ScholarWorks@GSU

**Evaluating The Impact of Esport Brand Extensions
on Brand Equity and Behavioral Intentions**

ACCEPTANCE

This dissertation, EVALUATING THE IMPACT OF ESPORT BRAND EXTENSIONS ON BRAND EQUITY AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS, by GLYNN MCGEHEE, was prepared under the direction of the candidate's Dissertation Advisory Committee. It is accepted by the committee members in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree, Doctor of Philosophy, in the College of Education & Human Development, Georgia State University.

The Dissertation Advisory Committee and the student's Department Chairperson, as representatives of the faculty, certify that this dissertation has met all standards of excellence and scholarship as determined by the faculty.

_____
Beth Cianfrone, Ph.D.
Committee Chair

_____   _____
Timothy Kellison, Ph.D.   Rebecca Ellis, Ph.D.
Committee Member   Committee Member

_____
Soon-Ho Kim, Ph.D.
Committee Member

_____
Date

_____
Jacalyn Lund, Ph.D.
Chairperson, Department of Kinesiology and Health

_____
Paul A. Alberto, Ph.D.
Dean, College of Education & Human Development

AUTHOR'S STATEMENT

By presenting this dissertation as a partial fulfillment of the requirements for the advanced

degree from Georgia State University, I agree that the library of Georgia State University shall

make it available for inspection and circulation in accordance with its regulations governing

materials of this type. I agree that permission to quote, copy from, or to publish this dissertation

may be granted by professor under whose direction it was written, by the College of Education

and Human Development's Director of Graduate Studies, or by me. Such quoting, copying, or

publishing must be solely for scholarly purposes and will not involve potential financial gain. It

is understood that any copying from or publication of this dissertation which involves potential

financial gain will not be allowed without my written permission.

_____

GLYNN MILTON MCGEHEE

CURRICULUM VITAE
Glynn McGehee, M.S.

EDUCATION

Ph.D.	Kinesiology and Health Concentration: Sport Administration Cognate: Statistical Research Methods	Georgia State University, 2019
M.S.	Sport Administration	Georgia State University, 2014
B.A.	Political Science and History	Syracuse University, 2010

WORK EXPERIENCE

Academic Experience
Graduate Research Assistant, *Georgia State University*, Atlanta, GA, Spring 2017-Present
Graduate Teaching Assistant, *Georgia State University*, Atlanta, GA, Fall 2016-Present
Rankin Cooter Sport Business Graduate Lab Assistant, *Georgia State University*, Atlanta, GA, August 2016-2017
Graduate Research Assistant, *Georgia State University*, Atlanta, GA, August 2012-January 2014
Sport Industry Experience
Athletics Assistant*, The Galloway School*, Atlanta, GA, August 2012-2016
Event Marketer, *Lifetime Athletic Events*, Atlanta, GA, August 2014-August 2015
ESPN3 Broadcast Crew, *Kennesaw State University*, Kennesaw, GA, November 2014-March 2016
Graduate Marketing Assistant, *Kennesaw State University*, Kennesaw, GA, August 2013-October 2014
Social Media Intern, *Rivals.com*, Atlanta, GA*,* May 2014-December 2014
Communications Intern, *Georgia State Sports Information*, Atlanta, GA, May 2014-December 2014
Atlanta Falcons Game Day Fan Crew, *Atlanta Falcons*, Atlanta, GA, August 2012-January 2013
Professional Experience
Account Coordinator, *The Coca-Cola Company*, Atlanta, GA, January 2015-2016
Sales Associate, *Smart Brief,* Washington, DC, October 2010-December 2011
Congressional Internship, *U.S. House of Representatives,* Washington, DC, January 2012-June 2012

PUBLICATIONS

Journal Manuscripts, Published Research Proceedings and Abstracts
McGehee, G. M., Marquez, A. A., Cianfrone, B. A., & Kellison, T. B. (2018). Understanding organizational and public perspectives of stadium redevelopment through social media: A case study of Georgia State University's "New" stadium. *International Journal of Sport Communication*, *11*, 261–285.
McGehee, G. M., & Cianfrone, B. A. (accepted). Brand equity in college athletics: An assessment of Syracuse University's "New York's College Team" strategic branding campaign. *Journal of Contemporary Athletics: Collegiate Branding Special Issue.*
Cianfrone, B. A., **McGehee, G. M**., & Brison, B. H. (2013). And the home of the Braves: A case study of the Gwinnett Braves. *Sport Management Education Journal, 7,* 60-67.
McGehee, G. M., Cianfrone, B. A., & Kellison, T. B. (2018). Student Perception of Branding Benefits of a New Collegiate Stadium. NASSM Conference Abstract.
McGehee, G. M., Cianfrone, B. A., & Kellison, T. B. (2017). Assessing the anticipated impact of a new stadium on the local community. NASSM Conference Abstract Archive: NASSM 2017—Abstract Book, 6-7.
Books, Contributing Chapters, and Manuscripts In Preparation or Review

McGehee, G. M., Cianfrone, B. A., & Kellison, T. B. (In Review). Interaction of communication from the sport organization, media, and public perspectives: How does messaging relate and differ? *Journal of Sport Management*.

McGehee, G. M., Cianfrone, B. A., & Kellison, T. B. (In Review). Student perception of branding benefits of a new collegiate stadium.

McGehee, G. M., & Cianfrone, B. A. (forthcoming- 2019). A tale of two cities: Collegiate branding in New York, the case of the University at Buffalo and Syracuse University. In J. W. Lee (Ed.), *Branding in Higher Ed: Every University Tells a Story* (pp. #-#). Durham, NC: Carolina Academic Press.

CONFERENCES AND PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

International and National Presentations

McGehee, G. M. (June, 2019). Using a town hall style debate in a sport finance course. Presenting (teaching and learning fair) for the North American Society for Sport Management Conference, New Orleans, LA.

McGehee, G. M., Cianfrone, B. A., & Kellison, T. B. (November, 2018). Marketing a new Stadium as a mixed-use, year-round attraction. Presenting (oral/free communication) for the Sport Marketing Association Conference, Dallas, TX.

McGehee, G. M., Cianfrone, B. A., & Kellison, T. B. (June, 2018). Student perception of branding benefits of a new collegiate stadium. Presenting (oral/free communication) for the North American Society for Sport Management Conference, Halifax, NS.

McGehee, G. M. (November, 2017). Media framing and sport organizational communication: The communication of a new stadium project assignment. Presented (pedagogy symposium) for the Sport Marketing Association Conference, Boston, MA.

McGehee, G. M., Cianfrone, B. A., & Kellison, T. B. (June, 2017). Assessing the anticipated impact of a new stadium on the local community. Presenting (oral/free communication) for the North American Society for Sport Management Conference, Denver, CO.

McGehee, G. M., Marquez, A. A., Cianfrone, B. A., & Kellison, T. B. (April, 2017). Community development through college sports: A case study of Georgia State University's "New" Stadium. Presented (oral/free communication) for the College Sport Research Institute Conference, Columbia, SC.

McGehee, G.M., & Cianfrone, B.A. (2015, April). Elevating brand equity through a strategic marketing campaign: A case study of Syracuse University—New York's College Team. Presented (poster) for the College Sport Research Institute Conference, Columbia, SC.

McGehee, G.M., McNeely, W., & Flock, C. (2013, April). Analysis of Holy Cross University's decision to not join the Big East Conference". 2013 College Sport Research Institute Conference Graduate Student Case Study Competition, University of North Carolina- Chapel Hill, NC.

McGehee, G.M., McNeely, W., Gore, M., & Lieberman, R. (2012, October). The Pepsi Super Bowl Halftime Show Analysis. 2012 Sport Marketing Association Conference Graduate Student Case Study Competition, Orlando, FL. 2nd place.

Conferences Attended
- GSU Kinesiology and Health Research Symposium, 2017, 2018, 2019
- Sport Marketing Association Conference, 2013, 2017, 2018, 2019
- North American Society for Sport Management, 2017, 2018, 2019
- College Sport Research Institute Conference, 2014, 2017

Professional Memberships
- NASSM member 2016-Present
- SMA member 2017-Present

EVALUATING THE IMPACT OF ESPORT BRAND EXTENSIONS ON BRAND EQUITY

AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS

By

GLYNN MILTON MCGEHEE

Under the Direction of Dr. Beth Cianfrone

ABSTRACT

Esport, which consists of video game competitions that fans can watch remotely or attend, is a rapidly growing industry. Although there is trepidation among traditional sport organizations about embracing esport, the popularity of esport with young consumers makes it attractive to sport practitioners. Some traditional sport entities have started to embrace esport. Specifically, the National Basketball Association (NBA) has made a concerted effort to incorporate esport into its brand. Certain NBA franchises (e.g., the Philadelphia 76ers) manage esport teams (e.g., 76ers GC) that compete in the NBA 2K League. The NBA esport teams consist of athletes/gamers who play NBA2K, a sport video game, and compete against other teams in the NBA 2K League. The NBA esport teams therefore act as brand extensions of each NBA franchise (the parent brand). Brand extensions are a common brand management strategy in sport; however, esport brand extensions of a traditional sport parent brand have yet to be studied. The purpose of this research was to test a brand extension model to examine (1) factors that may determine consumers' esport brand extension evaluations, (2) the relationship between evaluations and extension brand equity, and (3) the impact of identification on extension brand equity. As esport is likely to continue to grow in size and popularity, there is a practical need for sport practitioners to understand esport as a brand extension strategy to attract esport fans and consumers to the parent brand. Furthermore, despite an abundance of brand extension research there are inconsistencies in the theoretical explanations and dimensions that determine how consumers evaluate brand extensions. To assess the practicality of an esport brand extension strategy in traditional sport, and to assess differing theoretical explanations of the factors that influence consumer evaluations of brand extensions, this study examined how potential consumers responded to an esport brand extension of an individual NBA franchise that joined the

NBA 2K League in 2019. Surveys were electronically distributed to potential respondents who are representative of the parent brand's target market and of the overall esport market. A conceptual model was tested using structural equation modeling (SEM) to determine the relationships between these factors.

INDEX WORDS: Brand Equity, Brand Extension, esport, Social Identification

EVALUATING THE IMPACT OF ESPORT BRAND EXTENSIONS ON BRAND EQUITY

AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS

By

Glynn Milton McGehee

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of Requirements for the

Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Sport Administration

in

Kinesiology and Health

in

the College of Education and Human Development

Georgia State University

Atlanta, GA

2019

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Completing my dissertation would not be possible without the many people, places, and events that allowed me to reach this point. Innumerable past experiences — good, bad, and random — have made this achievement possible. Prior to beginning my doctoral studies at Georgia State, I was working in an unfulfilling corporate desk job with no relation to my M.S. degree in sport administration from Georgia State. One night, I unexpectedly encountered my former professor and current advisor Dr. Beth Cianfrone at Fellini's (an Atlanta pizza establishment that I highly recommend). That was the moment when I learned that GSU was preparing to start a sport administration doctoral program. Without that chance encounter, I likely would never have chosen or been aware of this path. I owe much more to Dr. Cianfrone beyond suddenly learning about the doctoral program. Not only has Dr. Cianfrone pushed me to do my best, she has expected it of me, and helped me to achieve my best. I appreciate your faith in me and the scholarly and personal guidance you have provided. Although every member of my dissertation committee has my thanks, I wanted to thank Dr. Tim Kellison for his contribution to my success. Although I did not realize it when I started the program, Dr. Kellison and I share several research interests. Thank you for showing a sincere interest in my success, and for your guidance with numerous research projects.

Next, I would like to thank my Mom. I would have mentioned you first, but the narrative about the pizza restaurant flowed better into mentioning Dr. Cianfrone. To emphasize your importance, I want to be clear that none of this would be possible without you. Thank you for giving me every opportunity to succeed, for your support, and sometimes for your patience. There are many other friends, colleagues, Ph.D. cohorts, places, universities, and institutions that I would like to mention and thank in greater detail; however, in the interest of saving paper and pithiness, I will limit myself to just a few more.

Thank you, Sarah, for your support and encouragement. You believed in me even when I did not at times, and I cannot imagine going through this process without you. Thanks for coming along with me to Illinois and for all future adventures to come. I would also like to thank some of the animals in my life. Bevan (dog), Rabbit (dog) and Calvin Harris (cat), you are all the best. Lastly, I would like to thank my friend Dr. John H. Watson. Your incessant need for an early breakfast kept me on task, and your companionship kept me sane.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Brands, the management of brands, and the success of brands continue to be a focus of research in sport management, and other disciplines. This is due to the importance of a brand to an organization beyond the good or service that they produce. A brand can be understood as the collection of unique components (e.g., name, design, symbol) that are associated and identified with a good or service provider, and distinguish it from competitors (Keller, 1993). Branding therefore, is a managerial process that communicates and transfers the advantages associated with a brand to its goods and services (Kotler & Keller, 2015; Richelieu & Pons, 2011). Brand management activities occur in many forms (e.g., brand extensions) and have the potential to enhance or diminish a firm's brand equity, its value, which is essential to organizational success and ability to stand out from the competition. To underscore the importance of brand equity, virtually any strategic brand decision that an organization makes is intended to manage or develop brand equity (Aaker, 1996; Keller, 1993). This is especially true in the case of consumer driven industries, like sport, where brand equity determines consumers' evaluation of organizational brand equity. To enhance brand equity and encourage consumer behaviors, brand extensions are an increasingly common branding strategy in sport (Walsh & Williams, 2017). Like other branding strategies, the goal of a brand extension is to improve brand equity (Keller & Aaker, 1992). A brand extension occurs when an existing brand creates a new product that occupies a new product category (Aaker, 1996). A common example of a sport brand extension is a professional sport franchise that creates an off-season camp for children. In this example, the summer camp is a new product in a product category that is distinct from the franchise's primary product category, professional sport. A prominent historical example of the importance of brand

extension in sport is the XFL, which was a professional football league that folded after one season in 2001. In partnership with NBC, World Wrestling Entertainment (WWE; née World Wrestling Federation) created the XFL. After an initial investment of $100 million, each partner lost about $35 million after the XFL disbanded due to poor television ratings following the inaugural season (McPherson, 2018, January 25). The XFL served as a brand extension of WWE as professional football represented a new product category. The XFL attempted to merge elements of entertainment and professional wrestling with a professional football league (Sandomir, 2000). Based on the league's lone season and financial consequences for WWE, it appeared the professional wrestling brand was not appropriate for an extension into a football league. Interestingly, the league is scheduled for a comeback in 2020; however, this time there is not to be any crossover with professional wrestling or the entertainment industry outside of sport (McPherson, 2018). Nevertheless, the financial consequences of the XFL's failure to investors demonstrates the potential risk associated with a brand extension. Other negative consequences may include dilution of the parent brand equity or diminished consumer-based brand equity. Despite the XFL example, brand extensions are not rare occurrences in sport. One explanation for their continued prominence may be that it is much more difficult, and risky, to launch an entirely new product and brand (Clancy & Shulman, 1991; Pitta & Katsanis, 1995; Taylor & Bearden, 2003). Although sport researchers have examined the effects of branding and brand extensions in some segments of the sport industry, others have received either little attention or no attention.

One segment of the sport industry that is under researched from a branding perspective is esport. This is likely due to the recent rise of esport popularity and emergence in academic literature. Esport can simply be understood as organized video game competitions (Funk, Pizzo,

& Baker, 2018). More specifically, esport refers to competitive (professional and amateur) video gaming that is coordinated by leagues and tournaments. Additionally, players are ranked and are typically affiliated with some team or some sporting organization that may be sponsored by other businesses (Hamari & Sjöblom, 2017). In contrast, traditional sport encompasses all other forms of competition that are commonly considered sports (e.g., football, soccer, basketball, tennis). The limited body of esport research thus far has focused on certain areas. One of the earliest, and persistent, areas of esport research has been defining sport and determining whether esports should be considered a sport (Cunningham et al., 2018; Funk et al., 2018; Holden, Kaburakis, & Rodenberg, 2017). Other early esport research has considered policy and governance implications of legal acceptance of esport (Kane & Spradley, 2017), esport competitive structures (Llorens, 2017), and spectator and athlete motives for consuming or competing in esport (Hamari & Sjöblom, 2017; Lee & Schoenstedt, 2011; Pizzo et al., 2018; Schaeperkoetter et al., 2017). However, esport have not yet been studied from a branding and brand extension perspective.

Because of the rapid growth of esports there is a need for continued research. The first esport competition in 1980 drew 10,000 spectators to watch gamers play Atari's Space Invaders (Li, 2016). In 2017, there were reportedly 191 million esport fans across the globe ("Esports," 2017). In 2016, the world championship for a popular esport game (League of Legends) attracted 60 million viewers and 20,000 live spectators. Those figures are up from 32 million viewers of the same event in 2013 (Holden et al., 2017). Not only are esports increasingly popular, but they are also increasingly profitable and seen as a business opportunity. Esport revenues increased from $493 million in 2016 to $660 million in 2017 (Cunningham et al., 2018). The growth of esports has attracted corporate sponsors (e.g., Microsoft, Red Bull), and has been legitimized by

media coverage (e.g., ESPN, Forbes, Sports Illustrated), as well as sport organizations (e.g., the

Philadelphia 76ers, the 2022 Asian Games; Cunningham et al., 2018; Funk et al., 2018; Graham,

2017). Due to the growth and size of the esport industry, and its potential for profitability, there

is great potential for esport related brand extensions. However, research is needed to understand

how any esport brand extension to successfully leverage and improve brand equity for the parent

brand and the extension brand.

The sport industry is already seeking to capitalize on the growth of esport. Based on

Aaker's (1996) definition, brand extensions are described as an existing brand that creates a new

product in a new product category (Aaker, 1996). Thus, collegiate esports teams are brand

extensions. Official collegiate esport teams represent a new product that is in a category

(athletics) distant from the parent brand's product category (education). Perhaps the most

prominent, and recent, esport brand extension is the NBA 2K League. In May 2017, the NBA

announced that its 17 NBA franchises would draft players for an esport team that would compete

against other NBA esport teams in the 2018 inaugural season ("Official release," 2017). The

teams competed against each other in a basketball video game (NBA 2K). The NBA 2K League

makes the NBA the first major professional sport league to bring the traditional sport franchise

model to esports. NBA commissioner Adam Silver referred to the NBA 2K League as the fourth

league in their family of leagues: NBA, WNBA, G League, and NBA 2K League (Khan, 2018).

Each of the 17 participating franchises' esport team consisted of paid athletes drafted by the

team. All of the teams competed for a $1 million prize (Khan, 2018). According to the league's

website, the NBA acknowledges growth of the esport market and the role it will play in the

league's future ("NBA 2K League info," 2018). In other words, the NBA 2K League is a brand

extension of the NBA that acts as a long-term branding strategy to improve the NBA's overall

brand equity, attract new consumers, and generate new revenue. The same can be said of each individual NBA esport team. The parent brand being the NBA franchise (e.g., The Dallas Mavericks, Sacramento Kings, and the Philadelphia 76ers) and the extension brand being the esport team (e.g., Mavs Gaming, Kings Guard Gaming, and 76ers GC). In this scenario, the parent brand's product category is traditional sport, while the extension brand's product category is esport. While NBA esport teams as brand extensions may be a forward-thinking strategy to improve NBA league and team brand equity, which can lead to consumer behavior intentions, it is not without the risks inherent to any brand extension. The NBA's esport venture has high stakes because of the financial investment, and the potential to attract, and retain, young fans. The potential to attract new consumers and improve brand equity is tempting because of the popularity of esport with younger demographics (Molina, 2018, January 12). Those individuals are more accustomed to watching sport on digital platforms, which is compatible with esport (Singer, 2017). However, the success of a brand extension is contingent upon evaluation by consumers. Individuals who identify as esport or sport video game (SVG) fans may or may not evaluate NBA esport teams favorably, which could affect the extension's brand equity and ability to influence consumer behavior. NBA esport teams could also potentially dilute or even damage the NBA franchise's brand equity. For this reason, NBA 2K League franchises provide an ideal case for studying brand extensions in an esport context.

Theoretical Foundations and Conceptualizations

Among researchers in sport and general business disciplines, there are a few generally agreed upon definitions. For example, Keller's (1993) definition of a brand as unique attributes that identify a good or service is broad enough to be agreeable and inclusive of different interpretations. Equally broad and agreeable is the concept of branding as the strategies and

tactics used to manage and improve the brand's value or equity (Kotler & Keller, 2015; Richelieu & Pons, 2011). Finally, brand extensions are a common branding strategy in sport (Walsh & Williams, 2017) that are intended to improve brand equity and strengthen an organization. Despite the relative consensus on what brand extensions are and what they do, there are an array of theoretical explanations for the factors that contribute to consumer-based brand equity and brand extension evaluation.

Aaker (1991) suggested brand equity was the result of consumers' perceived quality, awareness, associations, and loyalty related to an organization's brand. Additionally, Keller (1993) proposed brand equity resulted from consumers' knowledge about a brand that was determined by awareness and image. Therefore, understanding brand equity, and differentiating its antecedents and outcomes, is of interest to brand managers in many industries. Research from Aaker and Keller constitutes some of the seminal conceptualizations of consumer-based brand equity; however, others have conceptualized the components of brand equity differently based on the type of brand. For instance, Berry (2000) introduced a framework for consumer-based brand equity that included adaptations for a service brand rather than a consumer goods brand. In the sport management discipline, a few studies provided the foundations for conceptual frameworks of brand equity (Gladden & Funk, 2002; Gladden, Milne, & Sutton, 1998; Ross, James, & Vargas, 2006; Ross, Russell, & Bang, 2008). While sport related research on brand equity has grown, it is must continuously evolve because of the unique qualities of the sport industry and niches within sport. Researchers have proposed theoretical frameworks and components of brand equity in sport that are unique to specific areas within the sports industry (Bauer, Stokburger-Sauer, & Exler, 2008; Bruening & Lee, 2007; Gladden & Milne, 1999; Gladden et al., 1998; Kellison, Bass, Oja, & James, 2016; Mills & Williams, 2016). Each of these examples of sport

brand equity research demonstrate the variety in how brand equity is measured and

conceptualized. The variance in brand equity conceptualizations indicates a need to adapt

conceptualization of brand equity to unique contexts within sport (i.e., type of sport, level of

sport, participant sport, spectator sport consumption), and branding strategy (i.e. rebranding, co-

branding, sponsorships, endorsements).

While brand equity is a goal of any branding strategy, the relationship between brand

equity and brand extensions are not consistent. In some conceptual frameworks brand equity is

an antecedent to brand extension evaluation/success, while in other cases brand equity, and

subsequent consumer behavior are outcomes of extension evaluation (Kunkel, Funk, & Lock,

2017; Spiggle, Nguyen, & Caravella, 2012; Walsh, Hwang, Lim, & Pedersen, 2015). Similar to

brand equity, there were also competing conceptualizations of the dimensions that affect brand

extensions that have different theoretical groundings. There are many proposed dimensions used

to measure consumer evaluations of brand extensions. Some traditional dimensions include

perceived fit of a brand extension, the quality or equity of the parent brand, or the difficulty of

making the extension for a consumer good. Others include the relative innovativeness of the

extension, brand size, authenticity, and preexisting attitudes and associations about the parent

brand (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Bhat & Reddy, 2001). Perceived fit and quality of the parent brand

in particular have traditionally been used as components of brand extension evaluation (Buil, de

Chernatony, & Hem, 2009; Martínez, Montaner, & Pina, 2009; Spiggle et al., 2012). For the

most part, researchers have used these components to evaluate consumer attitudes toward brand

extensions by using hypothetical extensions or fictitious brands (Aaker & Keller, 1990;

Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994; Chun, Park, Eisingerich, & MacInnis, 2015; Dacin & Smith, 1994;

Yorkston, Nunes, & Matta, 2010). Traditional dimensions of extension evaluation (perceived fit,

perceived parent brand quality) also have different theoretical groundings. Congruity theory (Rosch, 1975), for example, supported the importance of perceived fit's influence on brand extension evaluation. Alternatively, perceived fit can be conceptualized as extension category fit, or extension brand image fit (Bhat & Reddy, 2001).

These variations in brand extensions conceptualizations may indicate that dimensions of brand extensions also vary based on industry or cultural identity (Ahn, Park, & Hyun, 2018; Correia Loureiro, 2013; Liu, Foscht, Eisingerich, & Tsai, 2018; Prados-Peña & del Barrio-García, 2018), or unique parent brand associations (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Bhat & Reddy, 2001; Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994). For instance, other dimensions such as innovativeness and authenticity have been proposed as having a significant impact on brand extension evaluation (Chun et al., 2015; Spiggle et al., 2012). Whereas categorization theory supports the importance of perceived fit, other theories such as schema incongruity theory (Meyers-Levy, Louis, & Curren, 1994) would contend that extensions are more successful when they deviate from the parent brand. In terms of cultural identity, per social identity theory the knowledge that one belongs to a group relates to overall self-concept and behavior (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Social identification is also considered to influence brand equity (Boyle & Magnusson, 2007; Underwood, Bond, & Baer, 2001; Wang & Tang, 2018; Watkins, 2014), and therefore, may be another variable that influences extension evaluation.

Brand extension research evolved from considering the effect of a brand extension on the parent brand or extended brand, to considering the impact on both the parent brand, extension brand, and how the parent and extension brand interact to affect brand extension success (Keller & Lehmann, 2006; Loken & John, 1993; Sood & Keller, 2012). Extended brands are also sometimes referred to as child brands or sub-brands. Sport brand extension research has also

grown and conceptualized brand extensions in different ways. Apostolopoulou (2002a) was one of the earliest brand extension researchers in sport management literature. Similar to findings of brand extension research from other disciplines, parent brand strength, and perceived fit have consistently been noted as important dimensions of brand extension evaluation in sports (Apostolopoulou, 2002a; Walsh & Ross, 2010). Also like general business and marketing literature, early sport management research on brand extensions focused on consumer evaluation of the extension rather than the impact on the parent brand (Walsh & Ross, 2010). Since then, sport brand extension research has diversified and considered the impact of brand extensions on the parent brand (Walsh et al., 2015), and examined dimensions of brand extensions in different sport contexts (Close & Lacey, 2013; Pfahl, Kreutzer, Maleski, Lillibridge, & Ryznar, 2012; Walsh & Lee, 2012; Walsh & Williams, 2017). However, the research focus on parent brand or sub-brand equity was also driven by the nature of the extension. For example, if the goal of an extension is to bring in new consumers, who are drawn to the extension brand more than the parent brand, then researchers and brand managers would likely be more concerned with the sub-brand's equity.

While the evolution of brand extension research in sport management and in other disciplines has increased overall knowledge, it has also shown that dimensions of evaluating brand extension success (from both the parent brand or sub-brand perspective) are different depending on context. The generalizability of any brand extension research may therefore be limited (Völckner & Sattler, 2006). Thus, new brand extensions, in new contexts, require new research. Furthermore, the proliferation of brand extension research suggests that even traditional elements of brand extension evaluation, such as perceived fit and parent brand strength, fluctuate in their significance. In certain cases, fit and perceived parent brand strength might not matter as

much as other factors such as parent brand size (Dall'Olmo Riley, Hand, & Guido, 2014) or

innovativeness of an extension (Chun et al., 2015). The dimensions of brand extension

evaluation should be empirically tested for new brand extensions in sport, or under researched

brand extensions in sport. Additionally, the outcomes of extensions should be considered in

evaluating an extension's viability as a branding strategy.

Statement of the Problem

Having a strong brand equity is essential for sport teams that offer a service to

consumers, and this is also true of brand equity for extension brands. An extension brand must be

well received to obtain a strong brand equity, to be profitable, and to potentially improve parent

brand equity. Extension attitudes/evaluations are related to outcomes such as purchase intentions

or willingness to recommend (Spiggle et al., 2012). While the growth in branding research in

sport has improved the overall knowledge in the body of literature, it has also introduced some

confusion. For example, categorization theory is often referenced in brand extension literature as

an explanation for how people evaluate a brand extension's success. Per categorization theory,

when people encounter some new entity, they process the new information by placing the new

entity into a group with something similar (Rosch, 1975). Therefore, if a brand extension has a

high perceived fit, then it is categorized as similar to the parent brand and therefore able to

benefit from association with the parent brand. Along with perceived fit, the strength of the

parent brand is usually seen as a consistent predictor of how people evaluate a brand extension

(Buil et al., 2009; Martínez et al., 2009; Spiggle et al., 2012). Strength can be understood as the

perceived quality or overall consumer attitude towards a brand in relation to others (Aaker &

Keller, 1990). However, due to the similarity of parent brand strength and brand equity, it is

unclear whether strength is an antecedent or an outcome of brand extensions, or if the strength of

existing parent brand associations can influence extension evaluations which then impact brand equity (Chun et al., 2015).

Other researchers sometimes question the importance of fit and strength, or have suggested that alternative factors such as innovativeness may be more important than fit or parent brand strength (Chun et al., 2015). Per schema incongruity theory, extensions that have a moderately incongruous fit with the parent brand may have more favorable consumer evaluations than highly congruous extensions (Meyers-Levy et al., 1994). An innovative extension may therefore not have a strong fit with the parent brand but may nevertheless be successful. Schema incongruity theory and categorization theory appear to provide different explanations for how people will evaluate brand extensions. Authenticity is another factor that may have a greater impact of extension evaluation that perceived fit (Spiggle et al., 2012). In terms of consumer attitudes towards an extension it may be more important that an extension is authentic in that it sustains the uniqueness, values, and essence of the parent brand (Spiggle et al., 2012). There are various other conceptualizations of brand equity and the dimensions that effect extension evaluation. Researchers have suggested that parent brand size is more important than strength at determining the effectiveness of a brand extension (Dall'Olmo Riley et al., 2014). The argument that brand size is important can be explained by the marketing Law of Double Jeopardy (Ehrenberg, 1988; McPhee, 1963). Applied to brand extensions, Double Jeopardy submits that larger brands, with more consumers, should enjoy greater perceived fit of a brand extension (Dall'Olmo Riley et al., 2014). Furthermore, the predictors of sport brand extension evaluation in some cases remain consistent with other industries regardless of the given market or characteristics unique to sport (Baker, McDonald, & Funk, 2016). In other cases, market

characteristics appear to matter, and alternative dimensions of brand extensions contradict traditional ones (Chun et al., 2015; Dall'Olmo Riley et al., 2014; Spiggle et al., 2012).

Differences between groups of individuals are another possible factor in how individuals evaluate brand extensions. Brand extension research usually considers how all consumers evaluation of a brand extension effects on the parent and/or sub-brand. However, most do not consider that the extension and sub-brand may have distinct target audiences. If a firm uses a brand extension to integrate new demographic groups into their consumer base, then the extension evaluations of groups within the target demographic should be considered. Furthermore, because differences in level of group identification can explain different attitudes and motives, individuals may evaluate brand extensions differently based on level of identification with a group in terms of how they asses the parent and sub-brand after encountering the new brand extension (Trail & James, 2015). Additional empirical evidence could increase knowledge about how identification with a group may influence extension evaluation and consumer-based brand equity. Understanding the influence of identities on extension evaluation is important because extension evaluations relate to extension outcomes (e.g., brand equity of the parent brand or sub-brand) which in turn influence consumer intentions (Kunkel et al., 2017; Spiggle et al., 2012).

Research on brand extensions is lacking in some areas of sport, such as esport. Esport is a rapidly growing and under researched area of the sport industry and could provide an opportunity to examine brand extensions in new ways. Examining a brand extension in this context would provide a clean slate for research to investigate variables that effect extension evaluation, and the effect of extension evaluations on brand equity and consumer behavior outcomes. Due to the lack of esport brand extension research, empirical data could reveal if traditional dimensions that

predict extension evaluation are applicable to sport, and esport in particular. Currently, there is

no sport brand extension study that endeavors to address the conflicting theories and frameworks

regarding the variables that most significantly relate to brand extension evaluation and the effect

of extension evaluation on outcomes.

Purpose Statement

My objective with this research was to determine what factors most strongly affect brand

extension evaluation. My objective was to also examine the effects of brand extension

evaluations on extension brand equity and consumer behavior intentions, which requires

conceptualizing and measuring brand extension evaluation, brand equity, and behavioral

intentions. There are various ways to conceptualize brand equity and brand extension evaluation

based on past research and different theoretical perspectives. The importance of different

dimensions of brand extensions or brand equity also vary by context. Based on these

discrepancies, and the lack of esport branding research, there is a theoretical and pragmatic need

to determine which factors are most significantly related to brand extension evaluation, and the

outcomes associated with extension evaluations. The purpose of this study was to understand the

influence of various factors on evaluation of an esport brand extension, and how extension

evaluation and identification influence consumer-based extension brand equity as determined by

associations with the extension brand. A conceptual model (Figure 3.1) was proposed to depict

relationships between factors that determine brand extension evaluation, and in turn, the

relationship between extension evaluation and extension brand equity, which is moderated by

identification with the parent brand and sport. Due to the lack of esport brand extension research

and differing conceptualizations of brand extension evaluations, there is a need to create and test

new models to assist with esport brand management. The following questions guided this

research.

       RQ_1: How do traditional factors (i.e., Perceived Quality, Image Fit, and Categorical Fit)

       and alternative variables (i.e., Innovativeness and Authenticity) influence on respondents'

       evaluation of the extension brand?

       RQ_2: What is the nature of the relationship between extension evaluation and extension

       brand equity?

       RQ_3: What is the influence of identification with the team (parent brand) and

       identification with the sport (basketball) on extension brand equity, and does

       identification with the team and/or sport moderate the relationship between extension

       evaluation and extension brand equity?

Significance of the Study

       Esports are a growing segment within the sport industry. Traditional sports leagues like

the NBA are already working to establish a foothold in esport via esport teams that act as brand

extensions of existing NBA franchises. This study contributes to the limited research on esport

and provide valuable information for brand managers. NBA teams, and other sport entities, can

use the findings of this research to predict how potential consumers will evaluate a traditional

sport franchise's extension into esport. This information could help brand managers determine

the viability of an esport brand extension as a tool to expand their consumer base, improve brand

equity and to lead to desirable consumer behavior intentions.

       This study also makes significant theoretical contributions. There are many theoretical

perspectives that have been shown to successfully predict brand extension evaluations. Similarly,

there are differences in how brand extensions and brand equity are conceptualized in sport and

other industries. How traditional and alternative variables influence extension evaluation (RQ1) will have implications for the different theories (e.g., categorization theory and schema incongruity theory) that pertain to which variables should have the greatest influence. This research assessed which theoretical explanations for the variables that determine extension evaluation are most apt for an esport brand extension.

Organization of this Document

In Chapter 1, I have introduced the topics that the remainder of this dissertation will address. In Chapter 2, I provide a review of literature. This review contains an overview of brand equity research in sport and general marketing literature. This chapter identifies the various dimensions that influence consumer-based brand equity including identification. Later in the review of literature, I present the topic of brand extension and address types of brand extensions, how it relates to brand management, and how researchers have operationalized dimensions of brand equity. I include studies that show how dimensions of brand extension evaluation, and their relative importance, vary across brand extension literature. In Chapter 3, I discuss my research methods. In this section I describe how I collected and analyzed my data. Results are presented in Chapter 4 and discussed in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Conceptualizing Brand Equity

Conceptually, brand equity is the value of a brand (Keller, 1993). While brand equity may be simple to understand conceptually, identifying and measuring the components of brand equity is an ongoing area of research. Furthermore, the value that a brand provides to an organization can be considered in two ways. One conceptualization of brand equity is financial-

based. Financial-based brand equity asserts that a brands value, or equity, is reflected by organizations financial assets (Biel, 1992; Farquhar, 1989; Fetscherin, 2010; Keller & Lehmann, 2006). The other fundamental conceptualization of brand equity is consumer-based. With consumer-based brand equity, the value of a brand is reflected in how consumers evaluate the brand (Aaker, 1991, 1996; Hakala, Svensson, & Vincze, 2012). Based on these two approaches to conceptualizing brand equity, a more comprehensive definition of brand equity is that the financial value of a brand, or the value that consumers ascribe to a brand name in their minds (Barwise, 1993). Whether using a financial-based or consumer-based conceptualization, brand equity is fluid, and is the result of a how a brand is managed. However, the consumer-based concept of brand equity has been employed in marketing and sport research (Delia, 2015; Keller, 1993). A consumer-based approach recognizes that a brand's power relies on how consumers view and evaluate a brand (Gladden & Funk, 2001; Keller, 1993; Kotler & Keller, 2006). Understanding the components of consumer-based brand equity is extremely valuable for brand managers, as the brand equity that results from their branding strategies will impact consumer attitudes about the brand and consumer behaviors (Delia, 2015).

Research on the components or factors that impact brand equity has grown in recent decades. However, research by Keller (1993) and Aaker (1996) serve as foundations for understanding consumer-based brand equity. Keller (1993) asserted that brand equity is based on an individual's knowledge about a brand, which is comprised of brand awareness and brand image (a set of brand associations). The first component of brand knowledge according to Keller (1993) is awareness. Brand awareness is determined by an individual's ability to recognize and recall a brand when given a brand cue. The second component of Keller's (1990; 1993) brand equity model is brand image, which is sometimes referred to as brand associations (Walsh,

2008). Individuals can have many types of associations about a brand that vary in their favorability, strength, and uniqueness. The types of brand associations include product attributes (product-related, non-product related), benefits (functional, experiential, symbolic), and overall attitudes about the brand (Keller, 1993). The brand image is the result of these various brand associations and represents that thoughts or feelings that an individual has about a given brand. The brand knowledge that results from the brand image and brand awareness thus determines brand equity.

Aaker (1996) offered another framework for understanding consumer-based brand equity that has similarities to Keller (1993), but also differences. Whereas Keller (1993) identified two factors of brand equity (awareness and image), Aaker (1996) proposed four factors that either add to or subtract from consumer's evaluation of the value, or equity, provided by a brand: (a) brand awareness, (b) brand associations, (c) perceived quality, (d) brand loyalty. The first component of Aaker's (1996) model is awareness. The strength of brand awareness in an individual's memory is evidenced by the ability recall a brand. Awareness can also be demonstrated by an individual's ability to recognize a brand that they have already been exposed to. Brand awareness can be measured by providing individuals with brand cues, such as a list of brands, and ask them to identify brands they recognize. Another approach is to present individuals with a product or service category and ask them to list as many relevant brands as they can recall. The next factor of brand equity according to Aaker (1996) are brand associations. Similar to Keller (1993), brand associations are the result of consumers' thoughts about a brand's identity. The brand identity is defined by these consumer thoughts. Furthermore, there can be multiple types of brand associations that impact a brand's identity. Associations may be related to the organization's product/service, the organization itself, or brand personality and

trademarks. Aaker's (1996) third component of brand equity is the perceived quality of an organization's product/service offered. How individuals evaluate the quality (or lack of) a good/service can influence other elements of brand equity, such as associations (Aaker, 1996). Finally, brand loyalty is one of Aaker's (1996) components of brand equity. Brand loyalty is the likelihood that an individual will consistently choose one organization's good/service over competitors based on past consumption and the organization's brand. Brand loyalty in consumers can range from noncustomers (do not purchase the good/service or purchase from a competitor) to committed consumers, who are consistently loyal to a specific brand (Aaker, 1996).

Although both Aaker (1996) and Keller (1993) are widely cited in branding related research, the last two components (perceived quality, brand loyalty) of brand equity according to Aaker highlight some fundamental differences. Whereas Aaker (1996) included perceived quality as a dimension of brand equity, Keller (1993) accounted for perceived quality via his brand image dimension of brand knowledge. Perhaps a larger distinction between the two models is that Aaker (1996) positioned brand loyalty as a dimension of brand equity, whereas Keller (1993) argued that brand loyalty is an outcome of brand equity. Subsequent research on the dimensions of brand equity has adapted elements from Aaker (1996) and Keller (1993), and made adjustments to measuring brand equity based on industry and consumer contexts.

One potential limitation of Aaker's (1996) and Keller (1993) models is that they considered to components of brand equity for packaged consumer goods. Although packaged goods are still concerned with consumer-based brand equity, the dimensions of brand equity are likely to be different in other service-based industries, where a tangible packaged good is not the primary product. Berry (2000) was among the first researchers to consider consumer-based brand equity for brands in service industries. According to Berry, consumer experiences with service

brands has a significant influence on brand equity in the minds of consumers. Berry (2000)

examined the branding strategy of 14 well established, high performing service brands.

According to Berry (2000), the components of brand equity for a service brand include: the

company's presented brand, brand awareness, external brand communications, brand meaning,

and customer experience with the company. Berry's (2000) model is similar to the Keller (1993)

in that brand awareness and brand meaning shape consumers' evaluation of a company's brand

equity. In this case, brand meaning is analogous to brand associations, because they refer to the

dominant perceptions that come to mind when a consumer considers an organization's brand.

However, Berry (2000) added antecedents to brand awareness and brand meaning that have to do

with consumers interactions and experience with the brand. For instance, consumer awareness is

influenced by how the company presents the brand. However, consumers also encounter external

brand communications, which are often uncontrolled by the organization (e.g., word of mouth,

publicity), that influence both brand awareness and meaning. How a company presents their

brand can influence brand meaning, so Berry (2000) suggested that customer experience with a

brand directly impacts brand meaning. For example, a service brand may present their service

brand as being customer friendly and affordable. However, if a customer's experience with the

brand's service is perceived as unfriendly and overpriced, then the brand meaning will suffer

despite how the brand is presented. Therefore, Berry (2000) argued that customer experience

with a brand is the primary influence of brand meaning. Berry's (2000) consumer-based brand

equity research is thus based on Keller's (1993) conceptualization of brand equity, but the

components are different given the context of a different industry and type of organization.

Berry (2000) is not alone in offering alternative conceptualizations of brand equity. Other

researchers have suggested offered their own conceptualizations of the components of brand

equity and debated whether those components are antecedents or outcomes of brand equity. For

example, the tourism industry has created adaptations of Aaker's and Keller's consumer-based

brand equity models. In particular, destination marketing literature has considered various

components of consumer-based brand equity relevant to that industry. Konecik and Gartner

(2007) used Aaker's (1991, 1996) dimensions of brand equity (awareness, image, quality,

loyalty). Subsequent research has adapted the dimensions of brand equity. For instance, Pike

(2010) used the same dimensions as Konecik and Gartner (2007) but substituted brand salience

for brand awareness. A model by Bianchi, Pike, and Lings (2014) examined brand loyalty, brand

salience, brand association, brand quality, and brand value in a conceptual model. Other

industries have also adapted the dimensions of consumer-based brand equity to better fit brands

in their profession. Internet banking (Correia Loureiro, 2013), luxury products (Ahn et al., 2018),

and environmentally friendly products (Grubor, Djokic, & Milovanov, 2017) are just some of the

industries where the dimensions of brand equity have been considered contextually.

Brand Equity in Sport

Just as brand equity, and its potentially unique components, has been considered in other

fields, sport management researchers have also studied brand equity. The sport industry is

diverse, ranging from youth sports, to adult recreational softball leagues, to top-tier professional

sports. In most contexts within the sport industry however, sport is a consumer driven industry

that offers an intangible service rather than a packaged good. Certainly, there are tangible sport

products such as apparel and equipment, but these products are still affiliated with a team or

company brand that imparts some value or meaning to the product. Consequently, sport

managers recognize the importance of branding and having a strong brand equity. This is

particularly important in professional sports, where team's primary good is an intangible, finite,

time sensitive service. A consumer-based brand equity approach is appropriate for understanding

brand equity in sport, because the brand value of professional sports team is determined by

various stakeholders.

Gladden et al. (1998) provided the first brand equity framework, focusing on identifying

the antecedents and consequences of brand equity in Division I collegiate athletics. Gladden et

al. (1998) used Aaker's (1991, 1996) dimensions of brand equity (perceived quality, brand

awareness, brand associations, brand loyalty) as the template for their conceptual framework.

Each antecedent related to one or more of the brand equity dimensions. In total, there are 10

antecedents of brand equity, each of which may be either market related, team related, or

organization/university related. The model recognized that sport may have unique antecedents of

brand equity, which are often beyond the brand managers control. For example, Gladden et al.

(1998) included success — the on field performance of the team, which is not controllable by

practitioners — as one of their team related antecedents to each of the four dimensions of brand

equity. This initial conceptual framework of brand equity in sport was a significant step;

however, the authors also recognized the need for future research to examine the antecedents,

consequences, and dimensions of brand equity, and to create a more generalizable model

(Gladden et al., 1998).

Gladden and Milne (1999) attempted to build upon the first model to create a conceptual

model of brand equity that would be applicable to all team sports. However, in order to do this,

the authors used a financial-based, rather than consumer-based approach to operationalize brand

equity. In later research, Gladden and Funk (2002) returned to a consumer-based approach to

conceptualizing brand equity, more in alignment with Aaker (1991) and Keller (1993). As the

authors note, the return to a consumer-based approach was appropriate as professional sport

teams gain brand equity through the added meaning that consumers attach to the brand elements

of the team (Gladden & Funk, 2002; Gladden & Milne, 1999). Gladden and Funk (2002) derived

their understanding of brand equity from Keller (1993) in that brand equity is the result of

awareness and associations. Gladden and Funk (2002) identified 16 dimensions of sport brand

associations, which were categorized as attributes (success, head coach, star player, management,

stadium, logo design, product delivery, tradition), benefits (identification, nostalgia, pride in

place, escape, peer group acceptance), and attitude (importance, knowledge, affect). After

distributing surveys and analyzing respondent data using confirmatory factor analysis, Gladden

and Funk (2002) determined that their scale, named the Team Association Model (TAM), was

reliable to identify brand associations in team sports.

Following Gladden and Funk (2002), Ross et al. (2006) produced the their own

conceptual understanding of brand equity in sport. Just as Gladden and Funk (2002) created the

TAM, Ross et al. (2006) created the Team Brand Association Scale (TBAS). The research by

Ross et al. (2006) was similar to that by Gladden and Funk (2002) in that both conceptualized

brand equity as the result of brand awareness and brand associations Keller (1993). Furthermore,

both the TAM and TBAS focused on identifying and measuring brand associations in sport,

while largely ignoring brand awareness. Despite these similarities, there are differences between

the TAM and TBAS. For instance, while the TBAS is grounded in work by Aaker (1991, 1996)

and Keller (1993), it considers sport as a service as opposed to a consumer good, and thus

imagines brand equity similar to Berry (2000). This appears to be related to one of the limitations

of the TAM that Ross et al. (2006) noted. The authors alleged that the wording of some items in

the TAM, such as those that mentioned attendance, are more related to consumer motives than

brand associations. Ross et al. (2006) also noted that some brand association scales, such as the

TAM, are based on scales developed for understanding brand equity of firms that produce

tangible products rather those that produce an intangible service like sport. The most significant

limitation of the TAM, and other brand association scales, according to Ross et al. (2006), was

that the associations were generated by the researchers rather that the consumers' thoughts. The

authors gathered consumers thoughts via a free-thought listing technique that asked 40

respondents to list the first things that came to mind regarding their favorite professional sport

team. The initial TBAS scale was derived from these lists, and then administered to 395

undergraduate students via a survey. Exploratory factor analysis resulted in 11 dimensions of

associations: (a) Non-player Personnel; (b) Team Success; (c) Team History; (d) Stadium

Community; (e) Team Play Characteristics; (f) Brand Mark; (g) Organizational Attributes; (h)

Concessions; (i) Social Interaction; (j) Rivalry; (k) Commitment. The scale underwent another

round of survey distribution followed by a confirmatory factor analysis to confirm the reliability

of the scale (Ross et al., 2006). Since its creation, the TBAS has gone one to be applied to

different areas within sport and adapted (Ross, Hyejin, & Seungum, 2007; Walsh & Lee, 2012;

Walsh & Ross, 2010).

Gladden and Funk (2001) created another notable scale to conceptualize and measure

sport brand equity. The authors proposed a team association scale (TAS) and found that seven

out of 13 brand associations predicted fan loyalty. The 13 brand associations in the TAS were

categorized as attributes (8) and benefits (5). Attributes included: Success, Star Player, Head

Coach, Management, Logo Design, Stadium, Product Delivery and Tradition. Benefits included:

Escape, Fan Identification, Peer Group Acceptance, Nostalgia and Pride in Place. Over the years

the TAS has been developed and applied to various sport contexts such as German soccer (Bauer

et al., 2008) and Australian football (Doyle, Filo, McDonald, & Funk, 2013). In some cases the

number of significant brand associations varied depending on the sport brand being studied

(Funk & James, 2006). Regarding esport, some of the TAS elements such as stadium or tradition

may not be applicable. Nevertheless, the adaptability of the TAS has made it the most widely

used scale (Doyle et al., 2013). In addition to the variety of potential associations in the TAS, it

has also been shown to influence brand loyalty, consumer behaviors, and behavioral intention

(Bauer et al., 2008; Biscaia, Correia, Ross, Rosado, & Maroco, 2013; Doyle et al., 2013; Kunkel

et al., 2017). Another advantage of the TAS, due to it being a well-established and adaptable

scale, is the potential to use single-item measures. Kunkel et al. (2017) used single-item

constructs based on the TAS since they had been used and in previous studies (Kunkel, Doyle, &

Funk, 2014; Kunkel, Doyle, Funk, Du, & McDonald, 2016). Additionally, when measuring a

multifaceted concept such as brand equity using the TAS, a single-item approach can mitigate

respondent fatigue from completing lengthy and repetitive surveys (Bergkvist & Rossiter, 2007).

  The development of brand association scales by Ross et al. (2006), Gladden and Funk

(2002) and Gladden and Funk (2001) all represent significant developments in understanding

brand associations in sport. While associations may arguably be the most important dimension of

sport brand equity, awareness is also a component of brand equity per Keller (1993).

Consequently, Ross et al. (2008) created the Spectator-Based Brand Equity (SBBE) model of

brand equity based on sport consumers (spectators) levels of brand awareness and types of brand

associations. To test the SBBE model, Ross et al. (2008) mailed a survey to consumers (season

ticket holders) of a National Basketball Association (NBA) team, that yielded 585 usable

surveys. The survey used the TBAS to measure the brand associations element of the SSBE

model. The measure for brand awareness was based on the premise that psychological

commitment (attitudes) is connected to the ability to recognize and recall objects and brands

(Alba & Hutchinson, 1987; Fazio, Williams, & Powell, 2000; Keller, 1993). In other words, the stronger an individual's attitudes about a brand are, the more likely they will be able to recognize and recall that brand. Furthermore, the stronger a psychological commitment to a brand (or a team) is, the more it mediates the ability recognize and recall that brand (Funk & James, 2001). The SSBE model therefore used eight items measuring psychological connection to the team to represent brand awareness. Four of the eight items asked about the extent that an individual identified with the team, while the other four brand awareness items asked about the extent that an individual had internalized the team identity and incorporated it with their own identity. After conducting a confirmatory factor analysis on the SBBE model, Ross et al. (2008) validated the significance of the model and the relationship between the 11 constructs related to brand associations (from the TBAS), and the two constructs related to brand awareness. The findings from Ross et al. (2008) regarding the SBBE model suggested that awareness and associations are essential to understanding sport brand equity. However, the significance of the two factors (identification and internalization) used to comprise the brand awareness construct could be due to the sample consisting of season ticket holders. Future research could study the importance of awareness on consumer perception of brand equity by comparing groups with high identification and internalization to groups with lower levels.

The SBBE model has also strengthened the argument that sport brand equity must be considered as a consumer-based service rather than a tangible good. The original SBBE model did not test the model's ability to predict desirable consumer outcomes that can result from perception of brand equity such as consumer satisfaction and future behavior (Beccarini & Ferrand, 2006; Yoo & Donthu, 2002). Thus, Biscaia et al. (2013) adapted the original SBBE model to measure brand equity in the European professional soccer context and added the new

satisfaction and behavioral intentions constructs to the model. The ability of the adapted SSBE

model to measure the brand equity construct was validated via confirmatory factor analysis.

Additionally, the hypothesized predictive relationships were validated. Brand associations and

internalization (the authors combined identification and internalization into one construct to

represent brand awareness) were found to have significant predictive relationships to both

satisfaction and future behavior intentions.

        Although Biscaia et al. (2013) utilized the SBBE model, they also made adaptations that

were validated, and noted differences in significance of brand associations from the original

SSBE model. For instance, social interaction and concessions were significant predictors of

brand associations, which was not the case with the original SBBE model (Biscaia et al., 2013;

Ross et al., 2008). Their findings therefore suggest that brand equity measurement is

environmentally sensitive (Yoo & Donthu, 2002). Biscaia et al. (2013) also proposed that for

sports teams that already receive extensive media coverage, awareness may not me as significant

a predictor of brand equity (Bauer et al., 2008). This was evidenced by the relationship between

internalization (psychological connection to the team) and brand associations. However, as

Biscaia et al. (2013) noted, European professional soccer teams tend to enjoy high levels of

brand awareness, meaning many people already have internalized ideas about the team/brand.

Just as the awareness measurement (using identification and internalization) method by Ross et

al. (2008) may have been affected by only surveying season ticket holders, measurement of

awareness (internalization) by Biscaia et al. (2013) may have been affected by studying teams

with high awareness.

        These variations in measuring brand awareness reflects the existence of both trends and

variations in how brand equity is conceptualized in sport. The bulk of brand equity research in

sport thus far is similar in a shared consumer-based conceptualization of brand equity as proposed by Aaker (1996) and Keller (1993). Research is also trending towards a consensus acknowledging that sport is a service rather than a tangible service good (Mills & Williams, 2016). At the same time, most of the research since early work by Gladden et al. (1998) has employed some variation of Keller's (1993) conceptualization of brand equity (brand awareness, brand associations) rather than the four proposed by Aaker (1996): (1) brand awareness, (2) brand associations, (3) perceived quality, (4) brand loyalty. Perceived quality, and brand loyalty are two of the brand equity dimensions proposed by Aaker (1996) that do not appear as often in sport brand equity research. One exception to this is a study by Kerr and Gladden (2008) that proposed antecedents and consequences of brand equity for satellite fans using Aaker's four dimensions. Satellite fans are consumers/spectators of a sport team despite living in a separate geographic location (Kerr & Gladden, 2008). The antecedents of brand equity were the same is pervious work (Gladden et al., 1998); but the consequences of brand equity were modified to accommodate potential brand equity benefits associated with brand equity according to satellite fans. The consequences of satellite fan brand equity included: international media exposure, merchandise sales, ticket sales, global corporate sponsors, and additional revenues. Although the paper by Kerr and Gladden (2008) is conceptual, it shows that there is still some debate among sport researchers as to which dimensions of brand equity are appropriate to sport. As with other research, the article also suggests that dimensions, antecedents, and outcomes of brand equity are sensitive to context within sport.

Nevertheless, Kerr and Gladden (2008) may still represent an outlier, as many sport brand equity studies tend to resemble Keller (1993) over Aaker (1996) in terms of brand equity conceptualization. The Brand Equity in Team Sport (BETS) scale developed by Bauer, Sauer,

and Schmitt (2005) is another indication of this. The authors used brand awareness, product-related attributes, non-product-related attributes, and brand benefits to represent brand equity. The BETS indicated the importance of brand awareness in determining brand equity (Bauer et al., 2005). This is noteworthy because other Keller (1993) based conceptualizations of sport brand equity seem to somewhat downplay the role of awareness. However, a shortcoming of the BETS is that it did not consider consumer experiences with the brand, which is an important factor for a service product (Berry, 2000).

A later work by Bauer et al. (2008) is also based on Keller (1993), but found differences in the relationships between brand image components that was distinct from Keller's brand equity conceptualization. The authors adapted items from the TAM from Gladden and Funk (2002) and the Psychological Commitment to Team (PCT) scale (Kwon & Trail, 2003; Mahony, Madrigal, & Howard, 2000) in order to test the relationships between brand associations, and to examine the relationship between brand associations an brand loyalty. Although Keller (1993) and others point out that the categories of brand associations (benefits, attitudes, brand attributes) are not independent of each other, the relationships between the associations is not often studied. Bauer et al. (2008) hypothesized a causal chain whereby brand attributes (product, and non-product) relate to perception of benefits, which then relates to attitudes, which results in level of psychological to the team. Finally, the higher psychological commitment to the team, the greater the level of fan loyalty, which is an outcome of brand equity. In order to test their hypothesized relationships, Bauer et al. (2008) collected 1,298 usable surveys from fans of German soccer teams. The survey measured the various attributes that comprise brand image, and measured fan brand loyalty (attitudinal loyalty, and behavioral loyalty). A confirmatory factor analysis tested and confirmed all of the hypnotized hierarchical relationships between brand associations, and

the relationship between brand image and behavioral and attitudinal (psychological commitment to the team) loyalty. Although Keller (1993) recognized that there were relationships between types of brand associations, these findings are significant because they showed that not only should those relationships be assumed, but they appear to be positively and hierarchically organized (Bauer et al., 2008). The results also showed that non-product related brand attributes (i.e., logo, tradition) are more highly related to brand attitudes that product-related brand attributes (i.e., success, head coach, star player). This relationship is consistent with other research on brand associations in team sport, and is due to the long standing team histories of teams, and the long standing relationships that fans tend to have with teams (Bauer et al., 2008). However, this is not always the case in team sports. Franchises can relocate, or leagues can create expansion teams that have no established non-product brand attributes or established fanbase. The significance of brand attributes (product, and non-product), attitudes, and benefits and their relationship to brand associations could be different in the context of a new team or a different area of professional sport. Consequently, a Keller (1993) based conceptualization of brand equity, which focuses on associations to represent equity, are more common in sport. In particular, the TAS model has emerged as a common tool for measuring brand equity in sport based on its association-based conceptualization of brand equity, and its adaptability to different sport contexts.

        Role of identification in brand equity. Recently, another approach to understanding brand equity has gained some attention by sport researchers. The Social Identity Brand Equity (SIBE) model was developed by Underwood et al. (2001) and emphasized the role that types of social identification have in the creation of consumer-based brand equity. Essentially, the more that people identify with an organization (and the more ways they identify) the greater the

likelihood they will have a positive perception of an organization's brand equity. The SIBE (Figure 2.1) is still rooted in traditional consumer-based brand equity in that it recognizes that brand equity results from brand awareness and unique brand associations (Keller, 1993). The SIBE is distinct in its emphasis on the impact of social identification on brand equity, and that certain market characteristics, that act as antecedents of social identification, can be manipulated by brand managers to impact consumer-based brand equity for a service brand (i.e., sport). Social identification is the knowledge that one belongs to a certain group and the important emotional connections that come with belonging to that group (Tajfel, 1982). According to Underwood et al. (2001) the social identification that comes with belonging to a group is the point at which consumer can connect to a sport brand, and then develop brand equity. The SIBE model identified four marketplace characteristics that lead to social identification in sport: (1) group experience, (2) venue, (3) history and tradition, (4) ritual (Underwood et al., 2001). Therefore, while the SIBE model may be based in the same consumer-based brand equity sources as other sport brand equity research, it places a greater emphasis on how fans/consumers identify themselves. Just as components of brand equity may vary by industry (i.e., sport), and by context within an industry (i.e., professional sport, collegiate sport, recreational sport), it can also vary by how groups of individuals identify themselves.
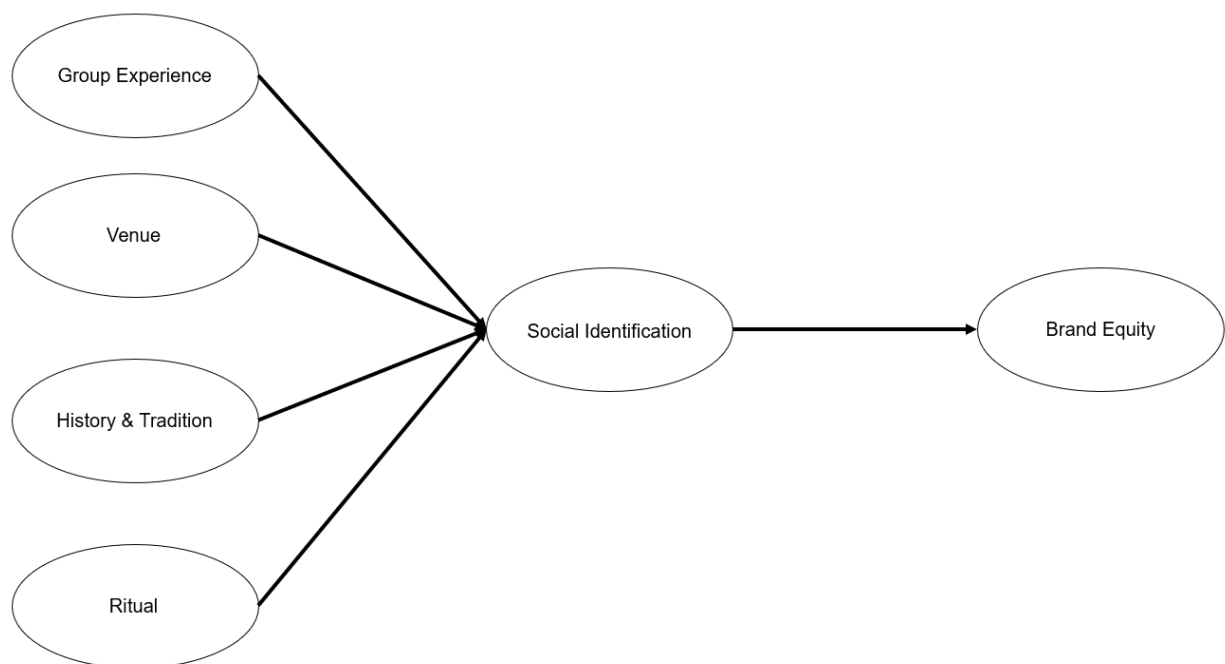
Figure 2.1. Original SIBE Model.

Boyle and Magnusson (2007) were among the first to assess the SIBE in sport. The study

used students and alumni of a university, and the general public, as their three social

identification groups. Underwood et al. (2001) also split the group experience market

characteristic into two distinct group experiences: salient group identification and community

identification. Salient group identification experiences were defined as the perception that

sporting events serve as a source for social interaction and identification with a social group. The

community group identification was conceptualized as the sport team serving as a symbol for the

community. Using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), the study found that for all three social

identification groups, and for both experience groups, social identification had a significant

impact on brand equity. While Boyle and Magnusson (2007) studied the SIBE in the context of

collegiate sport, Watkins (2014) assessed the SIBE model in the context of professional sport.

Level of fan identification served as the type of social identification in the study. Watkins (2014)

collected 384 surveys from fans of six different NBA franchises. Respondents answered 7-point

Likert scale items regarding the marketplace characteristics of the SIBE. Like Boyle and

Magnusson (2007), Watkins (2014) omitted ritual from the marketplace characteristics due to its

team specificity. Brand equity items were adapted from Aaker (1996). Adapting a brand equity

measure based on Aaker (1996) seems interesting given the SIBE models association with a

Keller (1993) conceptualization of brand equity, and the prevalence of that conceptualization of

brand equity in sport literature. Nevertheless, SEM analysis of survey data supported the SIBE

model in the professional sport context. In particular, group experience and venue were the

marketplace characteristics of the SIBE model that had the greatest impact on social

identification. Thus, brand managers may want to focus on providing a positive consumer

experience, which is aligned with the emphasis of consumer experience by Berry (2000). The

findings also suggested that venues (e.g., stadiums and arenas) are important factors in

determining if people will socially identify as belonging to a group of fans. While the findings by

Watkins (2014) supported the validity of a SIBE approach to brand equity, they only applied to

model to one group of social identity (e.g., fans of NBA teams). Future sport brand equity

research could compare different types of social identification to study the effect of group social

identification on brand equity.

To improve the practicality of the SIBE model, and the ability of social identities to

predict brand equity, there needs to be a greater understanding of which specific identities are

most important in affecting brand equity (Stokburger-Sauer, Ratneshwar, & Sen, 2012;

Stokburger-Sauer & Teichmann, 2014). SIBE research has shown the importance of social

identification, and other research has identified the importance of some forms of identification

such as team identification (Heere et al., 2011). Thusly, Wang and Tang (2018) thus employed a

dual-identification model to better understand how identities affect the development of sport

team brand equity. The first half of their dual-identification model uses SIBE to measure

identification with sport team. Wang and Tang (2018) included community group experience and

salient group experience based on earlier SIBE research (Underwood et al., 2001; Watkins,

2014). Unlike Underwood et al. (2001) and Haugh and Watkins (2016), Wang and Tang (2018)

included ritual as one of the market characteristics in the model. Ritual was included to account

for the diverse nationalities and fan cultures in the study. The sport context for the study was the

Chinese Professional Baseball League (CPBL). The second component of the dual-identification

model showed identification with the sport team brand (as opposed to identification with the

sport team) as the other key factor contributing to sport team brand equity. Identification with the

sport team brand is the result of company-customer identification, which is the deep

psychological connection that organizations desire to have with their consumers. This customer-

company identification is informed by three components: identity similarity, identity

distinctiveness, and identity prestige (Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003). To operationalize the state of

oneness that identification with the sport team brand represents, the authors used three

components in their model: self-congruity, team brand prestige, and team brand distinctiveness.

Wang and Tang (2018) differentiated between identification with the team and identification

with the team brand for several reasons. First, they argued that identification with team (the

SIBE component) has to do with the sport itself, while identification with the sport team brand is

about customer-company identification. Second, identification with the team is about self-esteem

enhancement (Lock & Funk, 2016), while identification with the team brand relates to fulfilling

self-defined needs (Stokburger-Sauer & Teichmann, 2014). Third, identification with the team

deals with fans psychological connection (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Wann & Branscombe, 1993)

to the team, compared to feeling a sense of oneness (Stokburger-Sauer et al., 2012) with the team

brand. Additionally, the inclusion of the identification with team brand component serves to better understand if that form of identification impacts brand equity. To test their hypothesized model, Wang and Tang (2018) collected surveys from 548 CPBL fans of a team in Taiwan. Using SEM, the authors found that both the SIBE derived marketplace characteristics impacted identification with the team. The sport team brand identity related factors (self-congruity, team brand prestige, and team brand distinctiveness) were significantly related to identification with the sport team brand. Furthermore, identification with the team and identification with the team brand were both significantly related to sport team brand equity. The findings are significant because they further validate the important role that self-identification can play in consumer perception of an organization's brand equity. The apparent significance of identification with the sport team brand in the dual-identification model suggested that identification is related to consumer-based sport brand equity in many ways. Interestingly, among the identification with sport team brand components, self-congruity showed the strongest relationship. Self-congruity was the degree to which fans saw the sport team brand as matching their own self-image. However, as discussed below regarding brand extensions, perceived congruency with a brand is not always desirable. Furthermore, when organizations have a diverse target market, some consumers may identify themselves as congruous with the sport brand while others may not. Another surprising finding was that team brand distinctiveness was not significantly related to identification with the sport team brand. This could be attributed to the context of the study. Baseball team brand names in Taiwan include the name of the company that owns the team, which means that the teams can be seen as brand extensions of the owning company and therefore less distinct (Walsh et al., 2015; Wang & Tang, 2018). Nevertheless, the results again indicated the potential influence of identities in on brand equity. While Wang and Tang (2018)

found significant relationships between their two forms of identification, this does not

necessarily imply causality between the forms of identification and brand equity. Furthermore,

there may be unexplored relationships or moderating influences between identification and brand

equity. Finally, as with Watkins (2014) it could be useful to see how different types of fans

identify with the team.

Table 2.1

Dimensions of Brand Equity

Model/Authors	Context	Antecedents	Dimensions of Brand Equity
Keller (1993)	Consumer goods		awareness, image
Aaker (1996)	Consumer goods		awareness, associations, perceived quality, loyalty
Berry (2000)	Services	Of awareness: firm's presented brand, external brand communications. Of meaning: customer experience with company, external brand communications	awareness, meaning
Gladden et al. (1998)	Sport services	Market related, organization related	awareness, associations, perceived quality, loyalty
TAS, Gladden and Funk (2001)	Sport services	Attributes, benefits	associations
TAM, Gladden and Funk (2002)	Sport goods	Attributes, benefits, attitudes	associations
TBAS, Ross et al. (2006)	Sport services	Eleven factors of associations generated by consumers	associations
SBBE, Ross et al. (2008)	Sport services	Eleven factors of associations from TAM, 2 factors of awareness	associations, awareness
SIBE, Underwood et al. (2001), Boyle and Magnusson (2007), Watkins (2014)	Sport services	Group experience, venue, history & tradition, ritual	social identification

Wang and Tang (2018)	Sport services	Identification with sport team: community group experience, salient group experience, team history, venue, fan ritual. Identification with sport team brand: self-congruity, team brand prestige, team brand distinctiveness	Identification with sport team, identification with sport team brand

Brand equity research in sport has grown in importance and frequency in recent years (Table 2.1). Researchers appear to have come to some agreements. For instance, sport brand equity has unique components that should be adapted to specific sport contexts, and sport brand equity should be considered from a consumer-based perspective (Gladden & Funk, 2002; Ross et al., 2008). While there is variation in the dimensions of brand equity according to context in sport, there also theoretical and conceptual differences in the dimensions used to represent brand equity. This review of brand equity research has highlighted many of these conceptual differences such as the types of brand associations, the relationships between associations and other dimensions of brand equity, the role of identification, and the role of consumer experience in understanding brand equity. Each of the studies discussed above have contributed to the body of knowledge about brand equity in sport, but there appears to be a need to understand brand equity in new sport contexts, and to try and improve our understanding about sport brand equity. Advancing sport brand equity knowledge is important for sport practitioners as well, because the ultimate goal of any branding/marketing strategies, such as brand extensions, is to improve brand equity (Ambler & Styles, 1996; Keller & Aaker, 1992). Paradoxically, the success of marketing a product based on its brand over another product not based on its brand will depend on brand equity (Keller, 1993, 2009). Therefore, it would be useful for future sport brand equity research to consider the brand equity outcomes of some of the most common brand development

strategies. Brand extensions have been shown to not only affect parent and sub-brand equity, but also impact consumer behavioral intentions (Agha, Goldman, & Dixon, 2016; Bauer et al., 2008; Kunkel et al., 2017; Spiggle et al., 2012; Walsh et al., 2015). More research is needed to understand how branding strategies, such as extensions, relate to these outcomes (effect on brand equity and consumer behavior intentions).

Brand Extensions

Brand extensions are an established and common branding strategy (Walsh, 2008). A brand extension can be defined as using an established brand name to introduce new products or services (Keller & Aaker, 1992). Typically, this established brand uses a brand extension to introduce a good or service that is in a new product category (Aaker, 1991). An example of a brand extension would be a toothpaste company deciding to introduce a toothbrush product. Although both the toothpaste and toothbrush are hygiene products, the toothbrush is a different product that the toothpaste. There are many examples of brand extensions where the new product may or may not appear similar to the established brand's product. Nevertheless, all brand extensions are alike in that their intention is to transfer the brand equity of the established brand to the brand extension and attract new consumers (Boush & Loken, 1991). Consequently, brand extensions have been evaluated by their effects on brand equity (Martínez et al., 2009; Matarid, Youssef, & Alsoud, 2014; Sheinin & Schmitt, 1994). Brand extensions seek to maximize these brand equity gains by, ideally, transferring the established brand's associations to a new product or service through the brand extension; implying that the established brand has desirable qualities that will transfer to and benefit the new product or service, which in turn will benefit the parent brand. A successful brand extension therefore leverages the established brand to achieve beneficial brand equity outcomes. There are also potential practical benefits to using brand

extensions as a branding strategy. Brand extensions can be cost effective, as the cost of

introducing an entirely new brand/product may start at $50 million (Pitta & Katsanis, 1995).

Furthermore, brand extensions can reduce risk, as the success rate for new products is below

50%, and the failure rate may be as high as 80% (Clancy & Shulman, 1991; Taylor & Bearden,

2003). Due to common use of brand extensions, their relationship to brand equity (of the parent

brand and sub-brand), and their potential financial advantages, it is important to understand the

components that contribute to a brand extension's success or failure. As with brand equity,

researchers have used numerous dimensions to conceptualize consumer evaluation of real and

hypothetical brand extensions. Furthermore, the importance and relevance of these

conceptualized brand extension evaluation dimensions have also been shown to vary based on

context and other factors. The following section will provide an overview of brand extensions

and will focus on how consumers evaluate brand extensions, and how those evaluations

ultimately affect an organization.

Types of Brand Extensions

A fundamental understanding of variations of brand extensions is useful before

proceeding to a review of proposed dimensions that affect brand extension evaluation, and the

potential outcomes of brand extensions. Otherwise, brand extensions could be confused with

similar extension strategies, such as line extensions. Extension is used to refer to both brand

extensions and line extensions, and in some cases brand extensions are used to refer to line

extensions (Ambler & Styles, 1997; Kotler, 1991). The inconsistent and sometimes

interchangeable use of these terms can cause confusion. Because this review if literature will

focus on brand extensions, distinctions between some terms used in extension literature are

provided. Brand extension is the more established marketing/branding approach, which is likely

why it is sometimes used as a catchall phrase. Again, a brand extension is the use of an

established brand (the parent brand) to create a new brand that acts as extension of the

established brand into a new product category or product class (Aaker & Keller, 1990), or a new

market (Doyle, 1994). Meanwhile, with a line extension an organization uses its established

brand to introduce a new product in an existing product category (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Reddy,

Holak, & Bhat, 1994). The distinction between brand and line extensions can still be confusing,

and possibly subjective, based on whether the extension is considered to be in a product category

that is distinct from the established brand. In some situations, an extension can be proposed as a

brand and line extension (Kim, 2015). An adapted version of Tauber's (1981) matrix of

extensions from Ambler and Styles (1997) provides some conceptual distinction between brand

and line extensions (Figure 2.2).

Product category

	New	Existing
New	New brand	Flanker
Existing	Brand extension	Line extension

(Brand name — row label on left)

Figure 2.2. Tauber's Extension Matrix.

A classic example of a line extension is an established brand like Coca-Cola introducing

a new product (e.g., Coke Zero, Fanta, Sprite) in their same product category (beverages). A

hypothetical example of a brand extension would be Coca-Cola introducing a new product, such as Coca-Cola branded deodorant, that is in a new product category. While these examples may be easy to classify as a brand or line extension, other extensions may not be. Nevertheless, understanding the difference between brand and line extensions is necessary as this review of literature will use the term brand extension due to the focus on established brands introducing new products/services in new categories. Ultimately though, whether an extension is in a new category distinct from the established brand's product category will depend on consumer perceptions (Boush & Loken, 1991; Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994).

Conceptualizing Brand Extensions

Just as consumer-based brand equity is determined by the consumer, brand extensions are also measured by and dependent upon how the extension is evaluated from the consumer's perspective (Aaker & Keller, 1990; de Ruyter & Wetzels, 2000; Kim & John, 2008; Martínez & de Chernatony, 2004; Park, Milberg, & Lawson, 1991). There are several elements that commonly appear in conceptualizations of brand extensions. Traditionally, perceived fit and perceived quality (or strength) of the parent brand have been considered to have an impact on evaluation of brand extensions (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994; Loken, 2006).

Brand strength and extension fit. Aaker and Keller (1990) were among the first and most influential to research how these factors impact consumer perception of brand extension. Aaker and Keller (1990) believed that perceived fit would play a major role in brand extension evaluation. Perceived fit can be understood as the perception, amongst consumers, that there is similarity and consistency between the parent brand's goods/services and the new good/service resulting from the extension (Park et al., 1991). Perceived quality meanwhile is the overall attitude that results from assessments about the level of superiority or excellence of a product

(Aaker & Keller, 1990). Aaker and Keller (1990) conducted two studies to explore how various factors affect consumer brand extension evaluation. The first study presented participants with hypothetical brand extensions of real brands to collect their associations with the extensions and measure their attitude towards the parent brand and the extension brand, their perceived fit of the original and extension product, and to measure their perceived level of difficulty in manufacturing the extension product. The results of their first study found that brand associations about the extension had an inconsistent impact on brand extension evaluation; however, there was a significant interaction between perceived fit and quality of the parent brand with positive consumer evaluation of the brand extension. The first study also found that difficulty of making the extension — as opposed to an extension that would not require expertise or skill — also had a significant impact on extension evaluation (Aaker & Keller, 1990). In the second study, participants were exposed to brand extensions with different stipulations. One group evaluated extensions that had no indication about the quality of the product, while another group was only exposed to quality indicators. A third group was only exposed to attributes of the extension, and the final group was exposed to both the quality and attribute indicators. The participants evaluated the extensions just as they did in the first study. Interestingly, Aaker and Keller (1990) found that participants attitudes towards the hypothetical extensions were lower when they were only exposed to questions about qualities of the parent brand. This suggests that the perceived quality of the parent brand may help or hinder how people evaluate an extension. For instance, if the qualities associated with the parent brand do not match the sub-brand, then it may be best not to highlight the sub-brand's affiliation with the parent brand. While participants who only encountered ques about the quality of the parent brand had slightly lower evaluations of the extension, participants who only encountered elaborations on attributes of the extension tended

to evaluate the extension more favorably (Aaker & Keller, 1990). Therefore, the attributes of the extension product may be more important than the qualities of the parent brand in terms of consumer evaluation of the extension. However, both studies by Aaker and Keller (1990) used hypothetical extensions of tangible consumer products. It is possible that consumer evaluation of a service commodity, such as sport, could differ.

Nevertheless, the work by Aaker and Keller (1990) prompted other researchers to test their findings on brand extension evaluation, and the importance of perceived quality of the parent brand and perceived fit of the extension. Sunde and Brodie (1993) replicated the research by Aaker and Keller (1990) but their results differed. Findings from Sunde and Brodie (1993) were inconclusive on the importance of perceived fit of an extension in transferring the parent brand's positive qualities to the extension. Their findings were also inconclusive on how extension evaluation is influenced by the difficulty of making an extension (Sunde & Brodie, 1993). However, findings from Sunde and Brodie (1993) were in agreement with Aaker and Keller (1990) in that higher perceived quality of the parent brand correlated with favorable attitudes towards the extension. Furthermore, their findings also demonstrated a perceived fit between the parent brand's and the extension brand's product class led to positive evaluations of the extension product (Sunde & Brodie, 1993).

While Sunde and Brodie (1993) substantiated some of the findings from Aaker and Keller (1990), some of their findings were inconclusive. Consequently, Bottomley and Doyle (1996) further tested the original findings from Aaker and Keller (1990). Bottomley and Doyle (1996) used a survey questionnaire to measure attitudes towards hypothetical brand extensions that was very similar to both Aaker and Keller (1990) and Sunde and Brodie (1993). Their findings further verified that consumer evaluation of brand extensions is primarily influenced by

perceived quality of the parent brand, and perceived fit (Bottomley & Doyle, 1996). Similar to

Sunde and Brodie (1993), Bottomley and Doyle (1996) were not able to find that difficulty of

making an extension related to positive extension evaluation. The findings of each of these three

studies are noteworthy in that that they establish the importance of perceived fit and quality of

the parent brand in attitude/evaluation of a brand extension (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Bottomley &

Doyle, 1996; Sunde & Brodie, 1993). They also show that even with replications of the same

studies, the importance of other variables, such as difficulty of making the extension, appear to

vary.

     Perceived fit was one of the significant main effects according to Aaker and Keller

(1990), and remains one of the primary determinants of brand extension evaluation. However,

the perceived fit factor in the Aaker and Keller (1990) study dealt with the perceived fit of

product category for consumer goods. For example, one of the hypothetical brand extensions was

a Heineken light beer (Aaker & Keller, 1990). In this case there is a high fit between the parent

brand (Heineken beer) and the extension product (Heineken light beer). However, fit may not

always be as literal as product category fit. Furthermore, brand extensions can introduce products

in a new category, so the product category of the extension may be drastically different than that

of the parent brand. There are two ways to conceptualize fit: first is the aforementioned product

category fit, the second is brand image fit that represents the similarity between the

image/associations of the parent brand and the extension brand (Kim, 2015). Park et al. (1991)

studied how product category similarity affected brand extension evaluation, but also studied the

role of brand concept consistency. Fit in terms of product category similarity may seem

relatively straight forward. Meanwhile, fit in terms of brand concept consistency refers to unique

and abstract meanings associated with a brand (Park et al., 1991). For example, Toyota and

Jaguar share a product category (automobiles), but likely have different brand concepts (economy versus luxury). According to Park et al. (1991) these differences in brand concepts, or brand images, should affect brand extension evaluation. To test this notion, Park et al. (1991) administered a survey that measured respondents' evaluations of hypothetical brand extensions that varied in both product category fit, and brand concept fit. The results proved that brand concept consistency, along with product category similarity, both contributed to perceived fit and thus evaluation of the extension. Park et al. (1991) also found that prestigious, high quality brands enjoyed more favorable extension evaluations even if the product category similarity was low. This could indicate that although perceived fit is one of the traditional dimensions of brand extension evaluation, in some situations the strength or quality of the parent brand may have a greater effect on extension evaluation.

In other situations, the type of fit (i.e., categorical fit or image fit) determines how important fit is in determining extension evaluation. For example. Bhat and Reddy (2001) found that product category fit was not a significant determinant of extension evaluation, but the fit of the extension with the parent brand image was. One possible explanation for the apparent inconsistent importance of perceived fit is that categorical fit is not always differentiated from image fit. Categorical fit of the extension good/service with the parent good/service is not always as important as perceived fit of the extension with the parent brand image (Bhat & Reddy, 2001). In general, perception of fit (categorical fit or image fit) should mean that evaluations of brand extensions will be more positive if there is a perceived fit between the extension and the parent brand. However, as Boush and Loken (1991) found, perceived fit does not always matter as much as other extension evaluation variables (e.g., brand breadth).

Numerous researchers have studied the significance of perceived fit and similarity in differing contexts with differing results. Taylor and Bearden (2003), for instance, studied the effect of information about ad spending on brand extension evaluations, with similarity as a moderating factor. The authors expected that higher levels of ad spending would have the greatest influence on extension evaluation, but that higher ad spending would be most effective when there was similarity between the extension and the parent brand. 190 respondents evaluated hypothetical brand extensions of real brands. Results supported the authors' belief that ad spending would be most effective for extensions that were similar to the parent brand. Respondents were also more likely to dispute claims made in high cost ad campaigns for extensions that were dissimilar to the parent brand (Taylor & Bearden, 2003). These findings indicated that level of ad spending is more important in leveraging brand equity through an extension, but that similarity, or perceived fit, is also important. As with many brand extension experiments though, Taylor and Bearden (2003) studied extensions in the context of tangible consumer goods (e.g., frozen pizza) rather than a service. The Taylor and Bearden (2003) study may also have been limited in the number of variables it used (similarity, product quality, ad spending).

A later study by Pina, Iversen, and Martinez (2010) included more variables that affect extension attitude (evaluation) and the resulting effect on parent brand image. Their study also explored the potential for brand image dilution of a global parent brand from a global oriented brand extension strategy. To that end, the authors introduced respondents to two brand extensions from two global sport apparel companies (Nike and Puma) in two countries (Norway and Spain). The authors found that using brand extensions in a global branding strategy comes with risks of diluting the parent brand image in different cultural settings. Regarding factors that

influence brand extension attitude, perceived fit was most significant. However, in agreement

with Bhat and Reddy (2001), the findings suggested that it is image fit, rather than product

categorical fit that matters most in brand extension evaluation (Pina et al., 2010). These findings

are in agreement with the bookkeeping model, which offers a contrasting approach to the

typicality model in predicting what factors will cause an extension to lead to brand dilution. Per

the typicality model, when consumers encounter extensions that are dissimilar to the parent

brand, the likelihood of parent brand dilution is higher. The bookkeeping model predicts that a

brand extension will contribute to brand dilution of the parent brand family when the extension is

inconsistent with the parent brand image, regardless of its typicality (fit) with the parent brand

product category (Loken & John, 1993).

The typicality and bookkeeping models offer competing predictions for how extensions

that fit with the parent brand will be received. Furthermore, researchers have come to conflicting

conclusions on how or if type of fit (i.e., categorical fit, image fit) relates to extension

evaluations. Still, both types of perceived fit and perceived quality (strength) of the parent brand

remain as dimensions of brand extension evaluation. The use and relative importance of and

operationalization of these dimensions of brand extension evaluation varies.

Differentiating strength and equity. Although perceived quality and strength are often

used as variables influencing extension evaluation, it is also true that attitudes about a brand are

used to measure brand equity, which is an outcome of brand extensions. As a result, it can be

difficult to discern the antecedents of brand extension evaluation from the outcomes. This

paradox is exacerbated by researchers using brand associations as a predictor of extension

evaluation rather than as an outcome. Broniarczyk and Alba (1994) conducted three experiments

to investigate the importance of brand associations in brand extension evaluation. The authors

found that brand associations could have a greater impact on brand extension evaluation than perceived quality (affect) and perceived fit. Bhat and Reddy (2001) conducted a similar study using hypothetical brand extensions in response to the call from Broniarczyk and Alba (1994) for broader research on the parent brand in extension evaluation. Respondents' initial evaluations of hypothetical brand extensions revealed that brand attribute associations towards the parent brand played a significant role in attitude (evaluation) towards the extension (Bhat & Reddy, 2001).

A later study by Martínez et al. (2009) also considered the role of the parent brand on extension attitude, but with a different approach. Martínez et al. (2009) used multiple dimensions of brand equity to assess the role of the parent brand on extension evaluation. The authors used brand awareness, brand image (which included brand associations), and brand loyalty as the factors that comprise brand equity. The authors' conceptual model proposes that initial brand equity (awareness, image, and loyalty) along with the fit of the extension brand image interact and lead to the extension attitude, and finally the post-extension brand image of the parent brand. To test their hypotheses and model, Martínez et al. (2009) distributed surveys to 599 undergraduate students who were divided into 12 groups based on their assigned hypothetical brand, extension example, and advertising treatment. Using structural equation modeling, the authors were able to confirm most of their hypotheses (Martínez et al., 2009). Of their three brand equity factors (awareness, image, loyalty), only initial brand image had a significant influence on attitude towards the extension. This finding was in agreement with the authors' overall belief that initial brand beliefs impact brand extension attitude. Furthermore, their findings showed that brand extension attitude was a result of level of initial brand beliefs and coherence, or fit, with the extension product. Finally, the initial brand image was related to the post-extension brand image, suggesting that initial brand image relates to extension attitude and

that there is a feedback loop effect between initial and post-extension brand image (Martínez et al., 2009).

While findings from Martínez et al. (2009) and others (Bhat & Reddy, 2001; Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994) provide evidence for the significance of a strong parent brand on favorable brand extension evaluations, they also blur the distinction between strength and equity and the relationship of these concepts to extension evaluations To avoid confusion, this research considers brand equity as a desired outcome of brand extensions because extensions are a brand management strategy. Brand management strategies are intended to benefit brand equity, especially in consumer-based industries (Chun et al., 2015; Martínez et al., 2009). Perceived quality/strength then is a representation of feelings about a brand's reputation or quality. As was the case with brand equity research, it can also be difficult to discern antecedents of brand extension evaluation from the outcomes. As the previously discussed studies have shown, positive brand associations and image appear to impact extension evaluation, potentially more so that perceived category fit or perceived quality. At the same time, brand extensions can be a tool for firms to alter brand associations and other dimensions associated with brand equity.

Alternative Conceptualizations of Brand Extension Evaluation

Despite being regularly used, the relative importance of perceived fit and perceived quality is sometimes disputed. Other factors have been suggested, and proved, to influence brand extensions. According to Völckner and Sattler (2006) approximately 15 determinants of brand extension evaluation, including perceived fit and perceived quality, have been shown to be significant in at least one empirical study. Völckner and Sattler (2006) surveyed participants about 22 parent brands, each of which had three brand extensions. Using their survey data, the authors used structural equation analysis to test multiple conceptual models of the various

determinants of brand extension success. They found that one of the traditional determinants, perceived fit, was the most important driver of brand extension success. Following perceived fit, marketing support, parent-brand conviction, retailer acceptance, and parent-brand experience were the next most significant determinants of brand extension success (Völckner & Sattler, 2006). The findings from Völckner and Sattler (2006) are noteworthy as they show that there are many dimensions that influence brand extensions beyond just perceived fit and perceived quality. However, there are limitations to the study. Firstly, Völckner and Sattler (2006) evaluated determinants of brand extension success for consumer goods. The relative importance of brand extensions determinants of service brands could differ. Secondly, Völckner and Sattler (2006) studied the determinants of brand extension success rather than brand extension evaluation. Although brand extension success is important, the determinants of success involve managerial marketplace determinants that may be beyond the control of brand managers. While Völckner and Sattler (2006) show that there are various alternative determinants of brand extension success beyond perceived fit and quality, the alternative determinants of brand extension evaluation may differ in their salience depending on each extensions unique circumstances.

  Innovativeness. Innovativeness of the extension is one of the alternative predictors of brand extension evaluation. Researchers such as Pina et al. (2010) noted that extension innovativeness, particularly innovation related to hedonistic need for stimulation, moderated brand extension attitude. Thus, innovativeness of an extension may be another dimension of brand extension evaluation and may influence the perceived fit and similarity on extension evaluation. This notion appears to potentially be at odds with categorization theory, which suggests that extension evaluations will be more favorable based on a perception of fit between

extension and parent brand category. As an alternative, other studies have adopted schema

incongruity theory as a possible explanation for why perceived categorical fit, or even image fit,

does not always strongly influence extension evaluation (Mandler, 1982). Per schema

incongruity theory, consumers will have more favorable evaluations for an extension that is

moderately incongruous than one that is highly congruous or incongruous (Meyers-Levy et al.,

1994). This phenomenon could explain why innovativeness, how interesting and stimulating an

extension is, may matter more than congruity or perceived fit (Maoz & Tybout, 2002; Meyers-

Levy et al., 1994). Although not framed as innovativeness, Aaker and Keller (1990) did find that

difficulty in making producing an extension product influenced extension evaluation. However,

Aaker and Keller (1990) were specifically studying tangible consumer products where the

difficulty of manufacturing an item would be more relevant. Srivastava and Sharma (2012)

devised an experiment to test the predicted relationship between congruity and evaluation based

on schema incongruity theory. A questionnaire study revealed that the highest consumer

evaluations of extensions came from moderately incongruous extensions (Srivastava & Sharma,

2012). It is likely that innovativeness, parent brand strength, and fit all affect extension

evaluation, but the importance of each varies based on the nature of the extension. For instance,

research by Chun et al. (2015) found for strong/quality brands, with a positive reputation, brand

extension evaluation was high for extensions with low fit and high innovativeness. Conversely,

for weak reputation brands, brand extension evaluations were highest when the extension had

high fit and high innovativeness (Chun et al., 2015). While these findings do not disprove the

importance of fit and similarity on extension evaluation, they do further suggest that other

variables, particularly innovativeness, affect extension evaluation and the relationship between

fit and extension evaluation.

Authenticity. In addition to innovativeness, authenticity may also affect brand extension evaluation. It is possible that an extension could be innovative but not authentic. For example, if a luxury car company were to develop a series of pickup trucks, this may be innovative but not authentic to the brand's reputation in the minds of consumers. According to Spiggle et al. (2012), two common conceptualizations of perceived fit —fit as similarity and fit as relevance— are moderated by brand extension authenticity. The authors suggested that brand extension authenticity (BEA) is distinct from perceived fit, and not only moderates the influence of perceived fit on extension evaluation, but that authenticity also directly influences extension evaluation. Spiggle et al. (2012) described authenticity as consisting of internal and external consistency. Internal consistency refers to whether a brand is true to itself; while external consistency refers to whether a brand is what it appears to be and not fake or an imitation. The BEA construct differs from traditional conceptualizations of fit in that it recognizes the cultural link between parent brands and extensions. The BEA also recognizes that individuals have different identities and thus different relationships with the parent brand. Therefore, whether a consumer views an extension as authentic or not will depend if the individual considers the evaluation as a legitimate and consistent representation of the parent brand's cultural identity (Spiggle et al., 2012). The importance of authenticity also depends on identity, particularly self-brand connection. Consumers who are highly connected to the parent brand strongly prefer authenticity regardless of extension fit. However, consumers with low connection to the brand do not have a preference on authenticity. The importance of authenticity, from a brand manger's perspective, may then depend on the identity of the target market. If targeting new consumers, who likely have low pre-existing self-brand connection, then authenticity may not be a significant predictor. The BEA measures a consumer's intuition that an organizations brand

extension is legitimate and consistent with the parent brand's reputation. Spiggle et al. (2012) identified four dimensions of authenticity: (1) maintaining brand styles and standards, (2) honoring brand heritage, (3) preserving brand essence, and (4) avoiding brand exploitation.

Differentiating between authenticity and fit could explain why low fit extensions can still be evaluated favorably. Other studies have also demonstrated the effect of authenticity on brand extension evaluation. For example, Prados-Peña and del Barrio-García (2018) also devised a study to compare the relative influence of fit versus authenticity on brand extension evaluation. The authors presented respondents with extensions of a world heritage site and historical tourist destination in Spain that varied on levels of fit and authenticity. In comparison to extension fit, level of extension authenticity showed a greater ability to leverage brand equity and transfer positive associations from the parent brand to the extension (Prados-Peña & del Barrio-García, 2018).

Brand breadth, size and brand extensions. In addition to innovativeness and authenticity, brand breadth is another potential factor that can impact brand extension evaluation. Like other alternative variables, brand breadth and size does not necessarily negate the importance of perceived fit and perceived quality in extension evaluation. In fact, Boush and Loken (1991) studied the significance of brand breadth in the context of categorization. Like other brand extension research, Boush and Loken's (1991) approach was grounded in categorization theory. Per categorization theory, individuals place entities, such as brands, into categories based on distinguishable traits, and evaluate all entities within a category similarly (Rosch, 1975). Based on this, Boush and Loken (1991) suggested that the effect of brand extensions on brand equity will be influenced by brand extension typicality, which is the similarity of the extension brand to the parent brand's product(s). The typicality model proposes

that as consumers are exposed to atypical brand extensions (extensions that are dissimilar to the parent brand product), the more that dilution of brand beliefs about the parent brand will occur. They also suggested that the brand breadth, the categorical variation among a brand's family of products, influences evaluations of brand extensions. Boush and Loken (1991) presented participants in their study with information about hypothetical brand extensions that varied in brand breadth and brand extension typicality. The results proved that perceived typicality of an extension and parent brand breadth influence extension evaluation. Interestingly, when brands with a large breadth introduced an extension that was similar with their current products, the extension was evaluated as atypical. However, greater brand breadth did increase perceived typicality of moderately atypical extensions (Boush & Loken, 1991). These findings would suggest that brands with a narrow breadth have an advantage over brand with a large brand breadth when introducing extensions that are somewhat inconsistent, or atypical of, the extension. Boush and Loken (1991) observed a significant relationship between brand breadth and typicality in how people evaluated hypothetical brand extensions. However, other research has resulted in different interpretations about the role of brand breadth in extension evaluation.

Sheinin and Schmitt (1994) also investigated the role of brand breadth, but in a different manner than Boush and Loken (1991), and also came to different conclusions. Respondents completed a questionnaire that approximated their evaluations of hypothetical brand extensions based on varying levels of congruity (congruous, moderately incongruous, extremely incongruous), affect/quality (high affect, low affect), and breadth (broad breadth, narrow breadth). Sheinin and Schmitt (1994) also measured brand equity to estimate the brand equity transfer that occurred with each type of extension. Extension evaluations were most favorable in the high affect, narrow breadth, and moderately incongruous scenario. Incongruity had the most

severe effect on extension evaluation for low affect, narrow breadth brands. However, broad

breadth brands were evaluated the same regardless of level on congruity. Finally, positive brand

equity transfer only occurred in the high affect, broad breadth, extremely incongruous scenario

(Sheinin & Schmitt, 1994). These findings further demonstrate the impact of brand breadth on

extension evaluation but the conclusions differ from those offered by Boush and Loken (1991).

For example, Boush and Loken (1991) suggested that brands with a large breadth are less likely

to be successful in introducing extensions that are very similar or very atypical. In contrast,

Sheinin and Schmitt (1994) found that brand equity transfer occurred in the high affect, broad

breadth, extremely incongruous scenario. This finding suggested that brands with a broad

breadth might have an advantage over narrow brand breadth brands in terms of extension

evaluation and brand equity transfer. At the same time, high brand affect (quality) should not be

ignored, as it also influenced extension evaluation. Sheinin and Smith's (1994) research is

noteworthy because of their inclusion of other factors related to brand extension (affect,

congruity, brand equity) in addition to breadth. Still, while research shows that brand breadth

plays a role in extension evaluation, the nature of its influence compared to other factors of

extension evaluation remains unclear.

In brand extension research, brand breadth is the categorical variation of products that a

firm produces. Sony Corporation provides an example of a firm with broad brand depth. Sony's

brand includes a diverse collection of products in different categories such as consumer

electronics, video games, and television programs. However, as noted previously, brand

extensions are not exclusive to brands that produce tangible consumer goods. Furthermore, while

breadth of product categories is not the same as the size of an organization, size may influence

brand extension evaluation in similar ways. Large organizations and/or organizations with broad

product depth are likely to have a diverse collection of associations and beliefs about the brand. This collection of beliefs about a brand's attitude and a brand's size (or users) has been shown to affect product usage (Dall'Olmo Riley et al., 2014). Consequently, organizational size (number of buyers) may affect perception of brand extension fit (Dall'Olmo Riley et al., 2014). Dall'Olmo Riley et al. (2014) hypothesized that with higher numbers of buyers (size) for a brand there will be a greater perception of fit, more positive evaluation of a brand extension, and more positive initial and final brand image evaluation. They also predicted that the opposite would be true for smaller brands (i.e. lower perception of fit of an extension). Their hypotheses are based in part on the marketing concept of Double Jeopardy. Smaller brands by default have fewer users. Double Jeopardy states that with fewer users, there are also relatively fewer users who 'like' a brand (Dall'Olmo Riley et al., 2014; McPhee, 1963). Therefore, brand extensions for smaller brands are twice as risky (hence Double Jeopardy) due to having fewer users who are less likely to like a brand or consume a product than users of a larger brand. Dall'Olmo Riley et al. (2014) distributed surveys about high and low fit hypothetical brand extensions of real pet food brands in the UK. For all of the extensions, regardless of level of fit, the results revealed a positive relationship between brand size and brand extension evaluation, perception of fit, and post-extension brand image. Other brand extension research has suggested and shown that overall brand quality/strength, perceived fit, and brand image/associations are all determinants of brand extension evaluation. Findings from Dall'Olmo Riley et al. (2014) suggested that all of those determinants of extension evaluation are correlated with the number of buyers an organization has, or its size. If these findings can be validated in other brand extension contexts it could have far reaching implications for brand management decisions. If validated, then larger brands are inherently more likely to have successful brand extensions regardless of the fit of the

extension. Double Jeopardy has consistently predict outcomes in a variety of brand management scenarios (Graham, Bennett, Franke, Henfrey, & Nagy-Hamada, 2017). However, despite the apparent significance of brand size, there is limited use of Double Jeopardy and brand size in brand extension research.

Ultimately, discussion and debate about the dimensions that affect brand extension evaluation comes down to their effects on brand equity and consumer behavior. Brand extensions, like all brand management strategies, are intended to improve brand equity (Boush & Loken, 1991) and possibly change brand meaning (Spiggle et al., 2012). In fact, the effectiveness of brand extensions has been measured by assessing consumer perceptions about brand equity (Ambler & Styles, 1997; Martínez et al., 2009; Pitta & Katsanis, 1995). The ability of extensions to do this is well researched. Typically, such research has been conducted in the context of consumer goods, and has used hypothetical brand extensions of real brand to determine the factors that impact extension evaluation (Table 2.2). As shown in Table 2.2, many researchers have used similar dimensions to measure brand extension evaluation, but have also added new ones, and altered existing ones. For instance, perceived fit (product category fit) and perceived quality are well established dimensions of brand extension evaluation for consumer goods rather than services (Aaker & Keller, 1990). Yet, in some cases the importance of perceived fit, in terms of effect on extension evaluation and brand equity, is unclear. Image fit may be more important than product category fit. In other cases, low fit can have potential consequences. If an extension has low fit and is poorly evaluated, then a potential consequence is brand dilution of the parent brand's equity, which has been shown to occur when an inconsistent (low fit) extension is introduced (Glynn & Sandhaug, 2009; John, Loken, & Joiner, 1998; Loken & John, 1993). At the same time, other research on brand extensions shows that alternative dimensions of

brand extension evaluation (e.g., brand innovativeness, brand authenticity, brand breadth and

size) also can influence brand extension evaluation and thus brand equity. The dimensions that

have the greatest influence on brand extension evaluation vary and should be studied in new

contexts.

Table 2.2

Dimensions of Brand Extensions

Model/Authors	Dimensions	Outcome
Aaker and Keller (1990)	Perceived fit (product category), Perceived quality, Extension difficulty	Brand Extension Evaluation
Park et al. (1991)	Perceived fit (product category and brand image), Perceived quality	Brand Extension Evaluation
Boush and Loken (1991)	Brand breadth, Similarity (typicality)	Brand Extension Evaluation
Broniarczyk and Alba (1994)	Brand associations, Perceived fit (product category)	Brand Extension Evaluation
Sheinin and Schmitt (1994)	Brand breadth, Similarity (congruity), Brand affect	Brand Extension Evaluation
Taylor and Bearden (2003)	Similarity (product)	Brand Extension Evaluation
Martínez et al. (2009)	Brand image and awareness, Perceived fit (brand image)	Brand Extension Attitude
Pina et al. (2010)	Perceived fit (product category and brand image), Brand familiarity	Brand Extension Attitude
Spiggle et al. (2012)	Authenticity, Perceived fit (similarity and relevance)	Brand Extension Evaluation
Dall'Olmo Riley et al. (2014)	Brand size (number of buyers), Perceived fit (product category and brand image)	Brand Extension Evaluation
Chun et al. (2015)	Innovativeness, Fit (product category) Perceived quality (parent brand strength)	Brand Extension Evaluation

Brand Extensions in Sport

Brand extensions have also been evaluated in sport, although not as extensively as in other fields. Nevertheless, sport research in brand extensions has grown in recent decades. Apostolopoulou (2002a) was among the first sport researchers to broach brand extensions. Apostolopoulou (2002a) developed a study that examined how branding and marketing managers in sport make decisions about developing brand extensions. Apostolopoulou (2002a) interviewed marketing managers of 12 professional sports teams in the United States, and categorized their brand extensions as: sport related, entertainment related, media related, information related, and low perceived fit. Apostolopoulou (2002a) organized the brand extension example he collected from respondents by their objective. Examples of objectives included revenue generation and increasing identification with the team via the extension. Apostolopoulou (2002a) did not empirically test the determinants of brand extension evaluation, but did identify them as: perceived fit, strength of the parent brand, promotional support, quality of the extension, distribution strategy, and management of the extension product. Although the results were descriptive in nature, they are significant in that they note the prevalence of brand extensions in professional sport, and the need for further research.

In another work, Apostolopoulou (2002b) presented empirical data from a study that was intended to measure the importance of parent brand strength and perceived fit on brand extension evaluation in sport. A sample of 170 undergraduate students evaluated hypothetical sport brand extensions that varied in parent brand strength and fit. In this case the results were in line with the traditional dimensions of brand extension success (Aaker & Keller, 1990). Apostolopoulou (2002b) found that parent brand strength and perceived fit both predicted favorable evaluation of sport brand extensions. The results also indicated that identification is relevant to evaluation of

brand extensions, just as it is in other fields. Respondents who were highly identified with the team were more likely to have a favorable evaluation of a brand extension, regardless of parent brand strength or perceived fit.

Another early work in sport related brand extensions came from Papadimitriou, Apostolopoulou, and Loukas (2004) and also examined the importance of parent brand strength and perceived fit on sport brand extensions. The authors collected data from 300 participants about real extension products from a successful Greek sport franchise. Not surprisingly, sport related extensions were evaluated as having higher perceived fit. Extensions that had a higher perceived fit were evaluated more favorably and related to higher levels in purchase intention (Papadimitriou et al., 2004). Interestingly, Papadimitriou et al. (2004) argue that sport related brand extensions are more likely to enjoy perception of fit than extensions than extensions from consumer goods firms. Further research is necessary to determine the veracity of this contention. However, if that is the case, then it could mean that perception of fit is not as critical in evaluation of sport brand extensions.

Campbell and Kent (2002) provided another of the early studies of sport brand extensions. Their case study examined the National Football League's (NFL) brand extension of NFL Europe. Now defunct, NFL Europe primarily consisted of younger, developmental NFL players who played for European teams during the NFL offseason. NFL Europe was examined as a brand extension using product similarity and brand concept consistency as dimensions of brand extension evaluation (Park et al., 1991). Campbell and Kent (2002) determined that NFL Europe was unsuccessful as a brand extension because it did not meet these criteria. While the study provides an interesting case study and practical managerial insights, it lacks empirical data about consumer evaluations of brand extensions.

The early works in sport related brand extension (Apostolopoulou, 2002a, 2002b; Campbell & Kent, 2002; Papadimitriou et al., 2004) serve as a foundation for subsequent research. However, in general the studies lack empirical data, and focus on the evaluation of extension products, but not the impact that brand extensions can have of brand equity or consumer behaviors. Because unsuccessful brand extensions could harm the brand equity of the parent brand, or the sub-brand, this should also be a consideration. Walsh (2008) identified the need to investigate the potential impacts of brand extensions on team brands. To develop an understanding of the impact of brand extensions of teams in a professional sport context, Walsh (2008) conducted a study where participants were either placed into a control group or one of six experimental groups where they evaluated hypothetical brand extensions that varied in level of typicality and attribute congruency with the team (parent) brand. Respondents reported their associations with the team brand after exposure to the extension using the aforesaid TBAS. Reported associations of the experimental groups were compared to control group that did not encounter any extensions. The extensions in the experimental design neither significantly diluted nor enhanced team brand associations. However, level of identification with the team did significantly influence team brand associations. These findings were also reported in another study by Walsh and Ross (2010). Other studies have also investigated the branding consequences of brand management decisions for a parent brand. A study by Kelly, Ireland, Mangan, and Williamson (2016) found that an organizations' brand images are affected by their sponsorship partners' brand images. In other words, attitudes towards a brand with a positive brand image will suffer if a sponsorship partner has a negative brand image. While this research was in sponsorships rather than brand extensions, it shows that brand image of one brand can be affected by association with another.

Although some studies suggest that brand extensions, at least in professional sports, do not significantly dilute or enhance parent brand strength, brand extensions remain a common, and potentially risky branding strategy. Consequently, Walsh and Lee (2012) set out to develop a tool for helping managers make decisions about potential brand extensions, which they named the Team Brand Extension Decision-Making Model (TBEDMM). The TBEDMM posited that understanding the team's brand equity is the first step in the decision-making process. A strong brand is more likely to have success with a brand extension (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Bhat & Reddy, 2001; Bottomley & Doyle, 1996; Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994). Similar models outside of sport also recognize the importance of brand equity as a first step in guiding decisions about brand extensions (Ambler & Styles, 1997). Along with brand equity, evaluation of level of team identification is included in the first step, given that highly identified fans are more likely to evaluate an extension favorably. If the parent brand is deemed strong enough, then the next step in the TBEDMM is concept and strategy development. The next step is to test the concept in the market and evaluate the potential impact of the extension on the parent brand. If concept testing is unsuccessful then the team should consider alternative branding strategies and not launch the extension. If concept testing is fruitful then the extension should be launched and will require implementation of a marketing plan and adequate support. After the launch, the TBEDMM recommends continued testing, monitoring of financial outcomes, and evaluating impact on brand equity and identification (Walsh & Lee, 2012). The study is the first to provide a practical decision-making model for brand extension in sport; however, its generalizability may be limited to professional sports. The study, perhaps unintentionally, also highlights an apparent paradox in brand extension literature. Parent brand strength is one of the proposed dimensions of brand extension evaluation (Aaker & Keller, 1990), but is a nebulous term that seems to be

operationalized differently depending on the area of brand extension research. In some cases, as with Walsh and Lee (2012), it included brand equity. However, brand equity is also an outcome of brand extensions. Future sport brand extension research could strive to measure the impact of extensions on brand equity without including brand equity as an antecedent of brand extension evaluation.

Through its evolution, sport related brand extension literature has expanded into contexts beyond North American professional sports. Walsh, Chien, and Ross (2012) examined brand extensions in two new contexts. They studied the potential of a brand extension to dilute the parent brand's equity when the parent brand is a corporation, and the extension is a team in a Taiwanese baseball league. Using four professional teams, the authors examined how three factors might influence parent brand enhancement or dilution: perceived fit of the team with the parent brand (corporation), team success, and identification. 571 respondents were surveyed at home games of the four teams. The results indicated that there was not a perceived brand image fit, but this did not necessarily relate to enhancement or dilution of the parent brand. On-field success led to parent brand enhancement, but poor on field performance did not dilute the parent brand. The enhancement or dilution effects were amplified among highly identified fans. This study was distinct from other sport brand extension research in that the team was the extension. However, the findings indicate a potential trend in evaluation of sport brand extensions. Perceived fit is not typically as high, or as important, in evaluation of sport brand extensions as it is in other fields.

In a similar study Walsh et al. (2015) studied teams as brand extensions of a corporate parent brand, this time in a professional Korean baseball league. Rather than collecting consumer evaluations on teams as brand extensions, the authors interviewed team executives to better

understand how they perceive their relationship with the parent brand. Their qualitative analysis suggested that the executives generally believed that the on-field performance of their extension brand had some impact on the parent brand equity, and sales of the parent brand's product. Quantifiable data would be needed to prove the impact that the extension team can have on the parent brand equity. However, the fact that team executives perceived this impact indicates that brand managers recognize that extensions can be used as a tool to impact brand equity. The influence on sub-brand equity should also be considered.

Brand extensions are not unique to professional sports, or even to teams. Athletes themselves have a brand and can act as brand extensions. Companies have long used athletes to introduce brand extensions. However, using a human brand in a brand extension comes with risks beyond those that are inherent with other brand extensions. Walsh and Williams (2017) tested how athlete prestige, athlete distinctiveness, and attachment to an athlete relate to perceived fit, and attitude towards an athlete endorsed brand extension. Using online surveys, the authors introduced 292 respondents to hypothetical brand extensions (e.g., Peyton Manning and salad dressing brand extension). Participants were exposed to hypothetical brand extensions that varied in perceived fit with whoever their favorite athlete was, and an athlete from a list of athletes who were determined to have high levels of prestige and distinctiveness from a pretest. Path modeling showed that athlete prestige has the greatest impact on perceived fit and attitude towards the extension when the extension was intended to fit with the athlete's brand image. When there was a low fit between the athlete's brand image and the extension, attachment to the athlete had the greatest impact on perceived fit and attitude towards the extension. Although the hypothetical extensions (e.g., salad dressing) were extensions of some parent brand, the athlete appears to function as the parent brand. Athlete brand image was analogous to parent brand

strength in that when athlete brand image was high, perception of fit and attitude were high even if the product category fit is low. Still, in agreement with categorization theory, the findings demonstrate that perceived fit is improved overall when there was a high categorical fit (e.g., sport camps, clothing) than when there was a low categorical fit (e.g., salsa, cosmetics, salad dressing).

Like general marketing research, the importance of fit in brand extension evaluation, is inconsistent in sport research. Although they did not study brand extensions specifically, Close and Lacey (2013) studied the effect of fit between an event sponsor and a sponsored event. The authors collected 1,615 surveys from attendees about the Tour de Georgia (the sponsored event) and AT&T (the event sponsor). Their hypotheses are based on congruity theory, which claims that consumers desire consistent and harmonious thoughts and feelings and will strive to maintain those feelings. So, when some individual encounters a brand extension that is congruent with their existing beliefs about the parent brand, the individual is more likely to have positive thoughts about the extension because people desire predictability. The authors do not allege any connection between congruity theory and categorization theory, but the application to predicting brand extension evaluation appears similar. Both theories suggest that individuals develop associations about entities and prefer to have anything connected to that entity fit with their established beliefs about it. In agreement with congruity theory, Close and Lacey (2013) found that consumer perceptions about the even sponsor improved when they perceived a greater fit with the event. However, their attitude towards the event was unaffected even if there was not a perceived fit. While the findings show that perceived fit aids in the ability of the parent brand to transfer positive brand associations and improve their brand equity, they do not necessarily prove that perceived congruous fit is the cause of this. For instance, if a brand has negative associations

but there is a perceived fit, then the parent brand might not be able to improve their brand equity despite the apparent fit. While the research by Close and Lacey (2013) was not on brand extensions, it does show how the brand effect of a sponsor can be different than the brand effect on the sponsored event. The potentially differing brand outcomes for a parent brand and an extension brand should also be studied, as should the importance of fit in sport brand extensions.

Sport brand extension researchers undulate in defining which variables influence extension evaluation and differ in findings about. This may indicate that sports are unique in terms of brand extensions. Like other fields, the dimensions of extension evaluation in sport and how they relate to one another may be unique. For example, team identification is unique to sport and has been shown to influence attitudes towards extension. However, some research has found that law-like generalizations from other industries are applicable to sport (Baker et al., 2016). Doyle et al. (2013) conducted a study to determine if the previously discussed Law of Double Jeopardy applied to sport, given the unique qualities of the sport industry. Double Jeopardy contends that brand size is the primary driver of brand loyalty, and that larger brands have an advantage over brands with a smaller share of the overall market. To test the Law of Double Jeopardy in sport, the authors collected data from 794 Australian sport fans on their attitudinal loyalties to their favorite teams. Statistical analysis revealed that the Law of Double Jeopardy is still applicable in a sport context. Fans of high market share teams displayed greater levels of attitudinal loyalty than fans of smaller market share teams. Additionally, the reported brand associations were different for larger versus small market share teams (Doyle et al., 2013). A similar study by Baker et al. (2016) substantiated these findings, suggesting that the unique aspects of sport do not negate the relevance of all general marketing doctrines, such as the Law of Double Jeopardy. If the Law of Double Jeopardy is applicable to sport, then brand managers

should consider it when making brand decisions such as whether to engage in a brand extension. A large market share sport brand may enjoy more leeway when engaging in low fit brand extensions while still benefiting from favorable consumer evaluations of the extension. Conversely, smaller sport brands may need to be more cautious, and ensure that there will be perceived fit for their extensions. Sport brand extension research has grown, but the growth is accompanied by disparities in how brand extensions are understood within sport. More research is needed to understand the relative importance of dimensions of extension evaluation, such as fit, innovativeness and authenticity in new areas of sport brand extensions.

  Role of identification in sport and brand extensions. In the review of brand equity research and conceptualizations, I noted how identification plays a role in individual evaluations of a firm's brand equity. Social identification, the knowledge that one belongs to a group and the meanings associated with that group membership, can also influence evaluation of brand extensions. Several brand extension studies have pointed out that brand extension evaluation is sensitive to different forms of identification such as culture and nationality (Pina et al., 2010; Prados-Peña & del Barrio-García, 2018; Spiggle et al., 2012). According to social identification theory, knowledge that one belongs to a group relates to overall self-concept, and behavior (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Self-concept, or social identity, is the result of intergroup relations and social categorization (Tajfel, 1982). Socially categorizing oneself as belonging to a national or cultural group are both forms of identification; suggesting that social identity can influence brand extension evaluation. Again, the desired outcome of a brand extension, or any brand management strategy, is to improve brand equity. Brand extension studies have used dimensions of brand equity, such as awareness, image, and loyalty, as factors of and outcomes of brand extension attitude (Martínez et al., 2009). Since brand equity is influenced by forms of social

identification (Boyle & Magnusson, 2007; Underwood et al., 2001; Wang & Tang, 2018; Watkins, 2014) it should also be considered relevant to brand extension evaluation. However, in sport literature, identification is not usually considered a significant factor of brand extension evaluation. Rather, sport researchers tend to focus on identification in terms of identification with a team.

Team identification, which is based on social identity theory, is a representation of psychological commitment to the sport entity (team) and was introduced by Wann and Branscombe (1993). Subsequent research has produced numerous other scales to measure team identification (Dimmrock, Grove, & Eklund, 2005; Fisher & Wakefield, 1998; Heere & James, 2007; Trail & James, 2001). These studies on team identification have evolved and are distinct but are alike in demonstrating that team identification— the belief that one belongs to a sport entity— is positively correlated to attitudes and behaviors (Kwon, Trail, & Anderson, 2005). While the importance of team identification is evident, there are still issues with research to date on team identification. Firstly, the concept of the team in team identity scales if often ambiguous which can make it difficult to understand what people are indicating a psychological commitment to (Delia, 2015). Individuals construct an identity for a sports team, thus the concept of a team that one identifies with will vary from person to person. Secondly, how individuals create identities for teams that they identify with appears to vary by context. For example, the Psychological Continuum Model (PCM) shows that commitment to a team is determined by three processes (awareness, attraction, attachment) and three outcomes (level 1, level 2, level 3, allegiance; (Funk & James, 2006). Each process introduces new ways that fans construct their identification with the team. Another approach for understanding how individuals come to create identities and identify with teams is through internalization. According to Kolbe

and James (2003) there are three stages in psychological commitment to a sports entity: initial,

identification, and internalization. Various other contextual factors (e.g., on field success, type of

sport, level of competition, socialization, geographic location) can all contribute to how

individuals identify with a team. Thirdly, team identification research has focused on the factors

that relate to favorable or not favorable identification with the team. Future research could

compare level of team identification between different groups in a specific context, such as brand

extensions. If types of identity and level of identification with the team are relevant to brand

equity, attitudes, and behaviors, then they should also be relevant to sports brand extensions.

Group identification and identification with the team should be related to brand extension

evaluation. Future research into brand extensions should consider this as brand extension

strategies may attempt to appeal to diverse consumer groups with different forms of

identification. Conversely, brand managers may use brand extensions to attract a new group of

consumers that have identities distinct from the firm's current consumer base.

     Because extensions can be used to expand a firm's consumer base, segmenting groups

based on identities and variables within a target market is important as there can be differences

between identifiable groups. Differences between groups are important in sport as the

relationship groups and outcomes can inform marketing and branding practices. For example,

Robinson, Trail, and Hyungil (2004) investigated the relationship of gender and spectator type

(i.e., PGA event spectator and LPGA event spectator) with motives to attend a golf event and

points of attachment to the tour event. If there are differences based on gender or type of

spectator in relationship to motives to attend or points of attachment, then marketers would

adjust brand management strategies based on these differences and their goals. Robinson et al.

(2004) conducted a multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) to determine the

relationships between gender and spectator type and motives and points of attachment. An advantage of a MANCOVA is that it allows for covariates that act as controls. These controls are intended to make findings less skewed and more generalizable. Robinson et al. (2004) used age and gender as controls. Findings revealed that there were statistically significant relationships between gender and spectator type with motives and points of attachment, but the average variance explained was not substantial. In this case, the findings suggested that there is no need to adjust marketing plans —in terms of motives and points of attachment— based on gender and spectator type.

Thus far, this review of literature has provided an overview of brand equity and extension research in sport and in other areas of research. Despite the proliferation research, predicting how different variables will relate to brand extension evaluations and success remains an uncertainty. Various dimensions such as parent brand strength, perceived fit/similarity, authenticity and innovativeness have all been shown to impact brand extension evaluation to varying degrees. Individual identity within a group may preempt all of these dimensions of brand extension evaluation and how consumers evaluate extensions, and therefore how extensions will impact brand equity and consumer behavior intentions. The factors that relate to brand extension evaluation may differ depending on the nature of the extension. The proceeding section of this review of literature introduces esport as an emerging segment of the sport industry that merits study in a brand extension and brand equity context.

Esport

Esport is a growing segment of the sport industry that is gaining traction among sport management researchers. One of the earliest works of esport research in sport management literature came from Lee and Schoenstedt (2011). Prior early research on esports, gaming was

primarily relevant to sport management only via SVGs. SVGs are games where the game play is

a form of traditional sport, such as a football game where gamers, either alone or competing with

other gamers, control virtual representations of football players. SVG researchers examined

SVGs in terms such as the effectiveness of in game advertisements (Cianfrone, Zhang, Trail, &

Lutz, 2008), gamer motives (Cianfrone & Zhang, 2013), and issues regarding use of athletes

likenesses in games (Cianfrone & Baker, 2010). While esports include SVGs they should not be

considered the same thing. SVG research is primarily focused on gamers. Whereas, esport

research deals with competitive (amateur and professional) gamers who compete in organized

competitions, and the spectators who watch these competitions. Additionally, while esport can

include specific SVGs (e.g., basketball video games, soccer video games), not all esports games

are SVGs. Some popular esport games are SVGs (e.g., FIFA, NBA 2K), but the most popular

esport games are not SVGs (e.g., League of Legends, Fortnite, Super Smash Brothers, Street

Fighter, Call of Duty). The genre of the video game is not what makes esport a sport.

If the genre of the game (being a SVG) is not what makes esport a sport, then one may

reasonably wonder what makes esport a sport? In other words, how can a first-person shooter or

a multiplayer online fighting game with mages and tanks be considered a sport? Discussions

about whether esport is a sport, and thus appropriate for sport researchers to study, has been one

of the recurring themes in the limited body of esport research to date. Kane and Spradley (2017)

broached this topic by comparing esport to the Dictionaries (n.d.) definition of sport as "an

activity involving physical exertion and skill in which an individual or team competes against

another or others for entertainment". Kane and Spradley (2017) argued that esports meets the

criteria set forth by the dictionary definition of sport. Skill is evident based on the rankings and

win loss records that quantify players' skill level. Entertainment is evident in the esport

competitions that attract spectators. Evidence of physical exertion can be seen via basal

metabolic rate (MET), which has been shown to elevate to between four and nine fold in both

males and females while playing video games (Kane & Spradley, 2017).

Holden et al. (2017) took a more litigious approach to determine the validity of

considering esport to be a sport. They applied 14 legal tests that can be used to determine if an

activity can be considered a sport in the United States. Esport was found to meet almost all of the

criteria for being a sport set forth by each of the 14 legal definitions of sport (Holden et al.,

2017). Even amongst those who accept esport as a sport, esports are sometimes differentiated

from other sports which are referred to as traditional sports. Whether an individual agrees with

defining esport as a sport, there is a growing acceptance esport in sport research, and for

considering esport to be a sport (Cunningham et al., 2018; Funk et al., 2018; Heere, 2018).

The acceptance of esport as a sport is further evidenced by the nature of esport related

research in sport literature. Esport research is still sparse but is increasing. Furthermore, many

esport studies have moved on from the debate about esport being a sport to consider other topics.

For instance, after demonstrating why esports should be legally considered as sports, Holden et

al. (2017) go on to discuss the ramifications of recognizing esport as a sport. Recognizing esport

as a sport will be accompanied by litigation and regulation concerns (Holden et al., 2017).

Demonstrating the dearth of esports research, other studies have pointed out the potential

implications of esport acceptance and proposed areas for future esport research (Cunningham et

al., 2018; Funk et al., 2018; Llorens, 2017). Funk et al. (2018) identified five areas of governance

challenges that practitioners and researchers will likely need to address: (a) collegiate sport, (b)

legal issues of esport as sport, (c) labor issues, (d) diversity and gaming culture, and (e) who

owns esport. Other researchers have conceptualized the future areas of interest and research

needs similarly (Cunningham et al., 2018; Hallmann & Giel, 2018). Another area of potential future research is esports venues and the licensing, equipment, personnel, and funding issues that will accompany esport specific venues (Jenny et al., 2018). As an example, in terms of legal issues, esport research will likely address questions about gambling, as has been the case for fantasy sports (Drayer, Dwyer, & Shapiro, 2013).

Of the five areas identified Funk et al. (2018), collegiate sport is an area that has received some attention from esport researchers (Nite, Ige, & Washington, 2018; Schaeperkoetter et al., 2017). This could be due to the growth of organized and recognized esport competition in North America. In the United States, Robert Morris University started the trend of awarding scholarships for esports athletes, and other universities have since officially recognized esport programs and offered academic and athletic esport scholarships (Moore, 2017; Weller, 2016). In North America, approximately 50 universities have official esport programs that belong to the esport collegiate governing body, the National Association of Collegiate Esport (Morrison, 2018). Schaeperkoetter et al. (2017) interviewed 33 collegiate esport student athletes with scholarships to explore the role of athlete identity and social capital in relation to esport student athletes. Athlete identity is the degree to which someone considers themselves to be an athlete. Social capital is the communal benefits that derive from networks of relationships that develop in a community (Adler & Kwon, 2002; Misener & Mason, 2006; Misener & Schulenkorf, 2016; Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Overall, the results showed that esport student athletes identified as athletes and perceived esports as providers of social capital (Schaeperkoetter et al., 2017).

In addition to collegiate esport research, early esport studies have examined a few other areas. Research on athlete and spectator motivations has received much of the early attention from esport researchers. As traditional sport entities attempt to capitalize on esport popularity,

there is a need to better understand esport consumers. In some ways there are demographic

similarities between esport consumers and traditional sport consumers. For instance, esport fans

are predominately male, especially when the esport game is a sport game (e.g., FIFA Online)

(Pizzo et al., 2018). However, females should not be excluded from the esport demographic.

Females are one of the fastest growing segments of the esport market, especially in terms of live

spectators (Paaßen, Morgenroth, & Stratemeyer, 2016). Esport consumers are also a particularly

attractive demographic because of their youth. 54% of the entire esport demographic is between

ages 21-35 and are harder to market to via traditional streams (e.g., TV, print ads) (Newzoo,

2016). However, despite some similarities, there are also potential differences between

gamers/esport consumers and traditional sport consumers. For example, esport fans are not

always traditional sport fans. In the U.S., only about 66% of esport fans say they also watch

football (Nielsen, 2017). Consequently, there is a need to understand why and how an individual

becomes an esport consumer.

Lee and Schoenstedt (2011) were among the first to consider motivations to consumer

esport in comparison to traditional sport. The authors surveyed a sample of 515 college students.

The motives of consuming esports were found to overlap with motivations to consume

traditional sport, but there were differences (e.g., game participation, team merchandise

purchase). While Lee and Schoenstedt (2011) considered motivation for consumption broadly,

Hamari and Sjöblom (2017) were specifically interested in understanding motivation for

watching esports online (not in person). Hamari and Sjöblom (2017) surveyed 888 participants

on their motivations for watching esport. The authors used an adapted version of the motivation

scale for sports consumption (MSSC) (Trail, 2012; Trail & James, 2001) . Escapism, acquiring

knowledge about the games, novelty, and esport athlete aggressiveness were the motives that
were shown to predict esport spectatorship (Hamari & Sjöblom, 2017).

Pizzo et al. (2018) also examined esport spectator motives to understand how similar they
are to traditional sport spectator motives. They collected spectators' motives in South Korea in a
traditional sport context (soccer) and two esport contexts (FIFA and Star Craft II). Their analysis
revealed that motivation patterns were similar for 11 of the 15 potential motivations for both
traditional sport and esport spectatorship (Pizzo et al., 2018). Findings such as these, along with
esport athletes self-identifying as athletes, suggests that there are similarities between esports and
traditional sports. However, there is still limited esport research, and as the esport industry grows
further research is required to fully understand how esports function overall and in relation to
traditional sport.

Esport as Brand Extensions

Esport may be similar to traditional sport, but this does not mean that esport fans will
identify as traditional sport fans, just as a traditional sport fan (e.g., a football fan, a basketball
fan) may not identify as an esport fan. An individual who identifies as a traditional sport fan, a
gamer, and a SVG gamer might still not identify as an esport fan. Therefore, any strategic
business and marketing decisions that seek to pair traditional sport with esport should consider if
there is a sufficient fit between esport fans and traditional sport fans. This consideration would
be particularly important in the case of an esport related brand extension. To date, there are no
studies on esport related brand extensions. As previously discussed there are many factors that
can influence brand extensions, and ultimately brand equity or consumer behavior. Given the
growth of esport and the potential to profit, it is understandable that traditional sport franchises
would be interested in creating esport brand extensions to enter the esport industry. However,

because brand extension evaluation can be influenced by so many things, there is also great risk. For instance, perceived fit of an extension brand with the parent brand is one of the common dimensions that impact brand extension evaluation. If an esport brand extension is perceived as having low fit, then the extension evaluation could suffer. A poorly evaluated extension could have consequences for the parent firm's brand equity or the sub-brands equity. Not only could a poorly evaluated esport brand extension have brand equity consequences, it could have financial implications as well.

Summary of Review of Literature

This review of literature discussed brand equity and brand extensions, which are two important topics for academics and brand managers. Brand equity was discussed first because improved brand equity is the ultimate ideal outcome of any brand management strategy, especially when a firm's product is a consumer service (Berry, 2000; Gladden & Funk, 2001; Keller, 1993). In addition to improving brand equity, brand extensions can change the meaning of and relevance of a brand in the minds of consumers (Spiggle et al., 2012). Keller (1993) provided one of the seminal explanations of the dimensions that affect brand equity. According to Keller (1993), brand awareness and brand image are determinants of brand equity. Aaker (1996) provided the other foundational explanation of brand equity, stating that brand equity is determined by: (a) brand awareness, (b) brand associations, (c) perceived quality, (d) brand loyalty. However, as the review of brand equity literature showed, the relative importance of these dimensions of brand equity is not agreed upon and differs depending on circumstance and industry (Table 2.1). Regardless of how brand equity is measured, its importance in brand management should not be ignored.

Next this review of literature professed a summary of research on brand extensions due to their frequent use as a brand management strategy in sport. Following the pattern of the brand equity section, the discussion of brand extensions introduced the traditional dimensions of brand extension evaluation: parent brand quality/strength, and perceived fit (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Broniarczyk & Alba, 1994; Loken & John, 1993). Again, parent brand quality/strength is differentiated from brand equity because brand equity is an oncome of a brand management strategy, such as a brand extension. Despite the established significant influence of parent brand strength and perceived fit, other studies identified new dimensions of brand extension evaluation or conflicted on the importance of parent brand strength and perceived fit (Bhat & Reddy, 2001; Sunde & Brodie, 1993). Dimensions such as parent brand breadth/size (Boush & Loken, 1991; Dall'Olmo Riley et al., 2014; Sheinin & Schmitt, 1994), perceived brand image fit (Martínez et al., 2009), extension similarity (Taylor & Bearden, 2003), innovativeness (Srivastava & Sharma, 2012), authenticity (Spiggle et al., 2012), and identification (Pina et al., 2010; Prados-Peña & del Barrio-García, 2018) have all been shown to influence brand extension evaluation. Therefore, despite the extensive research on both brand equity and brand extensions, there is still inconsistency in which dimensions best represent those concepts. Decisions about how to measure brand equity and brand extensions may depend on research context.

Based on the need for brand extension and brand equity research in new contexts, the review of literature introduced esport as a new area of research that could advance the body of literature on brand extensions, brand equity, and prove useful to sport brand managers. Esport represents a rapidly growing segment of the sport industry that provides attractive business opportunities to brand managers (Cunningham et al., 2018). With the relative newness of esport there is limited research, but there is potential to research esport from a sport management

perspective in several ways (Funk et al., 2018). To date, esport has not been studied from a brand extension perspective.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

Esport is a growing segment of the sport industry and could benefit from increased scholarly research. Brand equity is a valuable commodity for organizations, especially in consumer-driven industries such as sport. Although many frameworks and models conceptualize and measure brand equity in sport, the TAS model was accepted and implemented by many researchers (Gladden & Funk, 2001; Kunkel et al., 2017). The TAS model is a useful tool for measuring brand equity, but has not been applied in an esport study. This study adapted the TAS and added other brand associations to conceptualize brand equity for an esport organization. Measuring brand equity is important because it can be influenced by consumer evaluations of brand management strategies such as brand extensions. Like brand equity, there are many, sometimes conflicting, theoretical explanations and variables related to measuring brand extension evaluations. Understanding which variables determine consumer evaluation of an esport extension, the influence of extension evaluation on extension brand equity, and the influence of self-identification were the underlying purposes of this research. The NBA's new venture into esport, specifically an NBA 2K team that joined the league in 2019, provided an ideal case for research related to these purposes.

This chapter was arranged to explain methods used to address the purposes of the research. First, I introduced a model and corresponding research questions and hypotheses. Next, I discussed the survey instrument used for data analysis. Then, I described the study design and

sampling procedures. Finally, I outlined the psychometric evaluation and data analysis

procedures.

Proposed Model and Hypotheses

I proposed a theoretically driven model (Figure 3.1) to examine (1) factors that may

determine consumers' esport brand extension evaluations, (2) the relationship between

evaluations and extension brand equity, and (3) the impact of identification on extension brand

equity. Due to various theoretical conceptualizations and factors that have been shown to impact

consumer evaluations of brand extensions, a purpose of this research was to understand the

significance of traditional and alternative factors shown to influence extension evaluation. As

such, I developed a conceptual model to explain esport extensions. First, five factors are

proposed to impact brand extension evaluation (Perceived Quality, Image Fit, Categorical Fit,

Innovativeness, and Authenticity). Of these, three are deemed traditional factors (Perceived

Quality, Image fit, and Categorical Fit) and two are added (Innovativeness and Authenticity). If

traditional factors such as fit and parent brand quality explain the most variance in extension

evaluation, then esport brand extensions may not be entirely different than traditional consumer

product brand extensions, and theoretical explanations based on categorization and congruity

would be applicable. Conversely, if alternative factors prove to be the most significant then

findings would corroborate the notion that sport and esport brand extensions are unique and may

require unique theoretical explanations. The proposed model addressed the first research

question (RQ$_1$) and led to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: The Perceived Quality (of the parent brand) variable will have a significant

positive influence on Extension Evaluation.

Hypothesis 2: The Categorical Fit variable will have a significant positive influence on

Extension Evaluation.

Hypothesis 3: The Image Fit variable will have a significant positive influence on

Extension Evaluation.

Hypothesis 4: The Authenticity variable will have a significant positive influence on

Extension Evaluation.

Hypothesis 5: The Innovativeness variable will have a significant positive influence on

Extension Evaluation.

Next, because consumer attitudes can influence brand equity, and strong brand equity is a

desired outcome of a brand extension, the model includes the path of extension evaluations on

extension brand equity to determine the relationship between the two (RQ_2). Analysis of the

model addressed the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 6: The Extension Evaluation variable will have a significant positive

influence on Extension Brand Equity.

Finally, the role of self-identification was also included in this research because of the

link between social identities and attitudes. The proposed model accounted for how identification

with the team (parent brand) and identification with the sport (basketball) may moderate the

influence of extension evaluation on extension brand equity. The following hypotheses pertain to

RQ_3 and are also assessed in the model.

Hypothesis 7: Respondent's level of identification with the sport will have a significant

positive influence on Extension Brand Equity.

Hypothesis 8: Respondent's level of identification with the team will have a significant

positive influence on Extension Brand Equity.

Hypothesis 9: Respondent's level of identification with both the team and sport will

moderate the relationship between Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity.
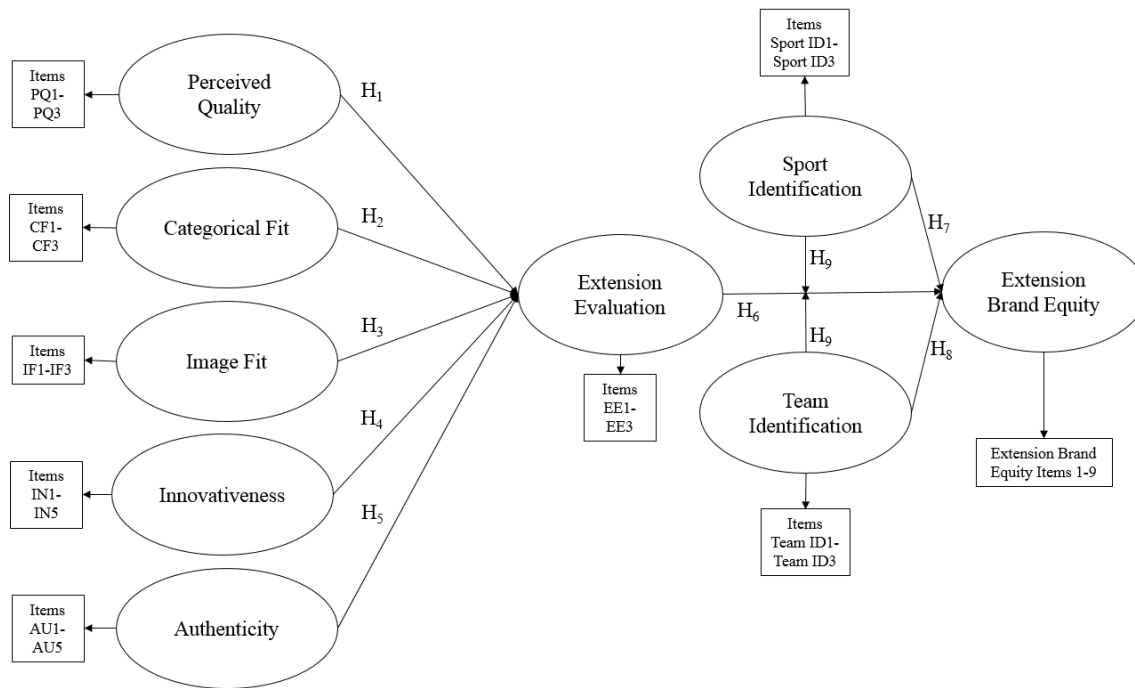
Figure 3.1. Esport Brand Extension Model.

Survey Instrument

Each of the nine latent constructs in the proposed model are measured via observed

variables (43 survey items) that correspond with the survey construct, as shown in Table 3.1 and

Figure 3.1. Those items used the *strongly disagree* and *strongly agree* anchors on a seven-point

Likert scale. The entire survey consisted of 61-items developed to measure respondents'

assessments of constructs in the proposed model: extension evaluation factors, overall extension

evaluation, extension brand equity (measured by extension brand associations), team

identification, and sport identification. Items pertaining to other forms of identification (e.g.,

esport identification) and consumer behaviors were included in the survey for descriptive

purposes, but not utilized to test the model. When possible, scales consisted of items adapted

from existing research. Original items were necessary at points due to the lack of esport research;

however, original items were still informed by existing research and theory. The NBA parent

brand that was the focus of this research aided with survey distribution. Three items were added

at the NBA franchise's request. After testing the reliability and validity of the survey instrument,

mean scores of scales were calculated. The measures and respective items used in the survey

instrument are detailed in the following sections and are all shown in Table 3.1.

Perceived quality. Brand strength/quality was one of the initial variables of brand

extension evaluation proposed by Aaker and Keller (1990). Brand strength, or quality, is

reflected by consumers' overall feelings about the reputation and level of superiority of a brand.

Originally, perceived quality and strength were applied to consumer goods (Aaker & Keller,

1990), but have also been used in sport management research (Apostolopoulou, 2002a; Walsh &

Ross, 2010). Although perceived quality is a traditional variable that influences extension

evaluations, it can be confused with brand equity, which is an outcome of extension evaluation.

Rather than measuring brand equity based on awareness and specific associations, perceived

quality is meant to evaluate overall attitude (of the parent brand) that results from assessments

about the level of superiority or excellence of a product (Aaker & Keller, 1990). To further

differentiate perceived quality from brand equity, this survey assessed perceived quality of the

parent brand while brand associations were used to measure perceived brand equity of the

extension brand. Extension brand evaluations can also benefit, or suffer, due to "spillover

effects" from existing attitudes about the parent brand (Chun et al., 2015). Based on this

differentiation of parent brand perceived quality and extension brand equity, three items (PQ1–

PQ3) were adapted from or created based on existing research to measure Perceived Quality

(Chun et al., 2015; Hem, Iversen, & Olsen, 2014; Martinez et al., 2009; Walsh & Williams,

2017). Each respondent received a mean score for Perceived Quality (PQ1–PQ3).

Image fit and categorical fit. Perceived fit is the belief among consumers that the parent brand's good/services are similar and consistent with the extension brand's goods/services (Park et al., 1991). Originally, perceived fit referred to categorical fit, which is the similarity between parent brand product category and extension brand product category (Aaker & Keller, 1990). However, brand image fit is the belief among consumers that the image/associations of the parent brand are similar to the extension brand (Kim, 2015). Three items (IF1–IF3) were adapted from existing research for measuring Image Fit (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Martinez et al., 2009; Taylor & Bearden, 2002). The Image Fit factor used by Martinez et al. (2009) showed good validity and reliability ($\alpha = .94$). For measuring Categorical Fit, one item (CF1) was adapted from Dall'Olmo Riley et al. (2014), while two items (CF2 and CF3) were original but grounded in prior research (Aaker & Keller, 1990; Taylor & Bearden, 2002).

Innovativeness. Based on schema incongruity theory, the innovativeness of an extension is another potential variable that may relate to extension evaluation (Chun et al., 2015). Using existing research (Pina et al., 2010; Roehrich, 1995), five original items (IN1–IN5) were created to measure Innovativeness of the brand extension.

Authenticity. Authenticity measured respondents' perceptions that the brand extension is genuine and sustains the unique essence of the parent brand (Spiggle et al., 2012). Because authenticity of an extension may be another variable with a significant relation to extension evaluation, one original item (AU5) and four adapted items (AU1–AU4) were included to measure Authenticity in the survey instrument based on research by Spiggle et al. (2012).

Extension evaluation. Extension Evaluation, or attitude toward the extension, was assessed based on three items adapted from prior research. One item (EE1) was adapted from Hem et at. (2014) because their item was intended to measure overall extension category attitude

for tangible consumer goods rather than a sport brand extension. Two other items (EE2 and EE3)

were adapted from previous research to fit the context of this study (Barta & Homer, 2004;

Walsh & Williams, 2017).

      Extension brand equity. Extension Brand Equity was calculated based on respondents'

measured extension brand associations. Several brand association items were based on the TAS

originally created by Gladden & Funk (2001). Single item measures were used for each

extension brand association. Kunkel et al. (2017) also used single items to measure TAS based

associations because the multi item version of the TAS has been utilized in previous research

(Doyle, Filo, et al., 2013; Gladden & Funk, 2001; Kunkel et al., 2016). Some adaptations were

made to the TAS based items to fit the context of the study. Additionally, some items (head

coach, management, tradition, star player, nostalgia) were omitted as they were not applicable to

the esport extension in this study. The Team Success (TS) item was original, but is based on the

team success measure from the TAS (Kunkel et al., 2017). The commitment and organizational

attributes items were original but based on associations from the TBAS (Ross et al., 2006). In

total, there were nine associations in the Extension Brand Equity construct. Based on the lack of

esport brand equity research, the creation of a new scale to measure Extension Brand Equity was

appropriate. Respondents were made aware of the extension through the survey instrument. An

Extension Brand Equity construct was calculated for each respondent using a mean score of all

nine extension brand associations. The mean score of Extension Brand Equity for the entire

sample was also calculated and reported with the descriptive results.

      Consumer behavioral intentions. Consumer behavioral intentions were assessed based

on intention to watch TV, purchase merchandise, and attend games for both the parent brand and

the extension brand. Items are adapted to fit the context of this study from single item measures

of team behavioral intentions from Kunkel et al. (2017). Parent Brand Behavioral Intentions (PBBI) reflect intentions to consumer the NBA team's product, and Extension Brand Behavioral Intentions (EBBI) reflect intentions to consume the esport team's product. Because all NBA 2K League competition occurs in New York City studios, the Games item, measuring intention to attend an esport competition in person, for EBBI had to be altered based on this study's esport context.

Identification. A component of this study was to determine how identification with the team or sport may moderate the impact of esport extension evaluations on esport extension brand equity. Individuals can self-categorize themselves based on their social identities, which is important to understand as identifications can relate to brand equity perceptions and brand extension evaluations (Tajfel, 1982; Underwood et al., 2001).

A three-item scale was adapted from Trail, Robinson, Dick, and Gillentine (2003) to measure identification with the NBA basketball team (Team ID) and with basketball (Sport ID). Respondents who highly identify with the team or basketball in general may be more likely to have favorable extension evaluations. Single item measures were created to measure other forms of identification that may be relevant to an esport study. Sport Video Gamer ID (SVG ID), NBA 2K ID (NBA2K ID), Gamer ID, and esport ID were created based on prior research (Fink, Parker, Brett, & Higgins, 2009; Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2002; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Trail et al., 2003). These single item measures are not represented in the model or the primary data analysis of this study. However, these additional identification items were included to better understand the esport market, which may be applicable to future esport research.

Demographics and other items. At the beginning of the survey, a qualifier item was presented to verify that only adults (aged 18 or older) were included in the survey. Demographic

items allowed respondents to identify their age, gender, race or ethnicity, and the state they

reside. For recording purposes, participants were asked to identify where they received the

survey link (e.g., Reddit, Facebook).

Three items were created and added to the survey due to requests from the NBA

franchise. They were concerned with awareness ("Before taking this survey, I was already

familiar with <esport team name>"), influence on consumption ("Because the <NBA team> have

an esport team I am more likely to play NBA 2K"), and overall consumption ("What sport video

games do you play?", "On average, how many hours do you spend playing sport video games per

week?", "On average, how many hours do you spend gaming (non-sport video games) per

week?" and "On average, how many hours do you spend watching NBA basketball per week

during basketball season?"). These are not represented in the model or subsequent analysis, but

were included to better understand the sample and potential target markets of an esport

extension.

Table 3.1

Survey Scales and Items

Factor	*Source*
Brand Extension Factors	
Perceived Quality (PQ)	
PQ1: Altogether, I think of way <The NBA team> in a positive way	Hem et al. (2014)
PQ2: The <NBA team> are a high quality organization	Chun et al. (2015), Martinez et al. (2009)
PQ3: The <NBA team> Organization has a good reputation	Carlson and Donovan (2013), Martinez et al. (2009), Walsh and Williams (2017)
Image Fit (IF)	
IF1: The <NBA team's> esport team fits with the <NBA team's> brand image	Aaker and Keller (1990), Martinez et al. (2009), Taylor and Bearden (2002)
IF2: Launching the <NBA team's esport team> is logical for the <NBA team>	Aaker and Keller (1990), Martinez et al. (2009), Taylor and Bearden (2002)
IF3: Launching the <NBA team's esport team> is appropriate for the <NBA team>	Aaker and Keller (1990), Martinez et al. (2009), Taylor and Bearden (2002)
Categorical Fit (CF)	

CF1: The \<NBA team's esport team\> is similar to the \<NBA team's\> product	Dall'Olmo Riley et al. (2014)
CF2: esports and NBA basketball both fit in the category of sports	Aaker and Keller (1990), Taylor and Bearden (2002)
CF3: An esport team is a natural fit with a sport organization	Aaker and Keller (1990), Taylor and Bearden (2002)

Innovativeness (IN)

IN1: The idea of an \<NBA team\> esport team is innovative	Chun et al. (2015), Pina et al. (2010), Roehrich (1995)
IN2: The \<esport team\> is a creative extension of the \<NBA team\>	Chun et al. (2015), Pina et al. (2010), Roehrich (1995)
IN3: The \<NBA team\> extension into esport is clever	Chun et al. (2015), Pina et al. (2010), Roehrich (1995)
IN4: The \<NBA team's\> esport venture is imaginative	Chun et al. (2015), Pina et al. (2010), Roehrich (1995)
IN5: The \<NBA team's\> esport extension is innovative	Chun et al. (2015), Pina et al. (2010), Roehrich (1995)

Authenticity (AU)

AU1: The style of the \<esport team\> seems to reflect that of the \<NBA team\>	Spiggle et al. (2012)
AU2: There is no link between the \<esport team\> and what I know about the \<NBA team's\> legacy	Spiggle et al. (2012)
AU3: The \<esport team\> captures what makes the \<NBA team\> unique to me	Spiggle et al. (2012)
AU4: With the \<esport team\>, it seems that the \<NBA team\> were more concerned about preserving the brand rather than growing the market	Spiggle et al. (2012)
AU5: The \<esport team\> is an authentic extension of the \<NBA team\> brand	Spiggle et al. (2012)

Extension Evaluation (EE)

EE1: Overall, I feel very positive about the \<esport team\>	Hem et al. (2014)
EE2: I have a favorable attitude towards the \<esport team\>	Barta and Homer (2004), Walsh and Williams (2017)
EE3: I have positive feelings about the \<esport team\>	Barta and Homer (2004), Walsh and Williams (2017)

Extension Brand Equity

Team Success (TS): I believe that team success is a priority for the \<esport team\>	Kunkel et al. (2017)
Logo and Colors (LC): I like the logo and colors of the \<esport team\>	Doyle, Filo, et al. (2013), Gladden and Funk (2001), Kunkel et al. (2017)
Socialization (SOC): The \<esport team\> will provide the chance to socialize and interact with friends and others	Doyle, Filo, et al. (2013), Gladden and Funk (2001), Kunkel et al. (2017)
Commitment (COMIT): I plan to regularly follow the \<esport team\>	Ross et al. (2006)
Organizational Attributes (OA): The \<esport team\> cares about their fans	Ross et al. (2006)
Community Pride (CMP): The \<esport team\> brings prestige to \<city name\>	Doyle, Filo, et al. (2013), Gladden and Funk (2001), Kunkel et al. (2017)
Diversion (DIV): The \<esport team\> will provide me with a break from my daily routine	Doyle, Filo, et al. (2013), Gladden and Funk (2001), Kunkel et al. (2017)

Excitement (EXC): Following the <esport team> will be very exciting	Doyle, Filo, et al. (2013), Gladden and Funk (2001), Kunkel et al. (2017)
Peer Group Acceptance (PGA): I will follow the <esport team> because my friends like them too	Doyle, Filo, et al. (2013), Gladden and Funk (2001), Kunkel et al. (2017)

Consumer Behavioral Intentions

Parent Brand Behavioral Intentions (PBBI)

PBBI Games: How many <NBA team> games do you intend to attend next season (2019-2020)?	Kunkel et al. (2017)
PBBI Merchandise: How much money you intend to spend on <NBA team> merchandise in the next year?	Kunkel et al. (2017)
PBBI TV: How many <NBA team> games you intend to watch live on TV next season (2019-2020)?	Kunkel et al. (2017)

Extension Brand Behavioral Intentions (EBBI)

EBBI Games: If the <esport team> opens an esport studio at <NBA team's arena name>, how many NBA 2K Live games you would attend and watch live in-studio next season (2020, maximum of 8 regular season home games)	Kunkel et al. (2017)
EBBI Merchandise: How much money you intend to spend on <esport team> merchandise in the next year?	Kunkel et al. (2017)
EBBI TV: How many <esport team> NBA 2K League games (out of 15) you intend to watch live on Twitch, or any other platform, next season (2020)?	Kunkel et al. (2017)

Identification

Team ID

Team ID1: I consider myself a "real" fan of the <NBA team>	Trail, Robinson, Dick, and Gillentine (2003)
Team ID2: I would experience a loss if I had to stop being a fan of the <NBA team> basketball team	Trail, Robinson, Dick, and Gillentine (2003)
Team ID3: Being a fan of the <NBA team> is very important to me	Trail, Robinson, Dick, and Gillentine (2003)

Sport ID

Sport ID1: First and foremost, I consider myself a basketball fan	Trail, Robinson, Dick, and Gillentine (2003)
Sport ID2: Basketball is my favorite sport	Trail, Robinson, Dick, and Gillentine (2003)
Sport ID3: I am a basketball fan at all levels (e.g. high school, college, professional)	Trail, Robinson, Dick, and Gillentine (2003)

Sport Video Gamer ID (SVG ID)

SVG ID1: First and foremost, I consider myself a sport video game fan	Fink et al. (2009), Fink et al. (2002), Robinson and Trail (2005) Trail et al. (2003)

NBA 2K ID (NBA2K ID)

NBA2K ID3: I prefer to play NBA 2K over other sport video games	Fink et al. (2009), Fink et al. (2002), Robinson and Trail (2005) Trail et al. (2003)

Gamer ID

Gamer ID3: I identify as a gamer in general rather than as a specific type of gamer	Fink et al. (2009), Fink et al. (2002), Robinson and Trail (2005) Trail et al. (2003)

esport ID

| esport ID2: Being an esport fan is important to me | Fink et al. (2009), Fink et al. (2002), Robinson and Trail (2005) Trail et al. (2003) |

Demographics and Other Items

Demographics
Age: What is your age?
Gender: I identify my gender as
Race: I identify my race or ethnic heritage as
(choose one or more options)
Hispanic: Are you of Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish
origin? (choose one option)
State: What state do you live in?
Other Items
Extension Awareness: Before taking this survey, I
was already familiar with <esport team>
Play 2K: Because the <NBA team> have an esport
team, I am more likely to play NBA 2K
Play SVGs: On average, how many hours do you
spend playing sport video games per week?
Play Games: On average, how many hours do you
spend gaming (non-sport video games) per week?
Watch NBA: On average, how many hours do you
spend watching NBA basketball per week during
basketball season?
Other Games: What sport video games do you play?
(choose as many as apply)

Design and Sampling

To address the purposes of this research, a cross-sectional design using an online survey

was created and disseminated using Qualtrics online software. The survey protected respondent

anonymity because no personally identifiable information was stored. There were several reasons

that informed my decision to use an online survey instrument. An online survey instrument

allowed for more design options and flexibility, greater control over data, and useful data

reporting tools using the online software (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014). Additionally, an

online survey was easily accessed at a respondent's leisure, saved on survey distributions costs,

and reduced paper waste.

Several steps were taken to ensure the instrument was user friendly and soundly

designed. In terms of presentation, I designed the survey to be visually comprehensible on

tablets, desktops, and mobile devices. Designing surveys that are displayed clearly on mobile

devices is challenging, but should not be overlooked due to the growth in use of mobile devices

(Rainie, Smith, & Duggan, 2013). In accordance with Dillman et al.'s (2014) question order

guidelines, items that were most salient to the research (e.g., qualifiers and disqualifiers) were

placed at the beginning of the survey. In further consideration of the survey design, steps were

taken to mitigate carryover order effects by separating items that measure the same factor, and

Likert items are measured on a consistent one-to-seven scale.

A purposive sampling technique was employed to gather a large sample that was

consistent with the esport demographic and the context and purposes of this research, but was

also broad and diverse due to the lack of knowledge about the target market for an NBA 2K

extension. As brand extensions are a brand management strategy designed to attract new

consumers, an NBA esport extension can appeal to NBA team fans and esport fans or video

gamers (whether they play NBA 2K or are fans of other esport games) to attract them as

consumers (Aldridge, 2018). As discussed earlier, the size and spending power of the esport

market make it attractive to brand managers. Because esport fans tend to be younger, and

consume less traditional media, esport extensions are a tempting means to attract hard to reach

younger consumers. Therefore, while the survey was available to adults age 18 and older, I

focused my sampling on respondents who were representative of the traditional sport

organization's consumers and those who broadly fit the esport demographic. Traditionally, the

esport demographic has been characterized as 13 to 40-year-old males (Mitrevski, 2017; Nielsen,

2017). However, due to the consumer behavior component of this research I limited my sample

to adults aged 18 and older. Furthermore, females are a growing segment of the esport market

and should not be excluded from esport research. Female esport fans may also be more attracted

to traditional sport esport games than some other games. FIFA has the highest percentage (32%) of female fans among all of the most popular esport games, while Counter-Strike, a first-person shooter game, has just 10% female fans (Nielsen, 2017). The NBA franchise's target market can also include video gamers who are not esport fans. For instance, a gamer may play NBA 2K but not be an esport fan (i.e., does not watch or participate in competitive and organized gaming). Certainly, there are similarities between esport fans and video gamers in general. In the U.S., esport fans spend 8.2 hours a week playing video games (Nielsen, 2017). However, there are also some differences. U.S. video gamers, who play regularly, are also mostly men (59%) although compared to esports, there are more women (41%) and the average age of men and women is older (44 years old) than the average esport fan. The sampling procedures described below were employed to ensure that the sample was broadly representative of the esport demographic and potential target market segments (e.g., younger, connected to esport, geographically proximate to the NBA franchise). However, to make the sample inclusive and representative of all segments that may exist within the NBA team's target market, the sample included all adults age 18 and older. A large and diverse sample of adults was appropriate given the lack of esport market research and potential segments that may exist within the target market.

The online survey, accessible via a survey link (e.g., esportsurvey.com), was distributed in two ways: (1) via email distributed to esport clubs/organizations, and (2) via links posted on social media forums, social media accounts, and group pages. Most of the survey distribution tactics targeted groups and organizations with ties to the NBA franchise's metropolitan area given the traditional geographic connection between sport franchises and their consumers. Remote data collection involved posting a link to the survey online. Esport fans use a variety of digital and social media platforms such as Reddit and Facebook (Takahashi, 2017). Therefore, I

posted survey links on various social media and digital outlets. There were specific Facebook

groups and Reddit pages for the NBA franchise, the franchise's city, and local esport related

pages. There were also university esport clubs and teams in the metropolitan area that have a

presence on Facebook and Twitter. Links to the survey were posted on relevant Reddit and

Facebook group pages or were shared by group members. I acquired permission from group

moderators or leaders to post or share a link to the survey.

The NBA franchise that is the focus of this study also participated in survey distribution.

After meeting with representatives of the NBA franchise, we agreed to collaborate on the

research. In return for access of the survey data and analysis, the NBA franchise agreed to send

the survey link to a selection of season ticket holders and past consumers. The NBA franchise

also posted survey links on their social media pages. Although the previously described sampling

techniques focus on the NBA franchise's geographic location, the survey link was shareable so

that respondents could share the survey with other potential participants that have an interest in

esports, basketball, or NBA 2K. Acquiring as large and diverse of a sample as possible was

appropriate because of the lack of knowledge about the target market of a esport brand extension

like an NBA 2K team. As an incentive for participation, respondents were given the opportunity

to win one of three gift cards to a popular video game store (Game Stop), or apparel from the

NBA 2K team. Respondents could provide their email address to enter a raffle for the gift cards

and team apparel. Email addresses were kept sperate from completed surveys to protect

respondent anonymity.

To organize the data, survey participants were invited to take the online survey via a link.

Potential respondents received a survey link, which they accessed through posted links, emails,

or shared links from other participants. The survey instrument itself, which I discuss in the

preceding section, also contained inclusion and exclusion measures to ensure the sample was appropriate for the aims of this study. Additional information about the survey and the data collection procedures can be found in the Appendices at the end of this document.

Survey Assessment

Before interpreting results, it is necessary to assess the reliability and validity of the survey instrument that is used in subsequent analysis of the proposed model. Subsequent analysis of the measurement model (observed variables used to create latent variables) is also necessary prior to analyzing the structural model and related hypotheses. The steps required to assess the survey instrument and measurement model are described below, and the results are reported in Chapter 4.

Psychometrics and confirmatory factor analysis. After collecting data, I assessed the reliability and validity of my survey instrument. Reliability was calculated to indicate if individual items that comprise a factor in the survey instrument (e.g., Image Fit) are being answered in a consistent way by respondents. For example, if a respondent marked "Strongly Agree" on each item related to the Image Fit factor, then this would suggest strong internal consistency. Cronbach's alphas were calculated for each survey factor to determine reliability of the items comprising each factor. A Cronbach's alpha greater than .70 is considered adequate to demonstrate internal consistency (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). Individual items may be removed to improve the reliability of a survey factor. If the Cronbach's alpha of a given factor cannot be sufficiently improved by removing items, then the factor may be excluded from subsequent analysis.

Once reliability was checked, and items were removed if needed, the survey instrument can be tested for validity. The results presented in Chapter 4 show if there was both convergent

and discriminant validity for each factor or construct. Convergent validity determines whether

items load onto a given factor/construct as suggested by the research design. Discriminant

validity represents if each factor is distinct from others. Convergent validity was tested using

average variance explained (AVE) to show how much a collection of items contributes to a given

factor in the survey instrument. Constructs with an AVE greater than .50, meaning that the items

in the construct explained more than 50% of the variance in that construct, could be retained

(Hair et al., 2010).

The correlations of any two constructs were squared to establish discriminant validity. If

the result of squaring the correlation between any two factors is less than the AVE of either

factor, then they can be regarded as distinct. If the result is greater than the AVE of either factor,

then discriminant validity cannot be proven (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The composite reliability

(CR) of each survey factor is also measured. After confirming reliability and validity of the

survey instrument and factors, it is then possible to calculate mean scores for those reliable and

valid constructs (Robinson et al., 2004).

After evaluating the psychometrics of the survey instrument, I analyzed the measurement

model using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Mplus 8 software was used to conduct the CFA

(Muthén & Muthén, 2018). Analysis of the measurement model (i.e., observed variables that are

shown to influence a latent variable as specified in the model) is necessary before structural

analysis can take place. Reliability of the constructs was examined with factor loadings to

determine if observed variables sufficiently explain the variance in the latent constructs they are

linked to. According to Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black (2002), factor loadings greater than or

equal to .707 are acceptable. Factor correlations were calculated to further assess discriminant

validity of the measurement model (i.e., that latent constructs are distinct). Inter-construct

correlations (ICC) should be lower than .90 (Holmes-Smith, 2009).

The next step in assessing the measurement model was to determine model fit. First

though, the assumption of multivariate normality was assessed. The normality of the data can

influence estimation method (e.g., maximum likelihood estimation, weighted least squares) and

how to deal with outliers or missing data in assessing the model. Normality was assessed prior to

evaluation of model fit. A variety of model fit indices should be used to assess the model fit (Hu

& Bentler, 1999). Some common model fit indices include: chi-square test (χ^2), root mean

square error of approximation (RMSEA), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), and

the comparative fit index (CFI). The criteria for goodness of fit for each model fit index are

shown in Table 3.2 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kiline, 2011; MaCallum, Browne, & Sugwara, 1996;

Muthén, 2001).

Based on the CFA and analysis of psychometrics, changes to the survey instrument and

measurement model were made if necessary. The survey instrument and model were also shared

with select sport management researchers, who have expertise in branding research. Their

recommendations were considered in making any modifications to the survey instrument or

measurement model.

Table 3.2

Model Fit Indices

Index Name	Criteria
Chi-square	≤ 2 good, > 3 possibly poor
RMSEA	$\leq .06$ good, $\leq .08$ acceptable, $\leq .10$ mediocre, $> .10$ poor
SRMR	$\leq .08$ good

CFI	.90-.94 adequate, ≥ .95 good

Data Analysis

Analysis of the structural model is possible after the measurement model shows adequate model fit that justifies the relationships between specific observed variables and latent variables as shown in the model. Structural equation modeling (SEM) is the second step of the "two step" approach. A "two step" approach is appropriate because it can address reliability and validity issues with the measurement model prior to analysis of the structural model (Bentler, 1978; Hair et al., 2002). In this second step, paths between latent constructs can be analyzed to understand the nature of their relationships to one another. A sample size of at least 200 respondents is ideal for conducting SEM (Hair et al., 2002). However, prior to structural analysis pertaining to the RQs and hypotheses, relevant descriptive statistics are reported at the beginning of Chapter 4. Descriptive statistics were calculated using SPSS Statistics 24 software. These descriptive statistics included data on the demographics of the sample (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity). After data screening, mean scores and other descriptive statistics for the entire sample are presented prior to the previously outlined psychometric evaluations and CFA. Following the psychometrics evaluation, and any necessary modifications, I present the sample's mean scores and standard deviations for the different constructs measured in the survey instrument (e.g., Extension Evaluation, Innovativeness, Extension Brand Equity).

Hypothesis testing. After reporting and discussing descriptive statistics, and after evaluating the soundness of the relationships between observed and latent variables in the measurement model, the paths between latent constructs in the structural model were analyzed to address hypotheses. The same cornucopia of model fit indices was applied to the structural model before the paths between latent constructs were examined. The model fit criteria shown in

Table 3.2 also determine whether the structural model shows good fit. Following the assessment

of fit, path analysis of the structural model was for hypothesis testing. The first RQ and related

hypotheses pertained to which latent variables (Perceived Quality, Categorical Fit, Image Fit,

Innovativeness, Authenticity) have a significant positive influence on Extension Evaluation. If

the direct paths between each of the variables (Perceived Quality, Categorical Fit, Image Fit,

Innovativeness, and Authenticity) and Extension Evaluation are each significant and positive,

then $H_1–H_5$ are supported. RQ_2 asked about the nature of the relationship between Extension

Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity. *Hypothesis 6* is supported if there is a positive,

significant relationship between Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity. Lastly, RQ_3

considered the potential influence of Team and Sport Identification on Extension Brand Equity,

and the potential moderating role that Team Identification and Sport Identification may have on

the relationship between the Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity latent constructs.

Hypothesis 7 is supported if Sport Identification has a significant positive influence on Extension

Brand Equity. *Hypothesis* 8 is supported if Team Identification has a significant positive

influence on Extension Brand Equity. For *Hypothesis 9*, regression analysis of the latent scores

was appropriate, where Extension Evaluation, Team Identification, Sport Identification, and a

Team/Sport Identification moderator act as the independent variables, and Extension Brand

Equity acts as the dependent variable. If the Team/Sport Identification moderator variable

significantly moderates the relationship between Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand

Equity, then *Hypothesis 9* is supported.

Summary

The research design and analysis described above build upon the previous review of

literature to propose a study that has both practical and theoretical merit. The newness and rapid

growth of esport research means that there is a new context within sport management to apply

traditional theoretical and established explanations about how brand extensions are evaluated. At

the same time, the newness of scholarly esport research in sport management presents an

opportunity to apply and test alternative explanations and theories for how consumers evaluate

brand extensions. The results and discussions on findings in the proceeding chapters highlight

the theoretical and practical relevance of this research.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

In Chapter 4 I will present the results of the study as follows. First, I will present

descriptive findings and explain the data screening process. Next, I show and discuss the results

of the previously described psychometric evaluation criteria for the survey instrument. I then

present the CFA results of the measurement model. Finally, I show the results of analysis of the

structural model, which is used to answer the Research Questions and Hypotheses of this

research.

Descriptive Statistics

A total of 316 respondents accessed the online survey. Six surveys were removed because

respondents were not at least 18 years old. An additional 113 surveys were removed due to

missing data. The remaining surveys were also checked for missing data. A Little's missing

completely at random (MCAR) test in SPSS 24 indicated that the missing data were likely

random ($\chi^2 = 845.62$, $df = 879$, $p > .05$). After screening the data, the final sample size was 195,

which was slightly below the recommended sample of at least 200 (Hair et al., 2002).

Demographic characteristics for the sample are shown below in Table 4.1. The average

age of respondents ($M = 32.2$, $SD = 12.22$) was slightly older than the traditional esport

consumer, but most respondents were under 30 years of age. Given that the NBA 2K esport

extension is brand new, a diverse sample that is representative of the NBA franchise's home

market, esport consumers, and traditional sport consumers is ideal. As shown in Table 4.1, the

sample contains demographic elements of each of these groups of potential consumers. Most of

the respondents (88.1%) lived within the NBA franchises' home state. Given that the majority of

esport fans are men, there was also strong gender diversity in the sample with 59.5% identifying

their gender as male and 26.2% as female.

      Table 4.2 presents data on consumer behavioral patterns and intentions of respondents.

Overall, respondents had light behavioral intentions towards the parent brand and extension

brand. Many respondents indicated that they planned to attend zero NBA franchise games

(32.9%). However, most indicated they would attend at least one game, and 38.7% of all

respondents indicated they would attend one to five games during the next NBA season. For the

extension brand, most respondents (56.7%) indicated they would not attend any NBA 2K games

in person if that were an option. Table 4.2 also shows that the sample was diverse in types of

consumers. There were large segments of the sample that did not spend any time per week

playing SVGs (43.1%), non SVGs (33.9%), or watching NBA basketball (24.6%). However, for

each of these areas of consumption, the majority of respondents were consumers, ranging from

light to heavy consumers.

      Finally, Table 4.3 displays the means and standard deviations for the 43 Likert items in

the survey. The means and standard deviations shown in Table 4.3 are representative of the

entire data set prior to any adjustments following psychographic analysis of the survey

instrument. The means and standard deviations of the Likert based variables, and items that

comprise each variable, are examined in greater detail in the following sections. Most of the

mean scores were moderate. Although not included in the model, the Extension Awareness item

(M = 3.18) and Play 2K item (M =3.54) were notably below the midpoint (4.0). SVG ID (M =

3.54), NBA 2K ID (M = 3.45), and esport ID (M = 3.80) were also somewhat low in comparison

to the moderate averages for the Team Identity and Sport Identity items. The Perceived Quality

items and Image Fit items were among the highest, with all mean scores being greater than five.

Table 4.1

Descriptive Statistics of Respondents

Variables	N	%
Age (M = 32.2)	167	
18-21	23	13.8
22-25	44	26.3
26-29	23	13.8
30+	77	46.1
Gender	195	
Male	116	59.5
Female	51	26.2
Other	2	1
Ethnicity	173	
White	95	54.9
Black or African American	54	31.2
Asian	11	6.4
Decline	5	2.9
American Indian/Alaskan Native	4	2.3
Other	3	1.7
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	1	0.6
Hispanic/Latino	167	
Yes	8	4.8
No	153	91.6
Decline	6	3.6
Residence	168	
Georgia	148	88.1

Florida	3	1.8
North Carolina	2	1.2
Kansas	2	1.2
Massachusetts	2	1.2
California	1	0.6
Illinois	1	0.6
Maryland	1	0.6
Missouri	1	0.6
New Jersey	1	0.6
New York	1	0.6
Ohio	1	0.6
Oklahoma	1	0.6
The Netherlands	1	0.6
Survey access source	195	
Reddit page	50	25.6
NBA team email	47	24.1
Friend/Colleague	26	13.3
Other	24	12.3
Club/organization	16	8.2
esport team social media account	12	6.2
Social media group	12	6.2
NBA team social media account	7	3.6
esport team email	1	0.5

Table 4.2

Descriptive Statistics of Respondents Consumer Behavior Characteristics and Intentions

Variables	*N*	*%*
Number of NBA team games to attend 2019-2020	155	
0 Games	51	32.9
1-5 Games	60	38.7
6-15 Games	13	8.4
16-35 Games	23	14.8
35+ Games	8	5.2
Money to spend on NBA team merchandise in next year	154	
$0	76	49.4
$1-$25	5	3.2
$26-$50	18	11.7

$51-$100	17	11
$101-$150	4	2.6
$151-$200	13	8.4
$201-$500	15	9.7
$1,000+	4	2.6

Number of NBA team games to watch on TV 2019-2020	152	
0 Games	38	25
1-5 Games	31	20.4
6-15 Games	23	15.1
16-40 Games	28	18.4
41-60 Games	15	9.9
60+ Games	17	11.2

Number of esport team games to attend if hosted at NBA team's arena	150	
0 Games	85	56.7
1-2 Games	34	22.7
3-4 Games	10	6.7
5-6 Games	6	4
7-8 Games	15	10

Money to spend on esport team merchandise in the next year	149	
$0	119	79.9
$5-$25	7	4.7
$30-75	10	6.7
$100-$500	12	8.1
$2,000	1	0.7

Number of esport team games to watch live next season	154	
0 Games	87	56.5
1-3 Games	30	19.5
4-5 Games	15	9.7
6-10 Games	9	5.8
11+ Games	13	8.4

Average hours per week playing non SVGs	168	
0 Hours	57	33.9
0.1-5 Hours	56	33.3
6-10 Hours	21	12.5
11-15 Hours	8	4.8
16-30 hours	24	14.3
60+ Hours	2	1.2

Average hours per week playing SVGs	167	
0 Hours	72	43.1
0.1-5 Hours	60	35.9
6-10 Hours	19	11.4
11-20 Hours	8	4.8
25-40 Hours	8	4.8
Average hours per week watching the NBA during basketball season	167	
0 Hours	41	24.6%
0.1-5 Hours	56	33.5%
6-10 Hours	38	22.8%
11-20 Hours	26	15.6%
21+ Hours	6	3.6%
Other Games Played (choose as many as apply)		
NBA2K (Selected by 61.9% of respondents)	78	28.8
FIFA (Selected by 47.6% of respondents)	60	22.1
Madden (Selected by 42.9% of respondents)	54	19.9
Other (Selected by 27% of respondents)	34	12.5
MLB The Show (Selected by 15.9% of respondents)	20	7.4
NHL (Selected by 13.5% of respondents)	17	6.3
EA UFC (Selected by 6.3% of respondents)	8	3

Table 4.3

Descriptive Statistics of Survey Items

Factor/Variable	Scale(s) and Item(s)	M	SD
Brand Extension	**Perceived Quality (PQ)**		
	PQ1	5.73	1.18
	PQ2	5.47	1.37
	PQ3	5.18	1.40
	Image Fit (IF)		
	IF1	5.02	1.20
	IF2	5.25	1.30
	IF3	5.21	1.38
	Categorical Fit (CF)		
	CF1	4.31	1.09
	CF2	4.79	1.83
	CF3	5.25	1.47
	Innovativeness (IN)		
	IN1	5.34	1.19
	IN2	5.37	1.26
	IN3	5.39	1.21
	IN4	5.10	1.24
	IN5	5.30	1.23

	Authenticity (AU)		
	AU1	4.52	1.10
	AU2	4.53	1.51
	AU3	4.13	1.36
	AU4	3.67	1.38
	AU5	5.00	1.15
Extension Evaluation (EE)	EE1	4.83	1.41
	EE2	4.58	1.57
	EE3	4.96	1.45
Extension Brand Equity	**Brand Associations**		
	Team Success (TS)	4.79	1.45
	Logo and Colors (LC)	5.06	1.22
	Socialization (SOC)	3.80	1.79
	Commitment (COMIT)	3.45	1.92
	Organizational Attributes (OA)	4.58	1.03
	Community Pride (CMP)	4.33	1.54
	Diversion (DIV)	3.58	1.71
	Excitement (EXC)	4.06	1.83
	Peer Group Acceptance (PGA)	2.91	1.70
Team and Sport Identification	**Team ID**		
	Team ID1	4.24	2.34
	Team ID2	4.18	2.29
	Team ID3	4.10	2.30
	Sport ID		
	Sport ID1	4.79	2.22
	Sport ID2	4.32	2.31
	Sport ID3	4.86	2.02
	SVG ID	3.54	2.18
	NBA 2K ID	3.45	2.08
	Gamer ID	4.13	2.15
	esport ID	3.80	2.22
Other	**Extension Awareness**	3.18	2.28
	Play 2K	3.54	2.09

Psychometrics

Before proceeding to the CFA of the measurement model, I analyzed the psychometrics

of the survey instrument. Specifically, I assessed each survey factor related to a latent construct

in the model, and the items that comprise each factor. I tested the reliability of each survey factor

to identify which factors required modifications. Statistical criteria for reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha >$

.70) guided my decisions on survey modifications; however, I also relied on theoretical and

subjective criteria regarding survey modifications. If an alpha coefficient for a factor is below

.70, it may be modified if the coefficient is significantly improved (>.05) by removing one or

more items. Inter-item correlations were also considered in making modifications to survey

factors. Correlations below .50 for items that comprise a scale can be problematic (Zaichkowsky,

1985). Inter-item correlations, alpha coefficients, and theoretical knowledge all informed the

psychometric evaluation of the survey instrument. Finally, I summarize all survey modifications

before proceeding to assessment of validity and a CFA of the measurement model.

The alpha coefficients of the modified constructs are shown below for Perceived Quality,

Image Fit, Categorical Fit, Innovativeness, Authenticity, Extension Evaluation, Team

Identification, Sport Identification, and Extension Brand Equity (Table 4.4). Inter-item

correlations of the unmodified constructs were also calculated and addressed if needed. Overall,

the results showed that the survey instrument was psychometrically sound. However, a few

constructs required greater attention to determine if modifications were necessary.

As shown in Figure 3.1, there are five constructs that relate to Extension Evaluation. Two

of these five constructs related to Extension Evaluation required additional attention after

calculating alpha coefficients and inter-item correlations. For Categorical Fit, the Cronbach's

alpha ($\alpha = .698$) did not satisfy the criteria of $\alpha > .70$. The correlations among the Categorical Fit

items were also low (<.50) for two of the three categorical fit items. The correlation between

item CF1 and CF2 was low (.330) as was the correlation between item CF1 and CF3 (.341).

However, retaining Categorical Fit in the measurement model was essential as categorical fit is

one of the traditional factors supposed to impact brand extension evaluation (Aaker & Keller,

1990). Consequently, the Categorical Fit construct was not modified due to the proximity of the

alpha coefficient to the .70 threshold, and due to the established importance of categorical fit in

brand extension research.

There were also concerns with the Authenticity construct. The reliability of the original

five-item Authenticity factor was low ($\alpha = .509$). There were concerns with correlations among

the items being low. Items AU2 (There is no link between the <esport team> and what I know

about the <NBA team's> legacy), which was reverse coded, and AU4 (With the <esport team>,

it seems that the <NBA team> were more concerned about preserving the brand rather than

growing the market) were removed to improve the scale reliability. The resulting three-item

Authenticity scale was more parsimonious and demonstrated adequate reliability ($\alpha = .7$).

In addition to the traditional and alternative constructs related to extension evaluation, the

psychometrics of other constructs represented in Figure 3.1 were assessed. The Extension Brand

Equity construct was measured using nine brand associations, and there were correlations among

several these associations below the recommended .5 level. However, this can be attributed to

the fact that Extension Brand Equity is comprised of nine different types of brand associations,

which reflect different things. For example, there was a low correlation (.375) between the

community pride (CMP) association and the logo and colors (LC) association. Using this

example, it is plausible that a respondent may like the logo and colors, while not believing that

the extension enhances community pride. Therefore, the nine-item Extension Brand Equity scale

was retained and not modified. No further modifications were made to the survey instrument

following psychographic evaluation.

Construct Correlations

Based on the preceding assessment of the reliability of the scales used in the survey

instrument, a few minor modifications were made. Items AU2 and AU4 were removed from the

Authenticity factor. I obtained correlations between these modified scales/constructs to examine potential multicollinearity issues and discriminate validity of the survey instrument. According to Grewal, Cote, and Baumgartner (2004), correlations between .75 and .95 for any two constructs may be problematic and indicate that the constructs are measuring a shared phenomenon. Only two constructs (Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity) had correlations above .75. Despite this one correlation, the data shown in Table 4.5 indicated that multicollinearity was not an issue among the nine modified constructs, which are represented as latent variables in the measurement and structural models. The lack of significant correlations between the constructs supported the discriminate validity of the constructs measured in the survey instrument. Table 4.4 shows the means and standard deviations for each construct following modifications made during the assessment of the survey instrument.

Table 4.4

Means, Standard Deviations, and Alpha Coefficients of Post-Modification Survey Constructs

	M	SD	α
Perceived Quality	5.46	1.18	.871
Image Fit	5.16	1.15	.863
Categorical Fit	4.79	1.18	.698
Innovativeness	5.30	0.99	.87
Authenticity	4.55	0.96	.70
Extension Evaluation	4.79	1.35	.906
Extension Brand Equity	4.06	1.24	.918
Team Identification	4.17	2.22	.961
Sport Identification	4.66	1.99	.896

Table 4.5

Correlations of Modified Constructs

Construct	PQ	IF	CF	IN	AU	EE	EBE	Team ID	Sport ID
Perceived Quality (PQ)	1								
Image Fit (IF)	0.448	1							
Categorical Fit (CF)	0.294	0.649	1						
Innovativeness (IN)	0.371	0.723	0.666	1					
Authenticity (AU)	0.417	0.741	0.702	0.677	1				
Extension Evaluation (EE)	0.439	0.735	0.719	0.692	0.709	1			
Extension Brand Equity (EBE)	0.445	0.598	0.689	0.580	0.684	0.806	1		
Team Identification (Team ID)	0.55	0.352	0.082	0.201	0.272	0.348	0.364	1	
Sport Identification (Sport ID)	0.408	0.396	0.198	0.296	0.371	0.343	0.407	0.648	1

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Measurement Model

The assumption of normality of the modified survey constructs was assessed prior to the CFA of the measurement model. Table 4.6 shows the measure of skewness and kurtosis for each scale and item in the survey. Skewness represents the degree to which a variable's distribution is asymmetrical from a normal distribution; while kurtosis represents the peakedness of the variable's distribution (Weston & Gore, 2006). For skewness, values greater than three are considered extreme (Chou & Bentler, 1995). For kurtosis, values greater than 10 are problematic, while values greater than 20 are extreme (Kline, 2005). Various criteria were considered when

assessing the normality of the data. In some cases, values of ± 2 for skewness and kurtosis are

considered acceptable (Kendall & Stuart, 1958). Skewness and kurtosis z scores between ± 1.96

are another traditional metric; however, z scores between ± 3.29 are acceptable for medium sized

samples ($50 < n < 300$) (Kim, 2013). Skewness and kurtosis z scores were obtained by dividing

skewness and kurtosis scores by the corresponding standard error score for each factor/item.

Based on these criteria and the data shown below in Table 4.6, the assumption of normality was

rejected. Although a preponderance of the skewness and kurtosis Z-scores were within the ±

3.29, there was sufficient skewness and kurtosis to reject the assumption of multivariate

normality. However, there were trends in the how the data was skewed. Most of the variables

with high skewness and kurtosis tended to be positively skewed. Therefore, I implemented a full

information maximum likelihood (FML) estimation method, in part, because most of the data

showed a normal distribution, and the non-normal data tended to be positively skewed. The

ability to cope with missing data (without deleting entire cases) in a non-normal distribution was

another reason why the FML estimation method was used. Still, SPSS was used to determine if

any cases should be deleted through examination of all variables for significant outliers. There

were no significant outliers that merited deletion of any further cases. Unlike FML, other

estimation methods use simple solutions for dealing with missing data such as listwise deletion

or pairwise deletion of cases with missing data. However, in addition to sacrificing data, these

traditional methods for dealing with missing data are generally unsatisfactory (Little & Rubin,

1987). Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation methods for missing data are well established and

tend to result more efficient analysis of data sets (i.e., estimates with lower sampling variability)

than traditional methods such as listwise and pairwise deletion (Enders, 2001). Unfortunately,

ML estimation requires that a data set be both normally distributed and that missing data be

MCAR or at least missing at random (MAR) (Allison, 2003; Weston & Gore, 2006). Based on the results of the Little's test above, the data set is at least MAR, but the assumption of multivariate normality was violated. Although a normal distribution is ideal, Enders (2001) demonstrated that a FML estimation method can be used with non-normal data. While standard errors were negatively biased and model rejection rates increased, FML estimates with non-normal/MAR data were generally less biased and more efficient than traditional methods like list/pairwise deletion (Enders, 2001). Consequently, a FML estimation method was used in subsequent analysis of the measurement model.

Table 4.6

Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, and Skewness and Kurtosis Values for Variables and Items

	SE and Z scores	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Perceived Quality (PQ)		5.458	1.176	-0.931	0.911
	SE	0.085		0.175	0.349
	Z			-5.305	2.609
PQ1		5.734	1.179	-1.078	1.492
	SE	0.085		0.175	0.349
	Z			-6.146	4.273
PQ2		5.479	1.365	-0.967	0.572
	SE	0.099		0.175	0.349
	Z			-5.511	1.638
PQ3		5.161	1.403	-0.808	0.441
	SE	0.101		0.175	0.349
	Z			-4.607	1.264
Image Fit (IF)		5.164	1.150	-0.294	-0.361
	SE	0.083		0.175	0.348
	Z			-1.681	-1.036
IF1		5.021	1.207	0.068	-0.890
	SE	0.087		0.175	0.348
	Z			0.386	-2.556
IF2		5.259	1.297	-0.377	-0.164
	SE	0.093		0.175	0.348
	Z			-2.156	-0.470

IF3		5.212	1.385	-0.673	0.372
	SE	0.100		0.175	0.348
	Z			-3.845	1.069
Categorical Fit (CF)		4.790	1.18000	-0.433	-0.229
	SE	0.085		0.175	0.349
	Z			-2.468	-0.656
CF1		4.30	1.094	0.007	2.017
	SE	0.175		0.175	0.349
	Z			0.040	5.778
CF2		4.776	1.830	-0.644	-0.633
	SE	0.132		0.175	0.349
	Z			-3.670	-1.813
CF3		5.260	1.470	-0.819	0.144
	SE	0.106		0.175	0.349
	Z			-4.668	0.412
Innovativeness (IN)		5.3000	0.99377	-0.377	-0.498
	SE	0.072		0.177	0.352
	Z			-2.1299	-1.415
IN1		5.35	1.192	-0.678	0.293
	SE	0.087		0.177	0.352
	Z			-3.831	0.832
IN2		5.38	1.260	-0.719	0.535
	SE	0.092		0.177	0.352
	Z			-4.062	1.520
IN3		5.43	1.199	-0.653	0.330
	SE	0.087		0.177	0.352
	Z			-3.689	0.938
IN4		5.10	1.244	-0.594	0.307
	SE	0.091		0.177	0.352
	Z			-3.356	0.872
IN5		5.33	1.233	-0.665	0.157
	SE	0.090		0.177	0.352
	Z			-3.757	0.446
Authenticity (AU)		4.545	0.953	0.448	0.291
	SE	0.069		0.176	0.350
	Z			2.549	0.831
AU1		4.518	1.099	0.037	1.271
	SE	0.080		0.176	0.350
	Z			0.210	3.630
AU3		4.115	1.352	-0.018	0.425
	SE	0.098		0.176	0.350
	Z			-0.102	1.214
AU5		5.000	1.152	-0.084	-0.417

	SE	0.083		0.176	0.350
	Z			-0.475	-1.192
Extension Evaluation (EE)		4.792	1.354	-0.214	-0.225
	SE	0.102		0.182	0.362
	Z			-1.174	-0.622
EE1		4.831	1.408	-0.188	-0.099
	SE	0.106		0.182	0.362
	Z			-1.031	-0.272
EE2		4.584	1.565	-0.404	-0.192
	SE	0.117		0.182	0.362
	Z			-2.220	-0.531
EE3		4.961	1.451	-0.559	0.410
	SE	0.109		0.182	0.362
	Z			-3.071	1.133
Extension Brand Equity		4.054	1.246	0.227	-0.490
	SE	0.094		0.183	0.364
	Z			1.237	-1.347
Team Success		4.790	1.460	-0.442	0.284
	SE	0.110		0.183	0.364
	Z			-2.412	0.778
Logo and Colors		5.068	1.226	-0.037	-0.521
	SE	0.092		0.183	0.364
	Z			-0.203	-1.432
Socialization		3.784	1.801	0.102	-0.786
	SE	0.136		0.183	0.364
	Z			0.559	-2.158
Commitment		3.449	1.930	0.320	-0.935
	SE	0.145		0.183	0.364
	Z			1.748	-2.568
Organizational Attributes		4.580	1.033	0.790	0.702
	SE	0.078		0.183	0.364
	Z			4.314	1.926
Community Pride		4.324	1.543	-0.207	-0.078
	SE	0.116		0.183	0.364
	Z			-1.132	-0.214
Diversion		3.545	1.703	0.076	-0.791
	SE	0.128		0.183	0.364
	Z			0.414	-2.173
Excitement		4.057	1.832	-0.214	-0.814
	SE	0.138		0.183	0.364
	Z			-1.171	-2.235

Peer Group Acceptance		2.886	1.690	0.454	-0.764
	SE	0.127		0.183	0.364
	Z			2.477	-2.097
Team ID		4.173	2.221	-0.144	-1.581
	SE	0.159		0.174	0.346
	Z			-0.827	-4.563
Team ID 1		4.236	2.337	-0.114	-1.603
	SE	0.167		0.174	0.346
	Z			-0.657	-4.626
Team ID 2		4.179	2.285	-0.192	-1.532
	SE	0.164		0.174	0.346
	Z			-1.102	-4.423
Team ID 3		4.103	2.297	-0.140	-1.581
	SE	0.165		0.174	0.346
	Z			-0.803	-4.563
Sport ID		4.658	1.987	-0.499	-1.101
	SE	0.142		0.174	0.346
	Z			-2.867	-3.179
Sport ID 1		4.795	2.217	-0.615	-1.125
	SE	0.159		0.174	0.346
	Z			-3.533	-3.248
Sport ID 2		4.318	2.307	-0.196	-1.528
	SE	0.165		0.174	0.346
	Z			-1.123	-4.410
Sport ID 3		4.862	2.020	-0.655	-0.938
	SE	0.145		0.174	0.346
	Z			-3.762	-2.708

Next, Mplus 8 was used to assess construct reliability, convergent and discriminant validity, and the significance of standardized factor loadings for the nine latent variables in the original model (Figure 3.1). Factor loadings were used to determine if observed variables sufficiently explained the variance in the paths from each observed variable to a designated latent construct (Table 4.7). Factor loadings greater than or equal to .707 for an observed variable indicate that the variable adequately explains the variance in the path to the latent variable. Additionally, *t*-values were calculated and shown in Table 4.7. *t*-values greater than 1.96 indicate that a factor loading is statistically significant ($p<.05$). Convergent validity of the measurement

model, which tests whether items properly load onto a designated construct, was tested by

calculating average variance explained (AVE). A calculated AVE > .50 was used as the criteria

for determining convergent validity in the measurement model. An AVE > .50 indicates that

items sufficiently converge on a construct as specified by the researcher (Hair et al., 2010). AVE

values are shown in Table 4.7. Construct reliability (CR) was calculated to assess reliability of

the measurement model, using the criteria that CR should be greater than .70 (Table 4.7).

Discriminant validity describes the independence of constructs to determine if each

construct does in fact measure a distinct variable. To establish discriminant validity, the AVE

values for each construct were compared to squared correlations with other constructs (Table

4.8). Discriminant validity for a construct can be established when the AVE of a construct is

greater than the squared correlations with other constructs (Fornell & Lacker, 1981). Finally,

model fit was evaluated using the model fit indices outlined in Table 3.2. The Chi-square

reported was not appropriate to report when using FML estimation (Muthén & Muthén, 2018).

The other model fit indices suggest adequate model fit (RMSEA = .077; SRMR = .073; CFI =

.875).

Table 4.7

Evaluation of the Measurement Model

Factors and Variables	λ	SE	t-value	ρ	AVE
Perceived Quality (PQ)				0.877	0.705
PQ1	0.847	0.035	24.318		
PQ2	0.897	0.032	28.282		
PQ3	0.771	0.049	15.674		
Image Fit (IF)				0.865	0.680
IF1	0.811	0.032	25.218		
IF2	0.812	0.041	19.741		
IF3	0.851	0.033	25.918		

Categorical Fit (CF)				0.728	0.480
CF1	0.542	0.079	6.848		
CF2	0.664	0.072	9.175		
CF3	0.839	0.050	16.868		
Innovativeness (IN)				0.846	0.390
IN1	0.814	0.045	18.110		
IN2	0.703	0.045	15.645		
IN3	0.889	0.024	36.758		
IN4	0.496	0.083	6.003		
IN5	0.898	0.027	33.144		
Authenticity (AU)				0.702	0.448
AU1	0.649	0.050	13.004		
AU3	0.522	0.068	7.644		
AU5	0.806	0.039	20.764		
Extension Evaluation (EE)				0.908	0.768
EE1	0.806	0.054	14.819		
EE2	0.896	0.020	44.816		
EE3	0.923	0.017	54.767		
Extension Brand Equity				0.916	0.556
Team Success (TS)	0.658	0.050	13.240		
Logo and Colors (LC)	0.519	0.067	7.755		
Socialization (SOC)	0.831	0.028	29.641		
Commitment (COMIT)	0.866	0.026	33.814		
Organizational Attributes (OA)	0.614	0.048	12.806		
Community Pride (CMP)	0.772	0.036	21.572		
Diversion (DIV)	0.796	0.031	25.955		
Excitement (EXC)	0.900	0.029	31.302		
Peer Group Acceptance (PGA)	0.664	0.055	12.072		
Team Identification				0.961	0.892
Team ID1	0.933	0.015	61.263		
Team ID2	0.951	0.012	79.163		
Team ID3	0.949	0.013	72.281		

Sport Identification

Sport ID1	0.951	0.019	51.263	0.902	0.754
Sport ID2	0.845	0.029	29.137		
Sport ID3	0.803	0.040	20.048		

Note: λ = standardized factor loading. *SE* = standard error. ρ = construct reliability (CR). *AVE* = Average Variance Extracted.

Table 4.8

AVE and Squared Correlations of Modified Constructs

Construct	PQ	IF	CF	IN	AU	EE	EBE	Team ID	Sport ID
Perceived Quality (PQ)	*0.705*								
Image Fit (IF)	0.201	*0.680*							
Categorical Fit (CF)	0.086	0.421	*0.480*						
Innovativeness (IN)	0.138	0.523	0.444	*0.389*					
Authenticity (AU)	0.174	0.549	0.493	0.458	*0.448*				
Extension Evaluation (EE)	0.193	0.540	0.517	0.479	0.503	*0.768*			
Extension Brand Equity (EBE)	0.198	0.358	0.475	0.336	0.468	0.650	*0.556*		
Team Identification (Team ID)	0.303	0.124	0.007	0.040	0.074	0.121	0.132	*0.892*	
Sport Identification (Sport ID)	0.166	0.157	0.039	0.088	0.138	0.118	0.166	0.420	*0.754*

Note: AVE values are italicized along diagonal line.

Summary of Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Tables 4.7 and 4.8 guided decisions on potential modifications to the measurement model before analyzing the structural model. Most factor loadings for individual observed variables exceeded the recommended .707 threshold. However, ten items did not meet the recommended criteria for factor loadings (CF1, CF2, IN2, IN4, AU1, AU3, TS, LC, OA, PGA). These variables with sub-par factor loadings were retained for statistical and theoretical reasons. Despite some variables having lower than ideal factor loadings, the *t*-values for all of the standardized factor

loadings were all significant at the .05 level. Of the ten items with lower factor loadings, most were close to the .707 threshold, with IN4 ($\lambda = .496$) and Logo and Colors ($\lambda = .519$) being the lowest. IN4 was retained to due to the importance of the Innovativeness factor for the purposes of this research, and because the Innovativeness construct showed strong CR in the measurement model as discussed below. Furthermore, all of the traditional and alternative constructs related to extension in evaluation in the model have been shown to significantly impact brand extension evaluation in previous research (Völckner and Sattler, 2006). The Logo and Colors item was retained due to it being an established brand association, integral to brand equity (Doyle et al., 2013; Gladden & Funk, 2001; Kunkel et al., 2017).

Overall, the CR and AVE values indicated that the measurement model has strong reliability and convergent validity. All CR values exceeded the .7 threshold for strong reliability. AVE values for all but three constructs (Categorical Fit AVE = .480, Innovativeness AVE = .390, and Authenticity AVE = .448) met the recommended greater than .50 criteria. Both of these constructs in the measurement model were retained, and unmodified, due to Despite these low AVE values, the constructs were retained for several reasons in addition to the AVE values of these constructs being close to .50. One way to improve AVE would be to remove problematic cases; however, this occurred during the data screening process. Another way to improve AVE would be to remove certain items. Unfortunately, this option proved problematic. Categorical Fit could be improved to an acceptable AVE = .664 by removing item CF1, but this would reduce the construct to two items. Removal of items did not sufficiently improve AVE for Authenticity, and would also leave the construct with just two items. Innovativeness could be improved to a still unsatisfactory AVE = .484 with the removal of item IN4. Additionally, the lower AVE values for the Categorical Fit, Innovativeness, and Authenticity latent constructs may be a

byproduct of the small sample size and a low number of indicators for those constructs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1984). Both the Authenticity and Innovativeness constructs required the development of new items; therefore, future research can work to address these shortcomings by developing more robust constructs with more items.

I evaluated discriminant validity of the measurement model by comparing the AVE values of constructs with the squared correlations of other constructs. In most cases, construct AVE values were greater than the squared correlation with any other construct. There were several cases where construct AVE value was less than a squared correlation value, but in each instance were very close. These cases again included the Categorical Fit, Innovativeness, and Authenticity constructs, supporting my previous suggestion that future research could work to improve these constructs. None of the correlations between these constructs was problematic in the psychometric evaluation of the survey instrument, but the higher construct correlations did involve the same three constructs (Categorical Fit, Innovativeness, and Authenticity). The results suggest potential multicollinearity issues that could be addressed by future construct modifications. Overall, Table 4.8 supported the distinctiveness of the constructs in the measurement model.

Finally, the applicable model fit indices supported the retention of the measurement model comprised of nine latent constructs. Per Table 3.2, RMSEA = .077 indicted acceptable model fit, and SRMR = .073 indicated good model fit. The CFI value for the measurement model (CFI = .874) was just below the .90 value that indicated adequate model fit for the CFI index. Modification indices provided by Mplus 8 were reviewed but were not able to significantly improve model fit. As discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5, future research can build upon this

study to create a stronger measurement model. A nine latent factor measurement model, as

shown in Table 4.9 below, was used in the analysis of the structural model.

Table 4.9

Final Item List for Measurement Model

Factors and Variables	Item
Perceived Quality (PQ)	
PQ1	Altogether, I think of way <The NBA team> in a positive way
PQ2	The <NBA team> are a high quality organization
PQ3	The <NBA team> Organization has a good reputation
Image Fit (IF)	
IF1	The <NBA team's> esport team fits with the <NBA team's> brand image
IF2	Launching the <NBA team's esport team> is logical for the <NBA team>
IF3	Launching the <NBA team's esport team> is appropriate for the <NBA team>
Categorical Fit (CF)	
CF1	<esport team> is similar to the <NBA team> product
CF2	esports and NBA basketball both fit in the category of sports
CF3	An esport team is a natural fit with a sport organization
Innovativeness (IN)	
IN1	The idea of an <NBA team> esport team is innovative
IN2	The <esport team> is a creative extension of the <NBA team>
IN3	The <NBA team> extension into esport is clever
IN4	The <NBA team's> esport venture is imaginative
IN5	The <NBA team's> esport extension is innovative
Authenticity (AU)	
AU1	The style of the <esport team> seems to reflect that of the <NBA team>
AU3	The <esport team> captures what makes the <NBA team> unique to me
AU5	The <esport team> is an authentic extension of the <NBA team> brand
Extension Evaluation (EE)	
EE1	Overall, I feel very positive about the <esport team>
EE2	I have a favorable attitude towards the <esport team>
EE3	I have positive feelings about the <esport team>
Extension Brand Equity	

Team Success (TS)	I believe that team success is a priority for the <esport team>
Logo and Colors (LC)	I like the logo and colors of the <esport team>
Socialization (SOC)	The <esport team> will provide the chance to socialize and interact with friends and others
Commitment (COMIT)	I plan to regularly follow the <esport team>
Organizational Attributes (OA)	The <esport team> cares about their fans
Community Pride (CMP)	The <esport team> brings prestige to <city name>
Diversion (DIV)	The <esport team> will provide me with a break from my daily routine
Excitement (EXC)	Following the <esport team> will be very exciting
Peer Group Acceptance (PGA)	I will follow the <esport team> because my friends like them too

Team Identification

Team ID1	I consider myself a "real" fan of the <NBA team>
Team ID2	I would experience a loss if I had to stop being a fan of the <NBA team> basketball team
Team ID3	Being a fan of the <NBA team> is very important to me

Sport Identification

Sport ID1	First and foremost, I consider myself a basketball fan
Sport ID2	Basketball is my favorite sport
Sport ID3	I am a basketball fan at all levels (e.g. high school, college, professional)

Structural Model

The hypotheses and corresponding research questions were addressed through analysis of the structural model. The RMSEA value (.077) indicated acceptable fit, and the SRMR value (.074) indicated good model fit. Similar to the measurement model, the CFI value (.873) was slightly below the .90 threshold for adequate model fit. The slightly low CFI value may be attributable to model complexity, as more complex models tend to yield lower CFI values (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). The full structural model, with standardized path coefficients, is shown in Figure 4.1.

The first research question pertained to the five latent variables on the left of the model that are shown to influence extension evaluation. I hypothesized that each of the variables related

to Extension Evaluation would have a positive and significant influence. The Image Fit variable had the largest positive standardized beta coefficient ($\beta = 1.387$) in relation to Extension Evaluation. Authenticity had the strongest negative influence on Extension Evaluation ($\beta = -1.764$). Categorical Fit ($\beta = 1.220$) had the next strongest influence on Extension Evaluation. Standardized beta coefficients greater than one for Image Fit, Categorical Fit, and Authenticity suggest issues with multicollinearity, which were also apparent in the CFA of the measurement model. Perceived Quality ($\beta = .330$) and Innovativeness ($\beta = -.026$) had the lowest impacts on Extension Evaluation. Although the traditional extension evaluation factors had a relatively stronger and more positive influence on Extension Evaluation in the model, none of the factors had a significant influence. Consequently, *Hypothesis1–Hypotheis5* could not be supported.

RQ$_2$ considered the relationship between Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity. Extension Evaluation did have a significant, positive ($\beta = .807$) impact on Extension Brand Equity. Thus, *Hypothesis 6* was supported.

Next, RQ$_3$ pertained to the extent to which Team Identification and Sport Identification would influence and moderate the relationship between Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity. Although Sport Identification had a greater influence on Extension Brand Equity than Team Identification, neither Team Identification ($\beta = .008$) nor Sport Identification ($\beta = .144$) had a significant positive direct impact on Extension brand Equity. Thus, *Hypothesis 7* and *Hypothesis 8* could not be supported. A Team/Sport Identification moderator variable was created and analyzed in SPSS to test the moderation effect of Team Identification and Sport Identification together. When the moderator variable was included, the standardized beta coefficients were lower but still significant for Extension Evaluation ($\beta = .752$), lower and still not statistically significant for Team Identification ($\beta = -.001$), and higher and significant for

Sport Identification (β = .170) in terms of their impact on Extension Brand Equity. However, the change was not sufficient to indicate that there was a significant moderation effect. The moderating effect of Team Identification and Sport Identification together (β = .050) was not significant. Consequently, *Hypothesis 9* could not be supported. Team Identification and Sport Identification did not moderate the positive relationship between extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity.
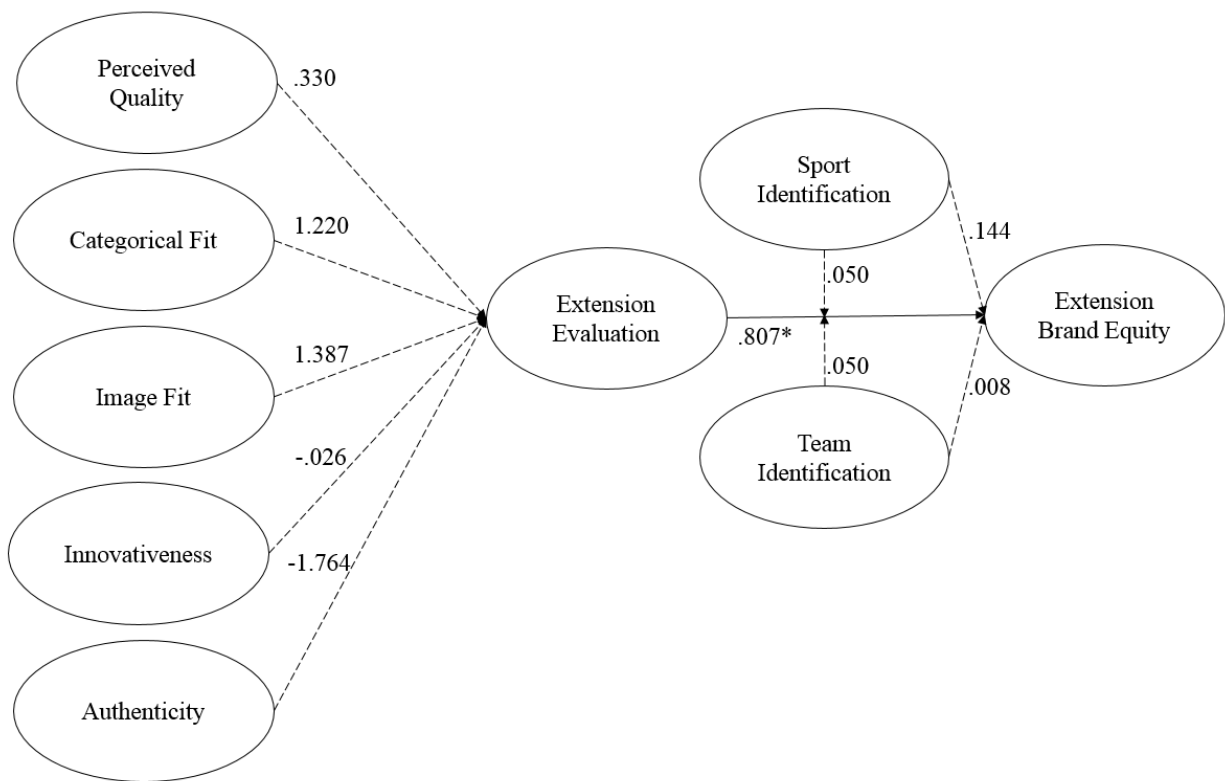
Figure 4.1. Final Structural Model. Dashed lines indicate path was not significant. * *p* < .05.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Esports, in all of its forms, represent a growing industry that presents the sport industry with opportunities and challenges. The limited body of esport research to date has focused on a small selection of topics, including whether or not esport should be considered a sport (Holden et

al., 2017). However, esport continues to grow in popularity, and traditional sport entities have

noticed the potential of esport as a useful marketing tool. Nevertheless, there are differences

between esport and traditional sport in terms of the consumers and the product itself. Despite

these differences, traditional sport entities are striving to capitalize on the growing esport market

without fully understanding the esport market and all its nuances. With leagues like the NBA

already investing in branding through esport, there is a need to better understand the esport

market landscape. The lack of esport branding research and understanding about esport

consumers were part of the underlying impetus for this study.

Additionally, the purpose of this study centered on brand equity, evaluation, and the roles

of sport identification within the esport context. Sport marketers recognize the importance of

brand equity on consumption, and potential benefits of brand extensions on brand equity. As

such, researchers continually aim to conceptualize brand extensions, brand equity, and the

different factors that relate and influence each. However, there have been gaps in the literature in

this area and lack of consensus. Based on these underlying motivations, I sought to study how

traditional and alternative factors affected consumers' brand extension evaluation, how extension

evaluations influenced extension brand equity, and the role of self-identification. Drawing from

branding literature, I created an esport brand extension model to address the study's purposes

and research questions. The use of an esport team as a brand extension by NBA franchises via

the NBA 2K League provided an opportunity to create and assess the conceptual model about

brand extensions and equity.

The model included five brand factors (traditional—Perceived Quality, Categorical Fit,

Image Fit and alternative— Innovativeness and Authenticity) to explain Extension Evaluation,

yet none had significant positive influences on Extension Evaluation; negating *Hypothesis1–*

Hypotheis5. Although none of the variables had a statistically significant influence on Extension Evaluation, the traditional factors did all have a positive influence on Extension Evaluation, while the alternative factors both had a negative influence. As stated in *Hypothesis 6*, consumer evaluations of the esport extension had a significant positive influence extension brand equity. Extension Evaluation also significantly correlated (.388) with the amount of money respondents stated they intended to spend on esport team merchandise (item EBBI Merchandise). Consumer evaluation of the esport extension proved to be key in determining extension and potential consumer behaviors. In fact, the direct influence of Extension Evaluation on Extension Brand Equity was so great that it was unaffected by respondents' level of identification with the team or sport. Consequently, *Hypothesis7–Hypotheis9* were not supported. The theoretical and practical implications of the hypothesis testing and descriptive results are discussed in greater detail below.

Theoretical Implications

A main purpose of this study was determining the influence of traditional and alternative variables on consumer evaluation of an esport brand extension (*Hypotheis1–Hypotheis5)*. Although the hypotheses were not supported, the traditional variables had a positive influence on Extension Evaluation, while the alternative variables actually had a negative influence. Perceived Quality of the parent brand and perceived fit (Image Fit and Categorical Fit) were designated as the traditional predictors of brand extension evaluation due to their established use in brand extension research (Buil, de Chernatony, & Hem, 2009; Martínez, Montaner, & Pina, 2009; Spiggle et al., 2012). Parent brand quality and fit have also been used extensively in sport brand extension research (Apostolopoulou, 2002a; Walsh & Ross, 2010). In some cases, alternative

predictors of extension evaluation such as Authenticity and Innovativeness have a greater impact on extension evaluation (Chun et al., 2015; Spiggle et al., 2012).

Despite none of the variables having a statistically significant influence on Extension Evaluation, there are theoretical implications for the relative positive influence of the traditional variables over the alternative variables. In agreement with Baker et al. (2016), the findings suggested that sport/esport brand extensions are not inherently unique or different from brand extensions in other industries. The importance of the traditional predictors of extension evaluation for an esport brand extension can be explained by theories traditionally used in brand extension literature such as categorization theory and congruity theory (Rosch, 1975). Both categorization theory and congruity theory assert that individuals develop associations with things like parent brands and prefer for anything associated with the parent brand to fit with those associations.

Researchers have especially used categorization theory often in brand extension literature over the years (Boush & Loken, 1991). The alternative Extension Evaluation variables (Innovativeness and Authenticity) were supported by different theoretical positions and reasoning. For instance, schema incongruity theory supported the potential positive influence that Innovativeness might have on Extension Evaluation. According to schema incongruity theory, consumers will have favorable evaluations of an extension when the extension is moderately incongruous with the extension (Meyers-Levy et al., 1994). However, Innovativeness and Authenticity, while not significant, actually had negative influences Extension Evaluation. Therefore, a major theoretical finding of this study was that the traditional brand extension variables, which were supported by categorization theory and congruity theory, had positive influences on consumer evaluations of an esport extension. According to this research,

categorization theory and congruity theory, and the extension evaluation variables supported by those theories, are the most important in determining consumer evaluation of an esport extension.

This study also considered the relationship between Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity. Investigating this relationship was theoretically relevant because the underlying purpose of a brand extension in sport, or any industry, is to leverage a parent brand to create an extension with strong brand equity, which in turn leads to consumer behaviors (Keller & Aaker, 1992; Walsh & Williams, 2017). There was a connection between consumer-based Extension Brand Equity and consumer behavioral intentions, which is discussed in the proceeding section on practical implications. The results supported *Hypothesis 6*, which also has theoretical relevance. The nature of the relationship between Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity for an esport extension was not conceptually different than for brand extensions in other industries. Again, in agreement with Baker et al. (2016), although sport/esport have unique qualities, sport brand management and marketing does not always operate in a distinct way. The relationship between Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity in this study were similar to findings from other brand extension related studies. For instance, results from Chun et al. (2015) showed that brand extension evaluations were similarly related to parent brand evaluations. Although Dall'Olmo Riley et al. (2014) measured initial and final brand image, rather than extension evaluation and extension brand equity, their findings were similar in that initial attitudes/evaluations related to the resulting brand associations. These results showed that the relationship between evaluation and brand equity for an esport brand extension is not different than it is between evaluation and brand equity of extensions in other industries.

Finally, I aimed to understand the effect of Sport Identification and Team Identification on Extension Brand Equity, and whether Team identification and Sport Identification together moderated the relationship between Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity (*Hypothesis7–Hypothesis9)*. Although these hypotheses were rejected, there may be information to glean from it. Sport researchers have measured and created different forms of sport identification depending on the area of study within sport. For example, identification with a university is a relevant form of identification when the research area is intercollegiate athletics (Robinson et al., 2004). The fact that Team Identification and Sport Identification did not directly influence or moderate the effect of Extension Evaluation on Extension Brand Equity suggests that esport researchers may need to consider now forms of self-identification that are more salient for esport consumers. This study did measure other forms of self-identification (e.g., esport ID), which were not included in the structural model. The practical implications of these new forms of self-identification are discussed in greater detail below. The theoretical implications of these other forms of self-identification pertain to them being measured by single items. The single-item identification measures had higher correlations with Extension Brand Equity. Thus, researchers should consider that single-item measures may be adequate to measure self-identification. In addition to making surveys more parsimonious and considerate of respondents' time, single-item measures may be just as effective as multi-item scales (Kunkel et al., 2017). Lastly, despite the rejection of *Hypothesis7–Hypothesis9*, the theoretical premise that social identification influences perception of brand equity (Boyle & Magnusson, 2007; Underwood, Bond, & Baer, 2001; Wang & Tang, 2018; Watkins, 2014) should not be abandoned.

Practical Implications

There are several practical implications related to results of the hypothesis testing. As discussed above, traditional factors had a greater influence on Extension Evaluation in comparison to alternative factors. Specifically, Image Fit (β = .1.387) and Categorical Fit (β = 1.220) had the strongest, albeit not statistically significant, influence on Extension Evaluation. Brand managers engaging in esport brand extensions should therefore ensure that an esport brand extension is compatible, in terms of fit, with the parent sport brand. If traditional extension evaluation factors are the most important, which was the case in this study, then brand managers should market the esport extension in a way that is congruous with the parent brand's image rather than focusing on the innovativeness of the extension or making the extension seem incongruous with the parent brand. Creating an extension that is congruous with the parent brand's associations can be challenging if the parent brand has associations that do not translate well to the extension, which is the case for an esport extension of a traditional sport parent brand. Brand managers should therefore focus on the parent brand associations that can be translated to the extension. For instance, the logo and colors of the parent brand can be applied to an esport extension more readily than other associations with the parent brand such as diversion or peer group acceptance.

Perceived fit of an extension with the parent brand is important in terms of influence on Extension Evaluation which in turn has a significant positive impact on Extension Brand Equity, according to *Hypothesis 6* being supported. By understanding the relationships among these variables, practitioners can use these findings to increase the likelihood of brand extension success. In other words, if brand managers create an extension that fits with the parent brand it is more likely to be evaluated favorably, and therefore more likely to have a strong brand equity.

This should be the goal of any brand manager as underlying purpose of a brand extension is to leverage a parent brand to create an extension with strong brand equity, which in turn leads to consumer behaviors (Keller & Aaker, 1992; Walsh & Williams, 2017).

Findings about the relationship between Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity is also noteworthy for brand managers as Extension Evaluation significantly correlated (.388) with the amount of money respondents stated they intended to spend on esport team merchandise (item EBBI Merchandise). The results of a simple regression analysis showed that the amount of money respondents intended to spend on esport merchandise explained 12% of the variance in Extension Brand Equity (adjusted R Squared = .120). This should be encouraging to brand managers. Brand managers can manipulate consumer evaluations of an extension by creating extensions that fit with the parent brand, which ultimately increases the likelihood that an individual will consume the extension product. Other practical implications derived from analysis of the structural model and of respondents are discussed below.

Target Market and Identification. The demographic and psychographic results are worth discussing in regard to the esport market. The target market of an esport brand extension of a traditional sport parent brand is not fully understood. For example, although the esport demographic overall is young and predominantly male (Molina, 2018), it is unknown the extent to which those market characteristics translate to an esport brand extension like the NBA 2K League. Therefore, to better understand the potential target market of an esport brand extension, I targeted and recruited participants of gaming and NBA groups/social pages to gain a wide demographic/pyschographic sector and results included respondents with different demographic profiles. I also included a variety of self-identification items to better understand the potential target market of an esport brand extension. The demographic results (Table 4.1; Table 4.2)

showed that the sample was diverse and consisted of individuals who were identified with

traditional sport and esport to varying degrees.

These various self-identification items were included to gain insight to the potential target

market of an esport brand extension. Specifically, there were three-item scales to measure Team

Identification and Sport Identification. There were also individual items to measure SVG ID (M

= 3.54), NBA 2K ID (M = 3.45), Gamer ID (M = 4.13), and esport ID (M = 3.80). Analysis of

these items was insightful for brand managers in terms of how identification related to forms of

involvement. Overall, respondents did not highly identify with any of the single-item

identification measures. Gamer Identification (M = 4.13) was the highest of the singe-item

identification measures. The correlation of Gamer Identification with Extension Evaluation

(.290) and Extension Brand Equity (.319) were both significant, but lower than the correlation of

any other identification measure, including Team Identification and Sport Identification, with

Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity. Esport Identification had the highest

correlations with Extension Evaluation (.565) and Extension Brand Equity (.600). All of the

single-item identification measures had higher correlations with Extension Evaluation and

Extension Brand Equity than Team Identification and Sport Identification. Respondents who

identified as esport fans (selected somewhat agree, agree, or strongly agree for the esport ID

item) were also more likely to purchase NBA 2K team merchandise, watch NBA 2K games, and

potentially attend NBA 2K games in person. Sport brand managers should consider that, other

than Gamer ID, the single-item identification measures used in the survey may be more

significant with an esport extension than traditional measures like identification with the team or

sport. The target market for an esport brand extension of a traditional sport brand appears to be

distinct from the parent brand's existing consumer base. Self-identification as an esport fan and

as a fan of a specific game (NBA 2K) had a higher correlation with Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity than Team or Sport Identification. Therefore, brand managers should consider targeting these types of consumers that were more receptive to an esport brand extension.

Although *Hypothesis7–Hypothesis9* showed that Team Identification and Sport Identification did not play a significant role in determining consumer-based extension brand equity, there are still useful findings for brand managers in terms of identifying target markets of an esport brand extension. The relative importance of Sport Identification over Team Identification further suggests to me that the target market of an esport extension of a traditional sport brand is distinct from the traditional sport brand's existing consumer base. Identification with the sport, as an esport fan, as an NBA 2K fan, and as a sport video gamer had the highest correlations with Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity. The target market of an esport extension of a traditional sport brand is less reliant on traditional fandom criteria like Team Identification. Furthermore, the vast majority of respondents who identified the state they reside in fell within the parent brand's geographic footprint; however, this did not translate to particularly strong respondent assessment of Extension Evaluation ($M = 4.792$) or Extension Brand Equity ($M = 4.054$). Thus, geographic location may not be a significant of a factor in identifying potential consumers of an esport brand extension as it is in identifying likely consumers of a traditional sport product. In short, brand managers should consider that the target market of an esport extension of a traditional sport brand is distinct from the target market of the parent brand itself, and likely consumers of an esport extension appear to be less influenced by traditional points of attachment (Trail et al., 2003) such as identification with the team or sport.

Brand Awareness. Awareness is a necessary component for developing positive brand associations and therefore strong brand equity (Aaker, 1993; Keller, 1996). Additionally, brand extensions are meant to attract new consumers to the parent brand via the extension (Boush & Loken, 1991). Overall, respondents were not aware of the NBA 2K team prior to taking the survey (Extension Awareness $M = 3.18$) and were not more likely to play NBA 2K due to the esport extension (Play 2K $M = 3.54$). Although the lack of awareness is not surprising given the newness of the NBA 2K League and the specific NBA 2K team that this study focused on, it is still noteworthy. The parent brand must improve consumer awareness in order for the esport extension (the NBA 2K team) to benefit the parent brand and lead to desirable consumer behaviors (e.g., play NBA 2K, purchase NBA 2K team merchandise).

Limitations and Future Research

As with any study, there were limitations to this research. The recruitment procedures employed in this research targeted respondents who had some affiliation with esport (e.g., subscribers to an esport Reddit page, members of a collegiate esport club), but the sample was not limited to people affiliated with esport. This approach resulted in a diverse sample that can be useful for sport practitioners in better identifying consumers who are receptive to an esport brand extension. However, there were still issues with the study design and sampling procedures and resulting sample. The study was hampered by a relatively small sample size. The usable sample size ($N = 195$) was just short of the recommended sample size ($N = 200$) for structural equation modeling (Hair et al., 2002). Unfortunately, a large portion of the original data set ($N = 316$) had to be removed due to incompleteness. The length of the survey may have been a factor, as respondents with incomplete surveys stopped at a certain point in the survey, leaving more

than half of the questions unanswered. Future research can work to alleviate respondent fatigue, which was problematic in this study, by reducing the survey instrument.

There were other issues with the survey instrument and results that can be addressed through future research. For instance, even though the traditional predictors had the strongest positive influence on Extension Evaluation, none of the factors had a statistically significant impact on Extension Evaluation. Again, the small sample size is one possible explanation for why this occurred. The small sample size would also explain why the Image Fit, Categorical Fit, and Authenticity variables had standardized path coefficients greater than one, which is sometimes referred to as a Heywood case and was another limitation of this study (Chen, Bollen, Paxton, & Kirby, 2001). The Authenticity variable in particular should be improved if it is retained in future research. The Authenticity variable was only measured by three items after two were removed due to low internal consistency of the original five-item Authenticity scale. As shown in Table 4.8, the Authenticity variable also had discriminant validity issues. More items should be added to the Authenticity variable in future research.

At the same time, future esport brand extension research should focus on all of the five factors related to Extension Evaluation as efficiently as possible. An esport extension evaluation scale, free of reliability and validity issues for all of the five factors, would address some of the shortcomings of this research. A reliable esport brand extension scale would also improve structural analysis. With a reliable esport brand extension scale, the influence of traditional extension evaluation factors in comparison to the alternative factors could be better understood. While the results of this study suggest that the traditional factors are the most important in determining consumer evaluation of an esport brand extension, the results could change if a robust esport brand extension evaluation scale could be implemented. Nevertheless, the

generalizability of findings for any brand extension study are limited (Völckner & Sattler, 2006) and this study is among the first to examine an esport brand extension; thus, there is a need for future esport brand extension research to address limitations and build upon the findings of this study.

There were notable findings related to the roles of self-identification that researchers can investigate further through future research. Results showed that identification with the sport, as an esport fan, as an NBA 2K fan, and as a sport video gamer had the highest correlations with Extension Evaluation and Extension Brand Equity. However, correlation is not the same as causation, and another limitation of the study was that identification variables did not have statistically a significant influence on Extension Brand Equity in the structural model. Thus, future research is needed to investigate the true significance of these outcomes, and truly understand if the target market of an esport extension of a traditional sport brand is less reliant on traditional fandom criteria like Team Identification.

Despite limitations, the results do conform with previous findings that show that identification influences important brand extension outcomes such as perceived brand equity of the extension brand (Kunkel et al., 2017; Spiggle et al., 2012). Just as future research should create a reliable esport brand extension evaluation scale, future research should also investigate the importance of different sources of identification (points of attachment) for esport. Similar to how people identify with traditional sport entities in different ways depending on the area of sport (Robinson et al., 2004), the ways that people identify themselves in relation to an esport product are likely distinct. Creating and refining an esport brand extension scale and a scale to measure forms of identification with esport would be useful in future esport brand extension research that examines structural relationships.

In summary, this study contributed to the limited body of esport research and provided an initial examination of the factors that influence evaluation of an esport brand extension, and the relationship of the extension evaluation and identification with brand equity of the extension. There were limitations with the results that can be addressed in several ways. A larger sample size would improve the significance of the results. A parsimonious and reliable esport brand extension scale could improve the sample size by reducing respondent fatigue. There may be other benefits associated with a reliable esport brand extension scale. Due to the lack of esport research, the survey and measurement model relied on many new items and items adapted to suit this study, which was problematic in some cases. Therefore, a reliable esport brand extension scale to address those problems could result in more powerful results. The structural model could then be reassessed with more accuracy. Despite the limitations of the model tested in this study, the findings represent a significant contribution to the previously unresearched topic of esport brand extensions from a traditional sport parent brand. The results showed that traditional factors of extension evaluation, especially Image Fit and Categorical Fit of the extension with the parent brand, had a greater influence on Extension Evaluation than Perceived Quality or other alternative factors. Theoretical foundations such as categorization theory and congruity theory, which are often used in research on consumer product brand extensions, appear to be applicable to esport brand extensions. Therefore, while esport and traditional sport have unique qualities, the theoretical explanations for the factors that determine an esport brand extension's success may not be different than those for other consumer goods and services. Finally, there is an industry need for continued esport branding research as the NBA 2K League will continue to grow, and other traditional sport entities will create new extensions to tap into the lucrative esport segment of the sport industry.

REFERENCES

Aaker, D. A. (1991). *Managing brand equity: Capitalizing on the value of a brand name*. New York: Free Press.

Aaker, D. A. (1996). *Building strong brands*. New York: Free Press.

Aaker, D. A., & Keller, K. L. (1990). Consumer evaluations of brand extensions. *Journal of Marketing, 54*(1), 27–41.

Adler, P., & Kwon, S. (2002). Social capital: Prospects for a new concept. *Academy of Management Review, 27*(1), 17–40.

Agha, N., Goldman, M. M., & Dixon, J. C. (2016). Rebranding: The effect of team name changes on club revenue. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 16*, 675–695.

Ahn, J., Park, J. K., & Hyun, H. (2018). Luxury product to service brand extension and brand equity transfer. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 42*, 22–28. doi:10.1016/j.jretconser.2018.01.009

Alba, J., & Hutchinson, J. (1987). Dimensions of consumer expertise. *The Journal of Consumer Research, 13*, 411–454.

Aldridge, D. (2018). Not just a game: NBA 2K League quickly becoming a serious business for all. *NBA*. Retrieved from https://www.nba.com/article/2018/04/09/morning-tip-nba-2k-league-draft-serious-business-players-owners-fans

Allison, P. A. (2003). Missing data techniques for structural equation modeling. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, *112*, 545–557.

Ambler, T., & Styles, C. (1996). Brand development versus new product development: Towards a process model of extension decisions. *Marketing Intelligence & Planning, 14*(7), 10–19.

Ambler, T., & Styles, C. (1997). Brand development versus new product development: Toward a process model of extension decisions. *Journal of Product & Brand Management, 6*, 222–234. doi:10.1108/10610429710186752

Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1984). The effect of sampling error on convergence, improper solutions, and goodness-of-fit indices for maximum likelihood confirmatory factor analysis. *Psychometrika*, *49*, 155–173. doi:10.1007/BF02294170

Apostolopoulou, A. (2002a). Brand extensions by U.S. professional sport teams: Motivations and keys to success. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 11*, 205–214.

Apostolopoulou, A. (2002b). *The effect of brand strength and perceived fit on the success of sport brand extensions [Abstract].* Paper presented at the In the 17th Annual North American Society for Sport Management Conference Abstracts, Canmore, Alberta, canada.

Ashforth, B., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review, 14*(1), 20–39.

Baker, B. J., McDonald, H., & Funk, D. C. (2016). The uniqueness of sport: Testing against marketing's empirical laws. *Sport Management Review, 19*, 378–390. doi:10.1016/j.smr.2016.02.002

Batra, R., & Homer, P.M. (2004). The situational impact of brand image beliefs. J*ournal of Consumer Psychology*, *14*, 318–330. doi:10.1207/s15327663jcp1403_12

Barwise, P. (1993). Brand equity: Snark or boojum? *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 10*, 93–104.

Bauer, H. H., Sauer, N. E., & Schmitt, P. (2005). Customer-based brand equity in the team sport

industry: Operationalization and impact on the economic success of sport teams.

European Journal of Marketing, 39, 496–513. doi:10.1108/03090560510590683

Bauer, H. H., Stokburger-Sauer, N. E., & Exler, S. (2008). Brand image and fan loyalty in

professional team sport: A refined model and empirical assessment. *Journal of Sport

Management, 22*, 205–226.

Beccarini, C., & Ferrand, A. (2006). Factors affecting soccer club season ticket holders'

satisfactions: The influence of club image and fans' motives. *European Sport

Management Quarterly, 6*(1), 1–22.

Bentler, P. M. (1978). The interdependence of theory, methodology, and empirical data:

Causal modeling as an approach to construct validation. In D. B. Kandel (Ed.),

Longitudinal Drug Research (pp. 267-302). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Bergkvist, L., & Rossiter, J. R. (2007). The predictive validity of multiple-item versus single-

item measures of the same constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research, 44*, 175–184.

Berry, L. L. (2000). Cultivating service brand equity. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing

Science, 28*, 128–137.

Bhat, S., & Reddy, S. K. (2001). The impact of parent brand attribute associations and affect on

brand extension evaluation. *Journal of Business Research, 53*, 111–122.

doi:10.1016/S0148-2963(99)00115-0

Bhattacharya, C., & Sen, S. (2003). Consumer-company identification: A framework for

understanding consumers' relationships with companies. *Journal of Marketing, 67*(2),

76–88.

Bianchi, C., Pike, S., & Lings, I. (2014). Investigating attitudes towards three South American

    destinations in an emerging long haul market using a model of consumer-based brand

    equity (CBBE). *Tourism Management, 42*, 215-223. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2013.11.014

Biel, A. (1992). How brand image drives brand equity. *Journal of Advertising Research, 32*(6),

    6–12.

Biscaia, R., Correia, A., Ross, S., Rosado, A., & Maroco, J. (2013). Spectator-based brand equity

    in professional soccer. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 22*, 20–32.

Bottomley, P. A., & Doyle, J. R. (1996). The formation of attitudes towards brand extensions:

    Testing and generalising Aaker and Keller's model. *International Journal of Research in

    Marketing, 13*(4), 365–377.

Boush, D. M., & Loken, B. (1991). A process-tracing study of brand extension evaluation.

    Journal of Marketing Research, 28, 16–28.

Boyle, B., & Magnusson, P. (2007). Social identity and brand equity formation: A comparative

    study of collegiate sports fans. *Journal of Sport Management, 21*, 497–520.

Broniarczyk, S. M., & Alba, J. W. (1994). The importance of the brand in brand extension.

    Journal of Marketing Research, 31, 214–228.

Bruening, J. E., & Lee, M. Y. (2007). The university of Notre Dame: An examination of the

    impact and evaluation of brand equity in NCAA Division I-A football. *Sport Marketing

    Quarterly, 16*, 38–48.

Buil, I., de Chernatony, L., & Hem, L. E. (2009). Brand extension strategies: Perceived fit, brand

    type, and culture influences. *European Journal of Marketing, 43*, 1300–1324.

    doi:10.1108/03090560910989902

Campbell, R., & Kent, A. (2002). Brand extension evaluation: The case of NFL Europe. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 11*, 117–120.

Carlson, B. D., & Donavan, D. T. (2013). Human brands in sport: Athlete brand personality and identification. *Journal of Sport Management*, *27*, 193–206. doi:10.1123/ jsm.27.3.193

Chen, F., Bollen, K. A., Paxton, P., Curran, P. J., & Kirby, J. B. (2001). Improper solutions in structural equation models: Causes, consequences, and strategies. *Sociological Methods & Research*, *29*, 468–508. doi:10.1177/0049124101029004003

Cheung, G. W., & Rensvold, R. B. (2002). Evaluating Goodness-of Fit indexes for testing measurement. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *9*(2), 233–255.

Chou, C.-P., & Bentler, P. M. (1995). Estimates and tests in structural equation modeling. In R. H. Hoyle (Ed.), *Structural equation modeling: Concepts, issues and applications* (pp. 37-55). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Chun, H. H., Park, C. W., Eisingerich, A. B., & MacInnis, D. J. (2015). Strategic benefits of low fit brand extensions: When and why? *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 25*, 577–595. doi:10.1016/j.jcps.2014.12.003

Cianfrone, B. A., & Baker, T. A. (2010). The use of student-athlete likenesses in sport video games: An application of the right of publicity. *Journal of Legal Aspects of Sport, 20*, 35–74.

Cianfrone, B. A., & Zhang, J. J. (2013). The impact of gamer motives, consumption, and in-game advertising effectiveness: A case study of football sport video games. *International Journal of Sport Communication, 6*, 325–347.

Cianfrone, B. A., Zhang, J. J., Trail, G. T., & Lutz, R. J. (2008). Effectiveness of in-game advertisements in sport video games: An Eexperimental inquiry on current gamers. *International Journal of Sport Communication, 1*, 195–218.

Clancy, K. J., & Shulman, R. S. (1991). *The marketing revolution : A radical manifesto for dominating the marketplace*. New York: HarperBusiness.

Close, A. G., & Lacey, R. (2013). Fit matters? Asymmetrical impact for effectiveness on sponsors and event marketers. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 22*, 71–82.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Correia Loureiro, S. M. (2013). The effect of perceived benefits, trust, quality, brand awareness/associations and brand loyalty on internet banking brand equity. *International Journal of Electronic Commerce Studies, 4*, 139–159. doi:10.7903/ijecs.1000

Cunningham, G. B., Fairley, S., Ferkins, L., Kerwin, S., Lock, D., Shaw, S., & Wicker, P. (2018). esport: Construct specifications and implications for sport management. *Sport Management Review, 21*, 1–6.

Dacin, P. A., & Smith, D. C. (1994). The effect of brand portfolio characteristics on consumer evaluations of brand extensions. *Journal of Marketing Research, 31*, 229–242.

Dall'Olmo Riley, F., Hand, C., & Guido, F. (2014). Evaluating brand extensions, fit perceptions and post-extension brand image: Does size matter? *Journal of Marketing Management, 30*, 904–924. doi:10.1080/0267257X.2014.926962

de Ruyter, K., & Wetzels, M. (2000). The role of corporate image and extension similarity in service brand extensions. *Journal of Economic Psychology, 21*, 639–659. doi:10.1016/S0167-4870(00)00024-6

Delia, E. B. (2015). *What is the "team" in team identification?* , Florida State University, Tallahassee, FL.

Dictionaries, O. E. (n.d.). Sport. In.

Dillman, D. A., Smyth, J. D., & Christian, L. M. (2014) *Internet, phone, mail, and mixed-mode surveys: The tailored design method* (4th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Dimmrock, J., Grove, J., & Eklund, R. (2005). Reconceptualizing team identification: New dimensions and their relationship to intergroup bias. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice 9*(2), 75–86.

Doyle, J. P., Filo, K., McDonald, H., & Funk, D. C. (2013). Exploring sport brand double jeopardy: The link between team market share and attitudinal loyalty. *Sport Management Review, 16*, 285–297. doi:10.1016/j.smr.2012.11.001

Doyle, P. (1994). *Marketing management and strategy*. Englewood Cliff; NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Drayer, J., Dwyer, B., & Shapiro, S. L. (2013). Examining the impact of league entry fees on online fantasy sport participation and league consumption. *European Sport Management Quarterly, 13*, 339–357.

Ehrenberg, A. S. C. (1988). *Repeat buying: Facts, theory and data*. London: Charles Griffin.

Enders, C. K. (2001). The impact of nonnormality on full information maximum-likelihood estimation for structural equation models with missing data. *Psychological Methods*, *6*, 352–370.

Erdfelder, E., Faul, F., & Buchner, A. (1996). GPOWER: A general power analysis program. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, & Computers*, *28*, 1–11.

Esports. (2017). *Newzoo*. Retrieved from https://newzoo.com/insights/markets/esports/

Farquhar, P. (1989). Managing brand equity. *Marketing Research, 1*(3), 24–33.

Fazio, R., Williams, C., & Powell, M. (2000). Measuring associative strength: Category-item associations and their activation from memory. *Political Psychology, 21*(1), 7–25.

Fetscherin, M. (2010). The determinants and measurement of a country brand: The country brand strength index. *International Marketing Review, 27*, 466–479. doi:doi:10.1108/02651331011058617

Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics* (4th ed.). London: Sage

Fink, J. S., Parker, H. M., Brett, M., & Higgins, J. (2009). Off-field behavior of athletes and team identification: Using social identity theory and balance theory to explain fan reactions. *Journal of Sport Management*, *23*, 142-155.

Fink, J. S., Trail, G. T., & Anderson, D. F. (2002). An examination of team identification: What motives are most salient to its existence? *International Sports Journal*, *6*, 195-207.

Fisher, R., & Wakefield, K. (1998). Factors leading to group identification: A field study of winners and losers. *Psychology & Marketing, 15*(1), 23–40

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*, 39–50.

Funk, D. C., & James, J. (2001). The psychological continuum model: A conceptual framework for understanding an individual's psychological connection to sport. *Sport Management Review, 4*, 119–150. doi:10.1016/S1441-3523(01)70072-1

Funk, D. C., & James, J. (2006). Consumer loyalty: The meaning of Attachment in the development of sport team allegiance. *Journal of Sport Management, 20*, 189–217

Funk, D. C., Pizzo, A. D., & Baker, B. J. (2018). esport management: Embracing esport education and research opportunities. *Sport Management Review, 21*, 7–13.

Gladden, J., & Funk, D. C. (2001). Understanding brand loyalty in professional sport: Examining the link between brand associations and brand loyalty. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship, 3*(1), 67–94.

Gladden, J., & Funk, D. C. (2002). Developing an understanding of brand associations in team sport: Empirical evidence from consumers of professional sport. *Journal of Sport Management, 16*, 54–81.

Gladden, J., & Milne, G. R. (1999). Examining the importance of brand equity in professional sport. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 8*, 21–29.

Gladden, J., Milne, G. R., & Sutton, W. A. (1998). A conceptual framework for assessing brand equity in Division I college athletics. *Journal of Sport Management, 12*, 1–19.

Glynn, M., & Sandhaug, L. (2009). *The dillution effects of a line extension on a brand portfolio.* Paper presented at the ANZMAC, Melbourne, Australia.

Graham, B. A. (2017). esports to be a medal event at 2022 Asian Games. *The Guardian.* Retrieved from https://www.theguardian.com/sport/2017/apr/18/esports-to-be-medal-sport-at-2022-asian-games

Graham, C., Bennett, D., Franke, K., Henfrey, C. L., & Nagy-Hamada, M. (2017). Double Jeopardy – 50 years on. Reviving a forgotten tool that still predicts brand loyalty. *Australasian Marketing Journal, 25*, 278–287. doi:10.1016/j.ausmj.2017.10.009

Grewal, R., Cote, J. A., & Baumgartner, H. (2004). Multicollinearity and measurement error in structural equation models: Implications for theory testing. *Marketing Science*, *23*, 519–529. doi:10.1287/mksc.1040.0070

Grubor, A., Djokic, I., & Milovanov, O. (2017). The influence of social media communication on brand equity: The evidence for environmentally friendly products. *Applied Ecology & Environmental Research, 15*, 963–983. doi:10.15666/aeer/1503_963983

Hair, J. F., Jr., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (2002). *Multivariate data analysis* (6th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Mulitvariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pretince Hall.

Hakala, U., Svensson, J., & Vincze, Z. (2012). Consumer-based brand equity and top-of mind awareness: A cross-country analysis. *Journal of Product and Brand Management, 21*, 439–451. doi:doi:10.1108/10610421211264928

Hallmann, K., & Giel, T. (2018). esports – Competitive sports or recreational activity? *Sport Management Review, 21*, 14–20.

Hamari, J., & Sjöblom, M. (2017). What is esports and why do people watch it? *Internet Research, 27*, 211–232. doi:10.1108/IntR-04-2016-0085

Haugh, B. R., & Watkins, B. (2016). Tag me, tweet me if you want to reach me: An investigation into how sports fans use social media. *International Journal of Sport Communication, 9*, 278–293.

Heere, B. (2018). Embracing the sportification of society: Defining e-sports through a polymorphic view on sport. *Sport Management Review, 21*, 21–24.

Heere, B., & James, J. D. (2007). Stepping outside the lines: Developing a multi-dimensional team identity scale based on social identity theory. *Sport Management Review, 10*, 65–91. doi:10.1016/S1441-3523(07)70004-9

Heere, B., Walker, M., Yoshida, M., Ko, Y. J., Jordan, J. S., & James, J. D. (2011). Brand community development through associated communities: Grounding community measurement within social identity theory. *Journal of Marketing Theory & Practice, 19*(4), 407–422.

Hem, L. E., Iversen, N. M., & Olsen, L. E. (2014). Category characteristics' effects on brand extension attitudes: A research note. *Journal of Business Research*, *67*, 1589–1595.

Holden, J. T., Kaburakis, A., & Rodenberg, R. (2017). The future is now: Esports policy considerations and potential litigation. *Journal of Legal Aspects of Sport, 27*, 46–78.

Holmes-Smith, P. (2009). *Structural equation modeling: From the fundamentals to advanced topics*. Red Hill: School Research, Evaluation, and Measurement Services.

Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *6*, 1-55. doi:10.1080/10705519909540118

Jenny, S. E., Keiper, M. C., Taylor, B. J., Williams, D. P., Gawrysiak, J., Manning, R. D., & Tutka, P. M. (2018). esports venues: A new sport business opportunity. *Journal of Applied Sport Management, 10*, 34–49.

John, D., Loken, B., & Joiner, C. (1998). The negative impact of extensions: Can flagship products be diluted? *Journal of Marketing, 62*(1), 19–32.

Kane, D., & Spradley, B. D. (2017). Recognizing esports as a sport. *The Sport Journal, 20*.

Keller, K. L. (1993). Conceptualizing, measuring, managing customer-based brand equity. *Journal of Marketing, 57*, 1–22.

Keller, K. L. (2009). Building strong brands in a modern marketing communications environment. *Journal of marketing Communications, 15*, 139–155. doi:10.1080/13527260902757530

Keller, K. L., & Aaker, D. A. (1992). The effects of sequential introduction of brand extensions. *Journal of Marketing Research, 29*, 35–60.

Keller, K. L., & Lehmann, D. R. (2006). Brands and branding: Research findings and future priorities. *Marketing Science, 25*, 740–759.

Kellison, T. B., Bass, J. R., Oja, B. D., & James, J. D. (2016). Brand management in top-tier college athletics: Examining and explaining mark-usage policies. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship, 17*, 219–242.

Kelly, S. J., Ireland, M., Mangan, J., & Williamson, H. (2016). It works two ways: Impacts of sponsorship alliance upon sport and sponsor image. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 25*, 241–259.

Kendall, M. & Stuart, A. (1958). *The advanced theory of statistics*. New York: Hafner.

Kerr, A. K., & Gladden, J. M. (2008). Extending the understanding of professional team brand equity to the global marketplace. *International Journal of Sport Marketing and Management, 3*, 58–77.

Khan, I. (2018). Adam Silver vows to develop esports entity as 'fourth league in our family'. *ESPN*. Retrieved from http://www.espn.com/esports/story/_/id/23029042/nba-commissioner-adam-silver-welcomes-fourth-league-nba-2k-esports-league

Kim, H. (2015). *Brand extension in destination management: A case of Jeju Island, South Korea.* University of Florida, Gainesville, FL.

Kim, H., & John, D. R. (2008). Consumer response to brand extensions: Construal level as a

    moderator of the importance of perceived fit. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 18*, 116–

    126. doi:10.1016/j.jcps.2008.01.006

Kim, H. Y. (2013). Statistical notes for clinical researchers: Assessing normal distribution using

    skewness and kurtosis. *Restorative Dentistry & endodontics*, *38*(1), 52–54.

    doi:10.5395/rde.2013.38.1.52

Kline, R. B. (2005). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (2nd ed.). New

York: Guilford Press.

Kline, R. B. (2011). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling* (3rd ed.). New

    York, NY: Guilford Press.

Kolbe, R., & James, J. (2003). The internalization process among team followers: Implications

    for team loyalty. *International Journal of Sport Management, 4*(1), 25–43.

Konecik, M., & Gartner, W. C. (2007). Customer-based brand equity for a destination. *Annals of

    Tourism Research, 34*, 400–421.

Kotler, P. (1991). *Marketing management: Analysis, planning, implementation, and control*.

    Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Kotler, P., & Keller, K. L. (2006). *Marketing management*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson

    Education.

Kotler, P., & Keller, K. L. (2015). *Marketing management*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice

    Hall.

Kunkel, T., Doyle, J. P., & Funk, D. C. (2014). Exploring sport brand development strategies to

    strengthen consumer involvement with the product – The case of the Australian A-

    League. *Sport Management Review, 17*, 470–483. doi:10.1016/j.smr.2014.01.004

Kunkel, T., Doyle, J. P., Funk, D. C., Du, J., & McDonald, H. (2016). The development and change of brand associations and their influence on team loyalty over time. *Journal of Sport Management, 30*, 117–134.

Kunkel, T., Funk, D. C., & Lock, D. (2017). The effect of league brand on the relationship between the team brand and behavioral intentions: A formative approach examining brand associations and brand relationships. *Journal of Sport Management, 31*, 317–332. doi:10.1123/jsm.2016-0166

Kwon, H., & Trail, G. (2003). A reexamination of the construct and concurrent validity of the psychological commitment to team scale. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 12*, 88–93.

Kwon, H. H., Trail, G. T., & Anderson, D. S. (2005). Are multiple points of attachment necessary to predict cognitive, affective, conative, or behavioral loyalty? *Sport Management Review, 8*, 255–270

Lee, D., & Schoenstedt, L. J. (2011). Comparison of esports and traditional sports consumption motives. *Journal of Research in Health, Physical Education, Recreation, Sport & Dance, 6*(2), 39–44.

Li, R. (2016). *Good luck have fun: The rise of esports*. New York: Skyhorse Publishing.

Little, R. J. A., & Rubin, D. B. (1987). *Statistical analysis with missing data*. New York: Wiley.

Liu, Y., Foscht, T., Eisingerich, A. B., & Tsai, H. T. (2018). Strategic management of product and brand extensions: Extending corporate brands in B2B vs. B2C markets. *Industrial Marketing Management, 71*, 147–159. doi:10.1016/j.indmarman.2017.12.016

Llorens, M. R. (2017). esport gaming: The rise of a new sports practice. *Sport, Ethics & Philosophy, 11*, 464–476.

Lock, D., & Funk, D. C. (2016). The multiple in-group identity framework. *Sport Management*

    Review, 19, 85–96.

Loken, B. (2006). Consumer psychology: Categorization, inferences, affect, and persuasion.

    Annual Review of Psychology, 57, 453–485.

    doi:10.1146/annurev.psych.57.102904.190136

Loken, B., & John, D. R. (1993). Diluting brand beliefs: When do brand extensions have a

    negative impact? *Journal of Marketing, 57*, 71–84.

MaCallum,R. C., Browne, M. W., & Sugawara, H. M. (1996). Power analysis and determination

    of sample size for covariance structural modeling. *Psychological Methods*, *1*(2), 130–

    149.

Mahony, D. F., Madrigal, R., & Howard, D. (2000). Using the psychological commitment to a

    team (PCT) scale to segment sport consumer based on loyalty. *Sport Marketing*

    Quarterly, 9, 15–25.

Mandler, G. (1982). *The structure of value: Accounting for taste. In M.S. Clark & S.T. Fiske*

    (Eds.), Affect and Cognition: The 17th Annual Carnegie Symposium. Hillsdale, NJ:

    Lawrence Erlbaum.

Maoz, E., & Tybout, A. (2002). The moderating role of involvement and differentiation in

the evaluation of brand extensions. *Journal of Consumer Psychology, 12*(2), 119–131.

Martínez, E., & de Chernatony, L. (2004). The effect of brand extension strategies upon brand

    image. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 21*, 39–50. doi:10.1108/07363760410513950

Martínez, E., Montaner, T., & Pina, J. M. (2009). Brand extension feedback: The role of

    advertising. *Journal of Business Research, 62*, 305–313.

    doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.05.009

Matarid, N. M., Youssef, M. A. M., & Alsoud, G. F. A. (2014). The impact of brand extension

strategy on the brand equity of fast moving consumer goods (FMCG) in Egypt. *European

Journal of Business and Management, 6*(21), 154–163.

McPhee, W. N. (1963). *Formal theories of mass behaviour*. New York: The Free Press of

Glencoe.

McPherson, J. (2018, January 25). The XFL is making a comeback. Could it impact Miami?

Miami Herald. Retrieved from

https://www.miamiherald.com/sports/fighting/article196639084.html

Meyers-Levy, J., Louis, T., & Curren, M. (1994). How does the congruity of brand names affect

evaluations of brand name extensions? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 79*(1), 46–53.

Mills, I., & Williams, A. (2016). Understanding brand equity in campus recreational sports: A

consumer-based perspective. *Recreational Sports Journal, 40*, 120–132.

Misener, L., & Mason, D. S. (2006). Creating community networks: Can sporting events offer

meaningful sources of social capital? *Managing Leisure, 11*(1), 39–56.

doi:10.1080/13606710500445676

Misener, L., & Schulenkorf, N. (2016). Rethinking the social salue of sport events through an

asset-based community development (ABCD) perspective. *Journal of Sport

Management, 30*, 329–340. doi:10.1123/jsm.2015-0203

Mitrevski, L. (2017). The lost demographic of the female esports audience. *Esports Insider*.

Retrieved from https://esportsinsider.com/2017/10/esports-lost-demographic/

Molina, B. (2018, January 12). Why watch other people play video games? What you need to

know about esports. *USA Today*. Retrieved from https://www.usatoday.com/story/tech/

news/2018/01/12/more-people-watch-esports-than-x-dont-get-here-basics/1017054001/

Moore, K. (2017). The rise in college esports scholarships. *The Esports Observer*. Retrieved

from http://esportsobserver.com/esports-scholarships/

Morrison, S. (2018). List of varsity esports programs spans North America. *ESPN*. Retrieved

from http://www.espn.com/esports/story/_/id/21152905/college-esports-list-varsity-

esports-programs-north-america

Mullin, B. J., Hardy, S., & Sutton, W. A. (2007). *Sport marketing* (3rd ed). Champaign, IL:

Human Kinetics.

Muthén, L. K. (2001, March 8). An indicator with three categories [Online discussion comment].

Retrieved from http://www.statmodel.com/discussion/messages/9/89.html?1393956352

Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. O. (2018). M*plus* 8 for Windows [Computer software]. Los

Angeles: Muthén & Muthén.

Nahapiet, J., & Ghoshal, S. (1998). Social capital, intellectual capital, and the organizational

advantage. *Academy of Management Review, 23*, 242–266.

NBA 2K League info. (2018). Retrieved from https://2kleague.nba.com/league-info/

Newzoo. (2016). 2016 global esports market report. Retrieved from https://resources.newzoo.

com/hubfs/Reports/NEWZOO_Free_2016_Esports_Market_Report.pdf?submissionGuid

=9726dbd6-8529-4a37-9725-c4f218d4d054

Nielsen. (2017). The esports playbook. Retrieved from https://www.nielsen.com/content/dam

/nielsenglobal/ru/docs/nielsen-esports-playbook.pdf

Nite, C., Ige, A., & Washington, M. (2018). The evolving institutional work of the National

Collegiate Athletic Association to maintain dominance in a fragmented field. *Sport

Management Review, in press*, 1–16 doi:10.1016/j.smr.2018.05.002

Official release. (2017). In *17 NBA teams to take part in inaugural NBA 2K esports league in 2018*.

Paaßen, B., Morgenroth, T., & Stratemeyer, M. (2016). What is a true gamer? The male gamer stereotype and the marginalization of women in video game culture. *Sex Roles*, *76*, 421–435.

Papadimitriou, D., Apostolopoulou, A., & Loukas, I. (2004). The role of perceived fit in fans' evaluation of sports brand extensions. *International Journal of Sports Marketing & Sponsorship, 6*(1), 31–48.

Park, C. W., Milberg, S., & Lawson, R. (1991). Evaluation of brand extensions: The role of product feature similarity and brand concept consistency. *Journal of Consumer Research, 18*, 185–193.

Pfahl, M. E., Kreutzer, A., Maleski, M., Lillibridge, J., & Ryznar, J. (2012). If you build it, will they come?: A case study of digital spaces and brand in the National Basketball Association. *Sport Management Review, 15*, 518–537.

Pike, S. (2010). Destination branding case study: Tracking brand equity for an emerging destination between 2003 and 2007. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research, 34*, 124–139.

Pina, J. M., Iversen, N. M., & Martinez, E. (2010). Feedback effects of brand extensions on the brand image of global brands: A comparison between Spain and Norway. *Journal of Marketing Management, 26*, 943–966. doi:10.1080/02672570903458789

Pitta, D. A., & Katsanis, L. P. (1995). Understanding brand equity for successful brand extension. *Journal of Consumer Marketing, 12*(4), 51–64. doi:10.1108/07363769510095306

Pitts, B. G,, 8t Stotlar, D. K. (2013). *Fundamentals of sport marketing*. (4th ed.). Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology

Pizzo, A. D., Baker, B. J., Na, S., Lee, M., Kim, K., & Funk, D. C. (2018). esport vs. Sport: A comparison of consumer motives. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 27*, 108–123.

Prados-Peña, M. B., & del Barrio-García, S. (2018). The effect of fit and authenticity on attitudes toward the brand extension: The case of the Monumental Complex of the Alhambra and Generalife. *Journal of Cultural Heritage, 31*, 170–179. doi:10.1016/j.culher.2017.12.003

Rainie, L., Smith, A., & Duggan, M. (2013). Coming and going on Facebook. *Pew Research Center's Internet & American Life Project*. Retrieved from http://www.pewinternet.org /2013/02/05/coming-and-going-on-facebook/

Reddy, S. K., Holak, S. L., & Bhat, S. (1994). To extend or not to extend: Success determinants of line extensions. *Journal of Marketing Research, 31*, 241–261.

Richelieu, A., & Pons, F. (2011). How strong is my sports brand? The case of the Montréal Canadiens Hockey Club. *Journal of Sponsorship, 4*, 353–365.

Robinson, M. J., Trail, G. T., & Hyungil, K. (2004). Motives and Points of Attachment of Professional Golf Spectators. *Sport Management Review (Sport Management Association of Australia & New Zealand), 7*(2), 167-192.

Robinson, M. J., & Trail, G. T. (2005). Relationships among spectator gender, motives, points of attachment, and sport preference. *Journal of Sport Management*, *19*, 58–80.

Roehrich, G. (1995). Innovativit´es h´edoniste et sociale: Proposition d'une echelle de mesure. *Recherche et Applications en Marketing*, *9*, 19–41 [in French].

Rosch, E. (1975). Cognitive representations of semantic categories. *Journal of Experimental Psychology, 104*, 192–233.

Ross, S. D., Hyejin, B., & Seungum, L. (2007). Assessing brand associations for intercollegiate ice hockey. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 16*, 106–114.

Ross, S. D., James, J. D., & Vargas, P. (2006). Development of a scale to measure team brand associations in professional sport. *Journal of Sport Management, 20*, 260–279.

Ross, S. D., Russell, K. C., & Bang, H. (2008). An empirical assessment of spectator-based brand equity. *Journal of Sport Management, 22*, 322–337.

Sandomir, R. (2000, February 4). Sports Business; W.W.F. alters script and looks to football. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from https://www.nytimes.com/2000/02/04/sports/sports-business-wwf-alters-script-and-looks-to-football.html

Schaeperkoetter, C. C., Oja, B., Mays, J., Krueger, K., Hyland, S. T., Christian, R., . . . Bass, J. R. (2017). The "new" student-athlete: An exploratory examination of scholarship esports players. *Journal of Intercollegiate Sport, 10*, 1–21.

Shapiro, S. L., Ridinger, L. L., & Trail, G. T. (2013). An analysis of multiple spectator consumption behaviors, identifications, and future behavioral intentions within the context of a new college football program. *Journal of Sport Management*, *27*, 130–145.

Sheinin, D. A., & Schmitt, B. H. (1994). Extending brands with new product concepts: The role of category attribute congruity, brand affect, and brand breadth. *Journal of Business Research, 31*, 1–10. doi:10.1016/0148-2963(94)90040-X

Singer, D. (2017, September 8). We are wrong about millennials; they ARE sports fans. *Sports Business Journal*. Retrieved from https://www.sportsbusinessdaily.com/Journal/Issues/2017/09/18/Opinion/Singer.aspx

Sood, S., & Keller, K. L. (2012). The effects of brand name structure on brand extension evaluations and parent brand dilution. *Journal of Marketing Research, 49*, 373–382. doi:10.1509/jmr.07.0418

Spiggle, S., Nguyen, H. T., & Caravella, M. (2012). More than fit: Brand extension authenticity. *Journal of Marketing Research, 49*, 967–983. doi:10.1509/jmr.11.0015

Srivastava, K., & Sharma, N. K. (2012). Consumer attitude towards brand-extension incongruity: The moderating role of need for cognition and need for change. *Journal of Marketing Management, 28*(5-6), 652-675. doi:10.1080/0267257X.2011.558383

Stokburger-Sauer, N., Ratneshwar, S., & Sen, S. (2012). Drivers of consumer-brand identification. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 29*(4), 406–418.

Stokburger-Sauer, N., & Teichmann, K. (2014). The relevance of consumer–brand identification in the team sport industry. *Marketing Review St. Gallen, 2*, 20–30.

Sunde, L., & Brodie, R. J. (1993). Consumer evaluations of brand extensions: Further empirical results. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 10*, 47–53. doi:10.1016/0167-8116(93)90032-T

Tajfel, H. (1982). Social psychology of intergroup relations. *Annual Review o f Psychology, 33*, 1–39.

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W. G. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.). In *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33–47). Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Takahashi, D. (2017). Nielsen: Esports fans follow an average of 5.7 games. *VentureBeat*. Retreived from https://venturebeat.com/2017/10/02/nielsen-esports-fans-follow-an-average-of-5-7-games/

Tauber, E. M. (1981). Brand franchise extension: New product benefits from existing brand names. *Business Horizons, 24*(2), 36–41.

Taylor, V. A., & Bearden, W. O. (2003). Ad spending on brand extensions: Does similarity matter? *Journal of Brand Management, 11*(1), 63–74.

Trail, G. T. (2012). Mannual for the MSSC. Retrieved from http://sportconsumerresearchcon sultants.yolasite.com/resources/MSSC%20Manual%20-%202012.pdf

Trail, G. T., & James, J. D. (2001). The motivation scale for sport consumption: Assessment of the scale's psychometric properties. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 24*, 108–127.

Trail, G. T., & James, J. D. (2015). *Sport consumer behavior (2nd ed.)*. Seattle, WA: Sport Consumer Research Consultants.

Trail, G. T., Robinson, M. J., Dick, R. J., & Gillentine, A. J. (2003). Motives and points of attachment: Fans versus spectators in intercollegiate athletics. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *12*, 217–227.

Underwood, R., Bond, E., & Baer, R. (2001). Building service brands via social identity: Lessons from the sports marketplace. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 9*(1), 1–13.

Völckner, F., & Sattler, H. (2006). Drivers of brand extension success. *Journal of Marketing, 70*, 18–34. doi:10.1509/jmkg.70.2.18

Walsh, P. (2008). *The impact of brand extensions on the brand associations of a professional sports team.* University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN.

Walsh, P., Chien, C. I. J., & Ross, S. (2012). Sport teams as brand extensions: A case of Taiwanese baseball. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 21*, 138–146.

Walsh, P., Hwang, H., Lim, C. H., & Pedersen, P. M. (2015). Examining the use of professional

    sport teams as a brand extension strategy in Korean Professional Baseball. *Sport*

    Marketing Quarterly, 24, 214–224.

Walsh, P., & Lee, S. (2012). Development of a brand extension decision-making model for

    professional sport teams. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 21*, 232–242.

Walsh, P., & Ross, S. D. (2010). Examining brand extensions and their potential to dilute team

    brand associations. *Sport Marketing Quarterly, 19*, 196–206.

Walsh, P., & Williams, A. (2017). To extend or not extend a human brand: An analysis of

    perceived fit and attitudes toward athlete brand extensions. *Journal of Sport*

    Management, 31, 44–60. doi:10.1123/jsm.2015-0314

Wang, M. C., & Tang, Y. (2018). Examining the antecedents of sport team brand equity: A dual-

    identification perspective. *Sport Management Review, 21*, 293–306.

    doi:10.1016/j.smr.2017.07.010

Wann, D., & Branscombe, N. (1993). Sports fans: Measuring degree of identification with their

    team. *International Journal of Sport Psychology, 24*(1), 1–17.

Watkins, B. A. (2014). Revisiting the social identity-brand equity model: An application to

    professional sports. *Journal of Sport Management, 28*, 471–480.

Weinstein, A. (1994). Market segmentation: Using demographics, psychographics, and other

    niche marketing techniques to predict and model customer behavior (2nc^ ed.). Chicago,

    IL: Probus Publishing Co.

Weller, C. (2016). A new esports scholarship will award $20,000 to student gamers. *Business*

    Insider. Retrieved from http://www.businessinsider.com/new-esports-scholarship-for-

    student-gamers-2016-3

Weston, R., & Gore, P. A. (2006). A brief guide to structural equation modeling. *The Counseling Psychologist*, *34*, 719–751.

Yoo, B., & Donthu, N. (2002). Testing cross-cultural invariance of the brand equity creation process. *Journal of Product and Brand Management, 11*, 380–398.

Yorkston, E. A., Nunes, J. C., & Matta, S. (2010). The malleable brand: The role of implicit theories in evaluating brand extensions. *Journal of Marketing, 74*, 80–93. doi:10.1509/jmkg.74.1.80

Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1985). Measuring the involvement construct. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *12*, 341–352. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/254378

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

MARKETING ANNOUNCEMENT: TWITTER

#NBA #esport fans click here for a brief #NBA2KLEAGUE survey, you can win $50

#GAMESTOP cards or @[esport Team Name] gear! thx & please share

APPENDIX B

MARKETING ANNOUNCEMENT: GENERAL

Hello,

I am doing research for my dissertation on [esport Team Name], which is the [NBA Team Name's] new esport team that competes in the NBA 2K League this year. I am interested in learning about what people think about this extension of the [NBA Team Name] into esports. As long as you are a U.S. resident over 18 years of age you are welcome to fill out the survey regardless of your familiarity with the [NBA Team Name], or esports in general. Please feel free to share this email and survey link with anyone who may be interested in participating. The survey takes about 10 minutes to complete and does not require any personal information. You can choose to provide your email address, which will only be used to randomly select six participants who will receive a $50 Game Stop gift card, or [esport Team Name]. Thank you in advance for your help!

Survey Link: esportsurvey

Glynn McGehee
Ph.D. Student
Sport Administration
Georgia State University
Atlanta, GA
E: gmcgehee1@student.gsu.edu

APPENDIX C

STATEMENT OF INFORMED CONSENT

Thank you for choosing to participate in our esports survey.

In 2019, the NBA's [Team Name] launched an expansion team (esport Team Name) in the NBA 2K League. [esport Team Name] drafts professional esport athletes who compete against other NBA franchises' esport teams. NBA 2K League games are broadcast on Twitch. Teams compete over the course of a 15-week regular season and a 2-week playoff between July 24th and August 3rd.

We want to learn your thoughts about esports. We hope you will take a moment to complete this survey, which should not take more than 10 minutes of your time.

Taking part in the study is voluntary. There are no anticipated risks or benefits to taking the survey, but your participation is appreciated. You may exit the survey at any time or choose not to take part in the study.

You must be a U.S. resident age 18 or older to participate. You may choose to provide your email address at the end of the survey to enter a raffle to win one of three $50 gift cards to GameStop, or [esport Team Name] merchandise. You may enter your email address whether or not you chose to participate in the research. Email addresses will only be used to notify raffle winners. Your responses are anonymous. We will not share or keep any identifiable information. If you have any questions or comments about this survey, please feel free to contact us at gmcgehee1@student.gsu.edu

Thank you for your time.

Please note that some questions may seem repetitive.

Click below to continue

APPENDIX D

ESPORT ONLINE SURVEY 2019

I am 18 years of age or older.

○ Yes

○ No

Where did you receive the link to this survey from?

○ [NBA Team Name] email

○ [NBA Team Name] social media (e.g., Facebook/Twitter)

○ [esport Team Name] email

○ [esport Team Name] social media (e.g., Facebook/Twitter)

○ Social media group (e.g., Facebook group)

○ Reddit page

○ Club/organization

○ From friend/colleague

○ Restaurant/bar

○ Not Sure

○ Other

If you are having trouble viewing the survey on a cell phone, please try TURNING YOUR DEVICE SIDEWAYS/HORIZONTALLY.

For the following questions, please rate the extent to which you DISAGREE or AGREE with each statement.

First and foremost, I consider myself a sport video gamer.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I am a basketball fan at all levels (e.g., high school, college, professional).

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Basketball is my favorite sport.

			Neither			
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Being an esport fan is important to me.

			Neither			
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

First and foremost, I consider myself a basketball fan.

			Neither			
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I would experience a loss if I had to stop being a fan of the [NBA Team Name] basketball team.

			Neither			
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I prefer to play NBA 2K over other sport video games.

			Neither			
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I consider myself a "real" fan of the [NBA Team Name].

			Neither			
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I identify as a gamer in general rather than as a specific type of gamer.

			Neither			
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Being a fan of the [NBA Team Name] is very important to me.

			Neither			
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

We are interested in your opinions and evaluations regarding the [NBA Team Name] basketball club (NBA) and [esport Team Name]. For the following questions, please rate the extent to which you DISAGREE or AGREE with each statement.

Before taking this survey, I was already familiar with [esport Team Name].

			Neither			
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Launching [esport Team Name] is appropriate for the [NBA Team Name].

			Neither			
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

With [esport Team Name], it seems that the [NBA Team Name] are more concerned about preserving the brand rather than growing the market.

			Neither			
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

The style of [esport Team Name] seems to reflect that of the [NBA Team Name].

			Neither			
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

The [NBA Team Name] Organization has a good reputation.

			Neither			
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

[esport Team Name] is similar to the [NBA Team Name] product.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Launching [esport Team Name] is logical for the [NBA Team Name].

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

[esport Team Name] is a creative extension of the [NBA Team Name].

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Altogether, I think of the [NBA Team Name] in a positive way.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

[esport Team Name] captures what makes the [NBA Team Name] unique to me.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

esports and NBA basketball both fit in the category of sports.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

There is no link between [esport Team Name] and what I know about the [esport Team Name's] legacy.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

The [NBA Team Name's] esport venture is imaginative.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

The idea of an [NBA Team Name's] esport team is innovative.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

[esport Team Name] team fits with the [NBA Team Name's] brand image.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

The [NBA Team Name] are a high quality organization.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

[esport Team Name] is an authentic extension of the [NBA Team Name's] brand.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

An esport team is a natural fit with a sport organization.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

The [NBA Team Name's] extension into esport is clever.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

The [NBA Team Name's] esport extension is innovative.

		Neither				
Strongly		Somewhat	Agree nor	Somewhat		Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

For the following questions, please rate the extent to which you DISAGREE or AGREE with each statement regarding [esport Team Name].
Overall, I feel very positive about [esport Team Name].

		Neither				
Strongly		Somewhat	Agree nor	Somewhat		Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I am committed to regularly following [esport Team Name].

		Neither				
Strongly		Somewhat	Agree nor	Somewhat		Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Following [esport Team Name] will be very exciting.

		Neither				
Strongly		Somewhat	Agree nor	Somewhat		Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I have a favorable attitude towards [esport Team Name].

		Neither				
Strongly		Somewhat	Agree nor	Somewhat		Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

The [esport Team Name] team will provide me the chance to socialize and interact with friends and others.

		Neither				
Strongly		Somewhat	Agree nor	Somewhat		Strongly
Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Agree	Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I believe that team success is a priority for [esport Team Name].

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

[esport Team Name] brings prestige to [City Name].

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I have positive feelings about [esport Team Name].

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

[esport Team Name] will provide me with a break from my daily routine.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I will follow [esport Team Name] because my friends like them too.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

[esport Team Name] cares about their fans.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

I like the logo and colors of [esport Team Name].

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Because the [NBA Team Name] have an esport team, I am more likely to play NBA 2K.

		Neither				
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
○	○	○	○	○	○	○

For the following items, please type a number in the column to the right of the question

How many [NBA Team Name] games do you intend to attend next season (2019-2020)?

How much money do you intend to spend on [NBA Team Name] merchandise in the next year?

How many [NBA Team Name] games you intend to watch live on TV next season (2019-2020)?

If [esport Team Name] opens an esport studio at [NBA Team Arena Name], indicate how many NBA 2K Live games you would attend and watch live in-studio next season (2020, maximum of 8 regular season home games)?

How much money do you intend to spend on [esport Team Name] merchandise in the next year?

How many [esport Team Name] NBA 2K League games (out of 15) do you intend to watch live on Twitch, or any other platform, next season (2020)?

What sport video games do you play? (choose as many as apply)

☐ NBA 2K   ☐ NHL

☐ FIFA   ☐ EA UFC

☐ Madden   ☐ Other [   ]

☐ MLB The Show

On average, how many hours do you spend gaming (non-sport video games) per week?

[   ]

On average, how many hours do you spend playing sport video games per week?

On average, how many hours do you spend watching NBA basketball per week during basketball season?

What is your age?

I identify my gender as:

I identify my race or ethnic heritage as (choose one or more options):

- ☐ White
- ☐ Black or African American
- ☐ American Indian or Alaska Native
- ☐ Asian
- ☐ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander
- ☐ Some other race
- ☐ I wish to decline this question

Are you of Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin? (choose one option)

- ○ Yes
- ○ No
- ○ I wish to decline this question

What state do you live in?

Please enter your email address if you would like to be entered into a raffle for a $50 GameStop gift card or [esport Team Name] merchandise.

We will only use this email address to notify you about the raffle drawing results on June 2nd 2019. We will randomly select six winners. For more information on the raffle please click here.

If you have additional comments about the [NBA Tea Name], [esport Team Name], or esports, please leave them in the space below, or email gmcgehee1@student.gsu.edu