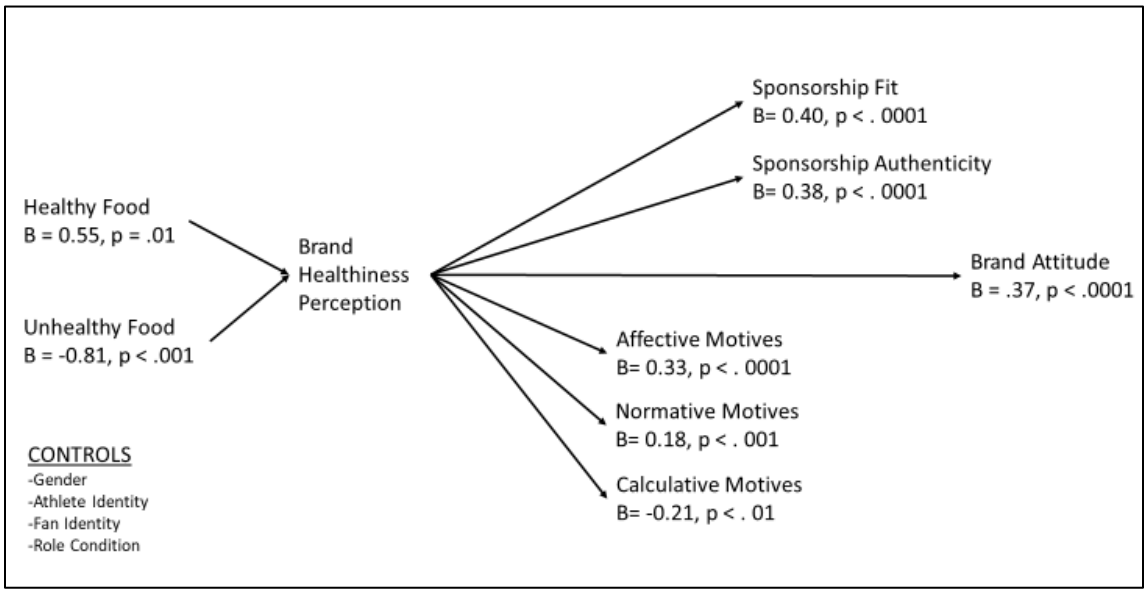

Figure 3.6. Impact of perception of brand healthiness on attitudes toward the sponsor and event sponsorship

The results of study 4 partially support H6 since the perceived healthiness of Planters' products positively influenced the participants' attitudes toward both Planters

and their sponsorship of the Sports Festival when they were in the athlete role. However, the results did not support the assertion that perceived healthiness would not be a significant factor when participant viewed themselves as fans since the effect of the food manipulation on all six DVs was significant and in the same direction as for the participants in the athlete role condition. Our attempt to manipulate participants' perception of the event by randomly assigning their role did not significantly alter participant views about the event itself.

This suggests that perceived healthiness is a significant factor in how consumers will respond to sponsorship of participatory sporting events, regardless of if consumers are competing or watching. The healthier the brand, the higher the perceived fit and authenticity of the sponsorship, which has been shown to significantly influence brand attitude. Unhealthy brands run the risk of damaging their reputation when perceived fit and authenticity of the sponsorship are low. Future research can look at if perceived healthiness is still a factor a when consumers consider sponsorship of professional sporting events.

General Discussion

Our findings suggest that sponsor logos can act as associative primes and can influence consumption decisions at an event. Logos of hedonic food and beverage sponsors can lead to more hedonic food and beverage choices, while healthier food and beverage sponsors could lead to healthier food and beverage choices. However, this general trend can be reversed if the event participants have strong identity relevant goals

that they are shielding and the sponsor is perceived to be a temptation or impediment to achieving those goals. In the case that the event sponsor is perceived to be inconsistent with the participants goals, event sponsorship could lead to negative outcomes for the sponsor such as a negative impact on brand attitudes and lowered willingness to pay for the sponsor's products.

Implications for Corporate Sponsors

For corporate sponsors, the results would suggest that it is important to consider what goals that a participant's dominant role in the event will activate. For an event that involves active athletic participation by a large portion of the participants, the event will likely activate athlete identity consistent goals such as competing and being healthy. Whenever these participants see a sponsor's logo and it is viewed as an impediment to achieving these goals, such as with hedonic food sponsors at an athletic event, this can have a negative impact on the participants' attitudes toward the brand.

Implications for Public Policy Makers and Event Organizers

For public policy makers and sporting event organizers that are concerned with improving the nutritional value of consumption choices made by participants, our results suggest two possible interventions. The first would be to seek out sponsors that are more utilitarian in nature and be sure to locate their logos near where food and beverage choices are made. The second would be to promote events that encourage active physical participation and competition. This would lead attendees to see themselves more as

athletes than fans and could lead to making consumption decisions that would be more utilitarian than hedonic.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

While this research suggests that a mismatch between hedonic food and beverage sponsors and participatory athletic events, such as triathlons or civic sports festivals, could lead to lower evaluations of the sponsor, we have not yet been able to show this effect occur. Additionally, we did not test if this effect could negatively impact healthy food and beverage sponsors at hedonic events, such as watching professional sports. It is quite possible that healthy food and beverage sponsors at largely hedonic events, such as professional sports games, where the vast majority of participants take the role of sports fan could lead to shielding of the goal to have fun and increase consumption of hedonic food and beverages at the event while also negatively impacting sports fans' attitudes towards the sponsor. While this is quite unfortunate, it is entirely plausible given the results and should be investigated in future research.

APPENDIX A

ROLE FRAMES

Athlete Role Frame

1. Do you currently participate in any sports or athletic activity? (Yes / No)
2. If yes, which sports of athletic activities do you participate in? (Open)
3. Did you participate in any organized sports as a child or teenager? (Yes / No)
4. If yes, which organized sports did you participate in as a child or teenager? (Open)
5. What is your favorite sport or athletic activity to participate in? (Open)
6. For the sport or activity above, what is your favorite position to play? (Open)
7. Briefly describe one training technique or drill that made you a better athlete. (Open)

Sports Fan Role Frame

1. Do you currently follow any professional or college sports? (Yes / No)
2. If yes, which professional or college sports do you follow? (Open)
3. What is your favorite professional or college sport to watch? (Open)
4. For the sport above, do you prefer to watch it in person or on television? Why? (Open)
5. Do you have a favorite team for the sport above? (Yes / No)
6. If yes, what is your favorite team and how did you become a fan? (Open)
7. Briefly describe the last sporting event you attended. (Open)

Neutral Role Frame

1. Are you currently employed? (Yes / No)
2. What is your profession? (Open)
3. Did you imagine that you would be in your current profession as a child or teenager? (Yes / No)
4. What did you image your profession would be as a child or teenager? (Open)
5. What is your primary mode of transportation? (Open)
6. If your primary mode of transportation is by car, what is the make and model? (Open)
7. Briefly describe the current weather. (Open)

APPENDIX B

SCALES

Note: All items were measured on a 7 point Likert scale anchored by "Strongly Disagree" and "Strongly Agree"

Athlete Identity Measurement Scale (Brewer and Cornelius 2002)

1. I consider myself an athlete.
2. I have many goals related to participating in sports.
3. Most of my friends are athletes.
4. Participating in sports is the most important part of my life.
5. I spend more time thinking about participating in sports than anything else.
6. I feel bad about myself when I perform poorly in sports.
7. I would be very depressed if I were injured and could not compete in sports.

Sport Fandom Questionnaire (Wann 2002)

1. I consider myself to be a sports fan.
2. My friends see me as a sports fan.
3. I believe that following sports is the most enjoyable form of entertainment.
4. My life would be less enjoyable if I were not able to follow sports.
5. Being a sports fan is very important to me.

Compete Versus Fun Goal Prioritization (Hart and Albarracin 2009)

1. Normally, I am more motivated to have a good time than to compete. (Reversed)
2. I think that I am more motivated to win than have fun.
3. I would rather surround myself with people who are motivated to win than people who are motivated to have a good time.
4. I would rather spend my time preparing to compete than at a party.
5. Most of my time is spent thinking of ways to have fun rather than ways to win. (Reversed)
6. Most of my behaviors are geared toward having fun rather than winning. (Reversed)

Sponsor Attitude (Simmons and Becker-Olsen 2006)

Please evaluate (sponsor) on the basis of the following attributes:

1. (Sponsor) is very likable
2. (Sponsor) is a very good brand
3. (Sponsor) is a very attractive brand

Sponsorship Fit (Speed and Thompson 2000)

Please evaluate the connection between (sponsor) and the sports festival

1. There is a logical connection between the event and the sponsor
2. The image of the event and the image of the sponsor are similar

3. The sponsor and the event fit together well
4. The company and the event stand for similar things
5. It makes sense to me that this company sponsors this event

HMP Authenticity (Charlton and Cornwell 2019)
Please evaluate the relationship between (sponsor) and (event)

1. The relationship between Willamette Foods and the Sports Festival survives trends.
2. The relationship between Willamette Foods and the Sports Festival is an honest combination.
3. The relationship between Willamette Foods and the Sports Festival gives back to its people.
4. The relationship between Willamette Foods and the Sports Festival connects people with what is really important.

Affective Motives (adapted from Allen and Meyer 1990)
Please evaluate the following statements about the relationship between (sponsor) and the sports festival:

1. (Sponsor) feels emotionally attached to this event.
2. This event has a great deal of meaning for (sponsor).
3. (Sponsor) feels a strong sense of belonging to this event.

Normative Motives (adapted from Ellen, Webb, and Mohr 2006)
Please evaluate the following statements about the relationship between (sponsor) and the sports festival:

1. A reason for (sponsor) to get involved as a sponsor is that they feel a moral obligation of their environment.
2. (Sponsor) is principally engaged in the sponsorship, because they feel that it is expected from a company this size.
3. (Sponsor)is a loyal sponsor, primarily because customers, employees or other important target groups expect it.

Calculative Motives (adapted from Allen and Meyer 1990; Becker-Olsen, Cudmore, and Hill 2006; Ellen, Webb, and Mohr 2006)
Please evaluate the following statements about the relationship between (sponsor) and the sports festival:

1. The major motive of (sponsor)'s sponsorship is self-interest.
2. (Sponsor) sponsors this event mainly to take advantage of it.
3. *A reason for (sponsor) to sponsor this event is that it would be too costly to terminate this partnership.

APPENDIX C

VISUAL STIMULI

Stimuli for Essay 1 Study 1

A. DV Beverage selection options

Stimuli for Essay 1 Study 2

A. DV Beverage selection options

B. BDM Interface Trial

How much would you be willing to pay for this beverage, in dollars?

0.00	0.25	0.50	0.75	1.00	1.25	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00

C. BDM Interface Results

Your random beverage is:

Your bid for Red Gatorade was: $2.00

Your random price is: $1.50

Stimuli for Essay 1 Study 3

A. IV Benefit frame article: Performance enhancement

eat right® Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics

EAT TO WIN!

Eating a healthy diet to enhance performance leads to improved:
-Physical performance in sports
-Mental performance at work and school
-Sexual performance

Nutritionists encourage individuals seeking to enhance their performance to:

EAT MORE	**AVOID EATING**
-Fresh Fruits and Vegetables	-Added Sugar from Candy
-Lean Proteins, such as Low Fat Dairy	-Empty Carbs from Cookies and Cakes
-Good Fats, like those found in Nuts	-Bad Fats, like those found in Chips

→

B. IV Benefit frame article: Weight loss

eat right® Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics

EAT TO LOSE!

Eating a healthy diet to lose weight leads to improved:
-Sporty physique
-Perceived effectiveness at work and school
-Sexual attractiveness

Nutritionists encourage individuals seeking to lose weight to:

EAT MORE	**AVOID EATING**
-Fresh Fruits and Vegetables	-Added Sugar from Candy
-Lean Proteins, such as Low Fat Dairy	-Empty Carbs from Cookies and Cakes
-Good Fats, like those found in Nuts	-Bad Fats, like those found in Chips

→

C. DV Snack selection options

Stimuli for Essay 2 Study 1

A. Sports festival sponsored by hedonic food brand

B. Sports festival sponsored by utilitarian food brand

C. Sports festival sponsored by non-food brand (control)

D. Beverage selection options

Now imagine you are going to get a drink at this festival. You can have your choice of any beverage in the categories below. Please choose the beverage category that you would like to drink at the event.

Stimuli for Essay 2 Studies 2 and 3

A. Sports festival sponsored by hedonic food brand

B. Sports festival sponsored by utilitarian food brand

C. Sports festival sponsored by non-food brand (control)

D. Beverage selection options

Stimuli for Essay 2 Study 4

A. IV Products: Neutral

Planters makes a variety of fun and tasty snacks such as their new "Nutty Snack Mix" line of snacks. Planters' Nutty Snack Mix comes in a variety of delicious bold flavors such as Barbecue Chili, Wasabi Honey, and Sweet & Salty Cinnamon.

B. IV Products: Healthy

Planters makes a variety of healthy and energy packed snacks, such as their new "NUT-rition" line of snacks. Planters' NUT-rition line comes in a variety of functional benefits such as Antioxidant Mix, Omega-3 Mix, and Vitality Blend.

C. IV Products: Unhealthy

Planters makes a variety of fun and tasty snacks such as their "Cheez Balls" line of snacks. Planters' Cheez Balls come in a variety of delicious bold flavors such as Original, White Cheddar, and Blazin' Hot.

D. Sports Festival Ad

E. DV Beverage selection

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